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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

SPECIAL REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

ON THE

CONDITION AND IMPROVEMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

IN THE

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA,

SUBMITTED TO THE SENATE JUNE, 1868, AND TO THE HOUSE, WITH ADDITIONS, JUNE 13, 1870.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1871.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., May 30, 1868.

SIR: I have the honor to submit herewith to the Senate the report required of the Commissioner of Education, respecting the condition and improvement of public schools in the District of Columbia, approved March 29, 1867.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner.

Hon. B. F. WADE,
President of the Senate.

RESOLUTIONS.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Commissioner of Education be directed to ascertain the number of children resident in the District of Columbia over the age of six years and under the age of eighteen years; the number of said children that are blind and
deaf and dumb; the numl
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Approved March 29, 18

Resolved, That three t
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Senate.
Senate, July 27, 1868.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
January 17, 1870.

Resolved, That the Commissioner of Education be directed to communicate to the House all information in his possession which he shall deem important with reference to the existing system of public education in the District of Columbia, together with such suggestions in reference thereto as he may deem proper for the immediate information of Congress.

Attest: EDWARD McPHERSON, *Clerk*.

EDUCATION IN DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

LETTER OF COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

SIR: In pursuance of a resolution of the House of Representatives, dated January 17, 1870, I have the honor herewith to communicate "such information respecting the existing systems and institutions of education in the District of Columbia" as I have collected, under a resolution of Congress passed March 30, 1867, together with suggestions, which, in the light of the experience of other cities, might make the system more effective, and worthy of the capital of the nation.

This information and these suggestions are contained in the following documents, which, with exception of a few pages, are ready for publicaon, and would have been printed much sooner, under a vote of the enate dated July 1868, but for causes which the Commissioner could ot control. These documents embrace—

I. The results of a census of the population of the District, taken by ıe Commissioner of Education with the coöperation of the municipal athorities of the District, under the direct agency of an experienced atistician, Dr. Franklin Hough, of New York, assisted by the superıtendent and force of the Metropolitan Police.

The general results of this inquiry, as soon as reached, were commuicated to the public and the municipal authorities of the District, and ave been made the basis of the distribution of funds by the school auhorities. But the document will be found to contain a large amount of information as to the number, ages by single years, distribution, and nationality of the juvenile population, with the occupation, peculiar condition, and resources of the people, and the general results of the system and means of education in actual operation in the District.

II. The results, in part, of an inquiry into the action of the National Government and the special ordinances and regulations of the cities of Washington and Georgetown, and the action of the school authorities in these cities and the county in reference to public schools and education generally in the District. This inquiry was intended to be exhaustive, in regard not only to the number, buildings and material equipment, attendance, and teaching force, but also as to the subjects and aids of instruction, not only of the public schools, so designated, but of every institution of learning which existed at the time of the inquiry, under any form of legal organization, or which had received pecuniary aid to any extent from Congress or from the municipal authorities of the District.

The incompleteness of the original inquiry, although minute and satisfactory as to the principal features of the existing system of public

schools, has necessitated another and a more searching investigation into the historical development of education generally, the results of which, so far as ready for publication, will be found in the Appendix, (B, C.) A portion (B) is not yet complete, nor the results, so far as ascertained, made ready for publication; and as it is the basis of the specific recommendations which the Commissioner will submit for the reorganization of the public schools of the District, it will be completed at the earliest possible moment.

The portion (C) already prepared by Mr. M. B. Goodwin, which gives the history of the schools of the colored population prior and subsequent to their national emancipation, is so complete a vindication of their willingness to be taught and ability to profit by the best and highest instruction, that I would respectfully ask for this document, together with another folioed with it, (D,) which gives the legal status of the colored population as to schools and education in the several States, the printing of an extra number of copies to meet the application for the same already made in consequence of the interest awakened in the progress of the investigation.

III. To judge of the "relative efficiency of the systems of public schools now in operation in the District," according to the direction of the original resolution on which the information was collected, an inquiry was instituted into the organization and actual operation of the public schools of the largest cities of the United States, and of a few of the national capitals of Europe—the results of which are given in the report and documents herewith communicated, (F, G, H, I.) They will be found, on examination, to embrace—

1. An outline of the system, and a summary of the statistics of public schools in the capitals and principal cities of the several States, where a system of public schools exists.

2. A Digest of Rules and Regulations, adopted by the highest school authorities in forty-nine cities on every important feature of school administration.

3. Tables exhibiting the principal items of school expenditures, and cost per pupil, in public schools, in sixty of the largest cities, with the aggregate of taxable property, and the amount and rate of taxation in the same, for schools and other purposes.

4. Salaries paid to superintendents, inspectors, and teachers (male and female) of public schools.

5. Plans, dimensions and cost of public school-houses recently erected in cities—supplementary to the Special Report on School Architecture, Part II, submitted in 1868.

6. Subjects and courses of instruction, in detail, in the public schools of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Louis, &c.

7. Outline of the system and statistics of the public schools of Berlin, Dresden, and Vienna, with notes on the system of public instruction in

Prussia, and tables and notes exhibiting the number and grades of institutions of public instruction in other European cities.

This document, as originally projected, is incomplete; but much of the information which belongs to a survey of European city schools will be found in the special report, which the Commissioner is prepared to submit, on "Scientific and Industrial Education; an account of systems, institutions, and courses of instruction in the principles of science, applied to the arts of peace and war in different countries," the contents of a portion of which is herewith appended, and the document itself as part of his communication in answer to resolution of the House.

8. The German schools in the United States—a document submitted by the German Teachers' Society of New York, to explain the reasons which induce so many of the German population to support special schools, taught by "teachers trained in the methods of the fatherland," in cities, where the public schools offer a general and gratuitous instruction to the children of parents of all nationalities.

The statements made in this document are eminently important; and the claims put forth in it, of the superiority of the best of these schools, founded on German models and taught by men trained in the normal seminaries of Germany, to our best public schools, in respect to infant training (*Kindergarten*,) the systematic development of the mental faculties, scientific attainments of a directly useful character, the universal practice of singing, drawing, and gymnastics, and the higher physical hygienic condition of the pupils, should arrest the attention of American teachers and school superintendents. If these claims are well founded, these superior methods and sounder principles of organization and arrangement should be more generally and at once introduced into our normal schools, and from them become the early possession of our teachers and public schools; and the necessity of separating the children of a common country into schools distinguished by the nationality of their parents, during the most impressible period of their lives, should be at once and forever done away with.

So far as the withdrawal of any portion of this class of children from our public schools arises from the absence of facilities for continuing or acquiring a knowledge of the German language and literature, this necessity might be obviated at once by the introduction of this language into the course of study in communities where there already exists a demand for it, or where such demand can be created. This addition, rightly adjusted, would not only not exclude other branches now taught, but might facilitate their acquisition, as well as be a most valuable discipline and attainment in itself.

9. The German and French system of secondary schools, including those of a scientific as well as those of a literary aim.

To complete this study of the relative efficiency of the systems in actual operation in the District, and to profit by the experience of older communities, where the principles and methods of education, the true

order of studies, the logical development of the faculties, and the applications of science to the advancement of the national industries have occupied the best minds among teachers and statesmen for a half century, I would respectfully call the attention of the committee having charge of this subject to the necessity of making special provision for the great department of secondary education, which is entirely ignored in the public educational system of this District, and too generally in the public-school systems of this country, but which constitutes the strongest portion of the best European systems. This department, described, as it exists in the Prussian system, in my report for 1867–'68, will be continued in considerable detail for other countries in the special report which the Commissioner is now preparing to submit on "National Education in different Countries," and the contents of which, as far as completed, is herewith submitted, and the document itself will constitute a portion of his annual report for 1868–'69. Schools of this grade, together with institutions of superior instruction—the college and the university—have never flourished in any country without the aid of governmental legislation and grants, or large private benefactions.

10. To complete this survey of the relative efficiency of the systems of public instruction in the District, there will be given, in the document not yet communicated, a statement of what has been done here toward the establishment and development of colleges and higher seminaries of learning, as well as of the ampler facilities for higher instruction afforded in the national capitals of Europe. If the cherished purpose of Washington, to establish here "a university, where youth from all parts of the United States might receive the polish of erudition in the arts, sciences, and belles-lettres," and for which he made what was thought at the time to be a liberal bequest, although nothing was realized from it, had been seconded by individual liberality and congressional grants of lands, as has been done for many of the States, there might now be in existence here an institution which, without being a college of the American type, or a university on the German plan, would have rivalled the great literary and scientific institutions of Paris, Berlin, Munich, Vienna, and Zurich, several of the most important of which have been established within the present century.

11. Believing that the annual expenditures of the National Government, in the design, construction, and ornamentation of public buildings in and out of the District; in the laying out and embellishment of public grounds; in the commemoration of eminent public service by monuments, painting, sculpture, bronzes, and medals, have done much (and could do more, by enlisting the study of architects and artists generally in their design, and by employing only the best talent which has already achieved success in their execution) to educate the national taste and promote art instruction, an attempt was made, in connection with a general plan for obtaining information on art education in differ-

ent parts of the country, to ascertain the amount and results of such expenditures in this District, which, so far as the Capitol is concerned, is herewith (Appendix I) communicated.

12. To understand fully the difficulties and conditions under which this District was selected for "the permanent seat of government for the United States," and clothed with the power of "exclusive legislation" over all its interests, a history is given of the proceedings of the several bodies which have met to represent the colonies in their efforts to establish a common government, from the first Congress which assembled in New York, on the 7th of October, 1765, to November 10, 1800, when, for the first time, Congress assembled in the city of Washington, and the President, in his opening speech, "congratulated the people of the United States" upon the assembling of Congress at their "permanent seat of government;" and congratulated them and their representatives "on a prospect of a residence not to be changed." The people residing here, in a city laid out by the Government in reference to its own prospective convenience, and not developed gradually from its own resources and wants, naturally look for a more beneficent legislation than would otherwise be required, and particularly in reference to school and educational institutions, which the supreme power of every State now recognizes it as a duty to establish and foster, and which the capital of every civilized government everywhere has always received.

To the suggestions for making the system and the schools of the District more efficient, with which my special report closes, I have now nothing to add.

Respectfully submitted.

HENRY BARNARD.

Hon. SPEAKER *of the House of Representatives.*
January 19, 1870.

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II. DOCUMENTS ACCOMPANYING SPECIAL REPORT.

SPECIAL REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., July 27, 1868.

By the following Resolution of Congress (No. 24, First Session, Fortieth Congress,) approved March 2, 1867, the Commissioner of Education is directed to make an enumeration of the juvenile population of the District of Columbia, to ascertain the condition and relative efficiency of the public schools, and to report on such additional legislation as he thinks necessary to secure the advantages of the system to all the children of the District:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Commissioner of Education be directed to ascertain the number of children resident in the District of Columbia, over the age of six years, and under the age of eighteen years; the number of said children that are blind, and the number that are deaf and dumb; the number and character of public school houses, number of teachers, and the number of pupils in attendance, number and character of school libraries, character of text-books used, average period per annum each pupil is taught, and cost of tuition, with incidental expenses of said schools, and report the same to Congress at its next regular session, together with his opinion of the relative efficiency of the system now in force in said District, and whether any additional legislation is necessary in order to secure the advantages of said system to all of said children.

I. POPULATION AND ITS DISTRIBUTION.

Believing that the responsibility for the present condition of education in the District of Columbia, and for such originating legislation, and aid as shall be found necessary for its fullest development, in reference to the children of the resident population and the special needs of the national Government, so far as they must be or can be best met by local public institutions and agencies, attaches to the Congress of the United States as the fountain of supreme and exclusive jurisdiction over the District,* the Commissioner has conducted his inquiries in the most thorough and exhaustive manner possible in the limited time and with the clerical force at his command.

To form a reliable opinion of the relative efficiency and the necessary modifications of the systems of public schools now in operation in different parts of the District for different classes of its population—in reference to what they accomplish, and to the requirements of the capital of a great nation, with a population already large and rapidly increasing—demands not only full and accurate information on all the points specified in the foregoing resolution, but all the light which the historical development of education in the District, as well as the experience of other large cities and capitals, can shed on the conditions and solution of the problem.

The resolution necessitated the enumeration of that portion of the population within the ages usually devoted to education, and an inquiry as to the number of the various classes who were and who were not under instruction. It seemed desirable to present, in this connection, the home influences incident to nationality and occupation, with facts relative to transient or permanent residence, as materially affecting the educational interests of the District.

The distribution of the population in connection with the existing supply and prospective wants of school accommodations, and the relative proportion of those entitled to these privileges to the total numbers, were questions of obvious utility in the proposed investigation, but could not be ascertained

* The history of the establishment of a permanent seat of Government, with exclusive jurisdiction, will be found in Appendix "A."

without a full enumeration of the inhabitants—a measure not enjoined, but perhaps implied in the resolution of Congress.

The rapid increase of population in the District of Columbia, and especially in the city of Washington, during and since the late war, although a matter of common observation, and proximately within the knowledge of the municipal authorities, was not, however, known with sufficient detail and precision to meet the wants of the local government. With this fact in view, Common Councils of the cities of Washington and Georgetown, and the Commissioners of the Levy Court, having charge of the county of Washington, upon a conference with the Commissioner of Education, were induced to unite with him in bearing a liberal share of the expenses of a full enumeration of the population, and in lending the measure the sanction of their official favor, although not empowered by law to impose penalties for neglecting to comply with the request for a return of the population by families. The Commissioners of the Metropolitan Police concurred in the measure by instructing the chief of police to place at the disposal of the agent employed such portion of his force as might be properly assigned to this duty.

Three methods of enumeration have hitherto been employed in taking a census. By the first, formerly used in the national census, and still practised in several of the Western States, the returns are made by families upon blanks ruled into as many columns as the census makes inquiries, and each family using but one line of the blank. The limit of classification of results is, of course, determined by the headings of the blanks, and must necessarily be limited to a few questions only, and these of the most general character. This form of blank being altogether unsuitable for a thorough analysis of the classes of population, has been discontinued in every census that lays claims to fullness and precision in its results.

By the second method, used in the national census at the last two enumerations, and in several of the Northern and Eastern States, the blank provides that each name shall occupy one line, and the page is ruled into as many columns as there are separate inquiries. These usually include facts relative to age, sex, color, birth-place, occupation, &c., and in some cases are used to denote voters, aliens, paupers, persons unable to read and write, the deaf and dumb, blind, insane, idiotic, &c. In both of these methods the enumeration must be made by persons visiting every family and noting down these facts on the spot, at the dictation of some person in the household acquainted with the facts. It must often happen that the information given is but an approximation to truth, and from absence and other causes the facts desired may often prove beyond the reach of the enumerators.

In view of these sources of error, the custom has for some years been adopted in several European countries of employing householder's schedules, to be left in every family a few days before the day fixed for taking the census, with instructions to have the various facts concerning each inmate filled up by the head of the family, for delivery to the enumerator upon an appointed date. Upon mature deliberation this latter method was employed upon the present occasion. With the further view of rendering the results worthy of confidence, by using the experience derived from extensive practice in labors of this kind, the services of Dr. Franklin B. Hough, of the State of New York, who has made the subject of statistics and social economy a special study during many years, and who has been twice employed as superintendent to take the official decennial census of that great State, and who had performed the work with intelligence, efficiency, and economy, and to the entire satisfaction of the public authorities.

The practical details in the taking of this census, are fully stated by Dr. Hough in the following report, containing the total and comparative results of the enumeration, and possess interest from the fact that this is the first in-

stance in which this method of taking a census has been employed in the United States on so extensive a scale. The result justifies the belief that, under an efficient direction and intelligent organization, it far surpasses the old methods in economy, accuracy, and value. It is believed that an enumeration of so large a population, in so many particulars—some of which were never before included in an official census—was never taken with more accuracy, or the results tabulated and announced in so short a time, and with so small an expense. The thanks of this department are due to the Metropolitan Police Department, the commissioners, superintendent, officers, and men, for their prompt co-operation with Dr. Hough in carrying out the wishes of his department, and thus enabling the Commissioner to present the numbert' nationalities, occupation, and location of the inhabitants of this District.

REPORT OF DR. F. B. HOUGH.

Hon. HENRY BARNARD, *Commissioner of Education:*

Sir—In presenting a classification of results of the census of the District of Columbia, the details of which you have placed under my supervision, it may be proper to sketch the preliminary arrangements and methods employed, with the view of affording a just basis of estimate concerning the merits of the labor, and a proper understanding of the results herewith submitted.

When my attention was first called to the subject, you had caused to be printed a blank form and instructions, arranged with the view of having the enumeration made by persons going from house to house and taking down themselves the facts required, as ascertained by inquiry, in the manner hitherto exclusively employed in the National and State censuses. The blank contained twenty-five columns, and was intended to include the number of square, dwellings numbered in the order of visit, street, material of which house was built, its sanitary condition, and uses to which applied other than as a dwelling; families numbered in order of visit; name, age, sex, color, relation to head of family, birth-place and parentage of each person, together with past and permanent residence in District, whether a voter or owner of real estate in District, occupation, and employment in Government service. If attending school, the blank required the name of school or teacher, number of months in attendance in past year, and if over fifteen and unable to read or write, or if orphan, deaf mute, blind, insane, idiotic, pauper or convict, a record of the fact. The blank was arranged for about forty names on a page, and was quite well adapted for its intended use, upon the plan of enumeration first contemplated.

In the absence of any appropriation applicable to the expenses of this census, from the National Government, you had received encouragement from the municipal authorities of the District sufficient to justify the expectation that their co-operation, as far as asked for, would be given, and from the Commissioners of the Metropolitan Police that they would allow the use of the agencies under their direction, in making the enumeration.

In conferring with Major A. C. Richards, the efficient Chief of Police, it was suggested by him, that the labor would be facilitated by allowing blanks to be left with each family, to be filled up by the head of the family or under his direction, and his views appeared so just that they were approved and subsequently adopted. This method, as is well known, has been employed many years in England in taking the census, and with great success. Under an efficient organization, and with careful preparation, it affords the means for obtaining, at comparatively small expense, the total population of a given district on an appointed day, and with far more general accuracy than is possible to attain in the hurried manner necessarily incident to the old method. The experiment had not as yet been tried in this country, and in some localities it would doubtless be attended with greater difficulties than by the usual method,

especially in thinly settled districts. But in cities and large towns, under a well-organized direction, it has advantages far above all others. It is well worth inquiry, whether our national census might not be taken in the manner employed in this instance, with the most satisfactory results. In the census of the State of New York in 1855 and 1865 efforts were made to secure at least a trial; and in the latter I offered to organize one county, with the view of speedy enumeration by small districts, and with householders' schedules, but the question raised about uniformity of results, decided adversely to the proposition. A modification of the plan strictly analogous to the one under notice was, however, employed in procuring statistics of certain manufactures and institutions, through the aid of special blanks adapted to particular inquiries, and with the most admirable results.

On the 30th of October last, a meeting of the Commissioners of the Metropolitan Police was held, the objects, methods, and details of the proposed census of the District of Columbia were examined and approved, and the Chief of Police was directed to employ the force at his disposal, or so much thereof as might be proper, in making the enumeration.

It was decided that the blanks left with families should have an official notice of the purposes of the census printed upon the back, and that a copy of this notice should be published in the city papers, that the public might be fully and correctly informed upon the subject, and prepared to give the information desired. As a further means of promoting the success of the enterprise, the editors of the several papers published in Washington and Georgetown kindly gave, through their columns to the public, extended and carefully prepared notices of the census, its expected success, and the probable value and interest which the results would afford. There was not, so far as I am informed, a single exception to this statement relative to the friendly expressions of the press in behalf of the enterprise, and the general favor with which it was received by the public is doubtless, in a great degree, due to the intelligent and liberal aid afforded by the journals of the District during the progress of the work.

It was decided to make the enumeration as dating from the morning of Monday, November 11th, and as nearly as possible on that day. There were certain advantages to be derived from this selection of a period, when most of the families who spend their summers in the country had returned, and before the approaching meeting of Congress had affected the aggregate totals of population by the removal thither of large numbers of persons, temporarily resident, and employed during the session. There could, perhaps, be selected no time in the year when a census would embrace more nearly the true and actual population of the District.

Having arranged the preliminaries, no time was lost in putting to press the blank schedule adopted, and in preparing for the work by arranging districts, and instructing the men who were to serve as enumerators. The District is divided into eight police precincts, supposed to be somewhat uniform in amount of popnlation; and in each of these the police organization is directed by a lieutenant.

These lieutenants were assembled, the census and its methods were explained, and a portion of the District map, corresponding with the precincts, was given to each, with a request that he would carefully sub-divide it, according to the best of his information, into as many districts as he had men to assign to the duty, and as nearly equal in population as practicable. These sections of the map were brought together on the next day and the following, properly marked into districts.

Appointments were then made by me, to meet the men detailed for the labor at their several stations, and, during the two days devoted to these appointments, every member of the police concerned in the business, was afforded the

opportunity of learning his duties with reference to the census, the probable difficulties he would encounter, the mode of making his returns complete and uniform, and the manner of reporting the first results of the enumeration.

To facilitate the work of the enumerators, by a proper memorandum of places where blanks were left, and for making their returns, each policeman was furnished with an *Enumerator's Book* of octavo size, in paper covers, with vertical columns and headings extending across both pages. They required the following entries:

Left Hand Page.

1. Number of square on city map.
2. Name of the avenue, street, alley or road.
3. Street number of the building.
4. Material of which the house is built, and year, if in 1866 or 1867.
5. Has it an inhabited basement?
6. Uses (if any) to which the house is applied, other than as a dwelling, as school, office, saloon, &c.

Right Hand Page.

1. Sanitary condition and exposures.
2. Families numbered in order of visit.
3. Total number of families living in house.
4. Number of families living entirely in basement.
5. Number of families living entirely on first floor.
6. Number of families living entirely on second floor.
7. Number of families living entirely on third floor.
8. Number of families living entirely on fourth floor.
9. Householder's blank returned, and memorandum.
10. Total number of persons returned, white.
11. Total number of persons returned, colored.

All of the entries except the last three, were to be made on leaving the blanks at houses. The 9th column of the right hand page served to note the fact of receipt of blank, and the last two, a statement of number of persons returned, with the view of obtaining an early announcement of results.

The outside cover contained the name of the city, ward, precinct and square assigned to each man, the boundaries of his district, described by streets or avenues, the name of the enumerator, and the number assigned to his district. On the inside of the cover was pasted a small portion of the city map, including the squares assigned to him for enumeration, with the names of the streets that bordered or traversed it written in, where they did not happen to be printed on that part of the map which the district included.

On the last page of the cover was printed the following:

"INSTRUCTIONS TO ENUMERATORS.

"When you begin on a block, commence at one corner and go entirely around it, before beginning on another. Be very careful to find every family, and to include all those living in courts and alleys opening by obscure passages into the street.

"Dwelling-houses not inhabited, and those now being erected, should be entered, with all the particulars required in the headings, on the left-hand page of this book, so far as you can ascertain them, together with such sanitary surroundings or exposures, as may be noticed. Of course, no householder's schedules will be left at such houses; and in the column for noting their receipt you will only have to write, at the time of first visit, "vacant," "building," "rebuilding," "repairing," or such other word as may indicate an uninhabited house and its present condition.

"Blocks occupied as improved parks, or for commercial or manufacturing purposes, or by public buildings, or for storage of lumber, &c., as well as those lying vacant and in commons, should be entered in the first column of the left-hand page, and the uses to which applied, other than for dwellings, should be entered across the page, opposite their number, on the same line.

"Buildings designated by street numbers not inhabited, but used as churches, school-houses, private academies, &c., or as manufactories, shops, stores, warehouses, or other business purposes, should be entered by their numbers in the third column of the left-hand page, and the object for which used should be written in the same line. In designating a place of worship, be careful to note the sect or denomination using it, and if a school-house, the name or number of the school, or if a private school, the name of the proprietor.

"It is not the intention to include uninhabited buildings, unless they are designated by a street number, but it is desirable that every number of every street in the two cities should be accounted for in the returns, and that all churches and school-houses in the district, whether numbered or not, should be reported.

"At every school, public or private, inquire whether they have reported to the Department of Education the blanks left with them to be filled. If not, procure the same and bring in with your returns.

"Where two or more families occupy the same house, one line should be taken for each, and they should be numbered continuously in the second column of the right-hand page. A corresponding number should be marked upon the householder's schedule, when it is left with the family to be filled. Your numbers will commence with 1, and run up to the greatest number of families that may be found in the district assigned to you for enumeration.

"In noting the material of which a house is built, it is intended to designate that of the principal front only: Thus, a brick house with a facing of freestone or marble would be entered as "stone."

"Should you meet with persons who appear to hesitate about making returns, through apprehension of some tax or other liability, it will be your duty to assure them that this census is ordered by Congress, primarily for educational purposes, and that the details other than those strictly of this class are intended to afford the data for an intelligent and uniform administration of municipal affairs, with reference to sanitary regulations and the public good.

"The householder's schedules should be all distributed before noon on the 9th of November, and all the entries in this book, except the last three columns, should be made when the blanks are left. Their numbering should carefully correspond with the numbers of the book. They should all be collected on the 11th day of November, and returned to the office of the Chief of Police as early as possible on the afternoon or evening of that day, with an abstract of the number of white and colored persons reported by each family."

Each book contained twenty leaves, and, with some six or eight exceptions, they proved sufficient for the districts. Fifteen entries could be made across each set of pages.

As a further means of securing uniformity, I improved many opportunities of filling out blanks at the police stations, as models for study, and by frequently visiting the officers and men engaged in the duty, sought every occasion to remove difficulties, explain doubtful points, and impress a sense of responsibility in the careful and thorough performance of the service.

It is to be regretted that the delays unavoidable in printing, and the short interval allowed for taking the census, did not afford the opportunity of a more careful study of the blanks, with experimental trials and critical reviews of work. It was also intended to furnish on the back of the blanks a specimen of filling up, embracing the ordinary range of record of a large family, but the near approach of the appointed day rendered me anxious not to delay the press for a complex table of rule and figure work, and it was therefore omitted. I would not allow this opportunity to pass, without expressing the opinion that no census should be taken without such a specimen of finished work before the eye of the person who is to fill up the blank, nor without an opportunity on the part of the enumerator, of making a few trials of his work, before beginning the actual labors of his district. The deficiency was, in a great measure, supplied by the personal explanations and examples furnished, and probably occasioned no appreciable difference in the final result, although the personal duties of preparation were greatly increased. The blank used in this census may interest those engaged in statistical labors, and is here given. It was 8½ by 11 inches in size, and as follows:

[FORM OF CENSUS BLANK.]

List of Members of this Family (inmates, boarders and servants) on the morning of November 11, 1867.

Before filling this blank, read the the instructions on the back of this sheet.

	NAME OF EVERY PERSON IN THE FAMILY.	AGE.	SEX	CONDITION	COLOR.	BIRTHPLACE.	PARENTAGE.		RESIDENCE.		D. C.	VOTERS.	D. C.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.						
	In this column write the name of every person living or boarding in the family on the morning of Monday, November 11th. Write the name of the head of the family first; then that of his wife; then the names of children (in the order of their ages), boarders and servants.	Write the nearest year, as "2," "35," "67," &c. If less than a year, write "—1."	Write "M" for male, or "F" for female, opposite each name.	If single write "S," if married, "M;" if widow or widower, "W."	If white leave blank; if colored write "B."	Opposite each name write the name of the State, territory, district or foreign country where born; as "Dist. Col.," "New Jersey," "France," "England," "Saxony," or "at sea," "unknown," &c., as the case may be.	Write "Am." for American, "Ger." for German, "Fr." for French, "I" for Irish, &c. Native country of father of each person.	Native country of mother of each person.	Write the number of years and months each person has been living in the District of Columbia. Years.	Months.	Intends permanent residence in D. C. If "yes," write "1" in this column.	If a voter, write the State, district or territory where the man claims a right to vote; as "D. C.," "Pa.," &c.	If an owner of real estate in D. C., write "O." If a renter of real estate in D C., write "R" in this column.	Before filling out this blank read the instructions on the back of this sheet.	In service of U. S. Government, write "C" if hired by time or job. If in the army, write "M;" if in the navy, write "N." (See Instructions.)	If a scholar, write the name of school or of teacher where now attending.	Months in school as scholar or student during the last year; as "4," "7," &c.	Over 15 and cannot read, mark "1" opposite name.	Over 15 and cannot write, mark "1" opposite name.	If orphan, deaf, mute, blind, insane or idiotic, write the word in this column.
1..																				
2..																				
3..																				
4..																				
5..																				
6..																				
7..																				
8..																				
9..																				
10..																				
11..																				
12..																				
13..																				
14..																				
15..																				

Truly reported by me; witness my hand,

____

On the back of the blanks was printed the following official notice and instructions:

OFFICIAL NOTICE.

"A joint resolution of Congress, approved March 30, 1867, directed the Department of Education to report in detail upon the educational condition and wants of the District of Columbia. The municipal authorities of Washington and Georgetown, and the Levy Court, deeming this a favorable opportunity for obtaining a full census of the District, have resolved to co-operate in this measure, through the agency of the Metropolitan Police, by making a complete enumeration of the population of the several parts of the District of Columbia, on Monday, the 11th day of November next.

"Blanks will be previously distributed to each family, with printed instructions for entering the required details concerning each person who may be residing in the family on the morning of the appointed day. A member of the police will call for these blanks on that day, and the results of the enumeration will be announced as early as possible. We, therefore, call upon all persons to render due aid and assistance in this measure, to the end that the returns may be as full, accurate, and complete as possible.

"The information to be obtained will enable the national and local authorities to provide more effectually for the uniform administration of the municipal government, and every class of private interests will be benefited by the exact information which an accurate census will afford.

"HENRY BARNARD, *Commissioner of Education.*
"RICHARD WALLACH, *Mayor of Washington.*
"CHARLES D. WELCH, *Mayor of Georgetown.*
"C. H. NICHOLLS, *Pres't Board Met. Police and of Levy Court.*

"WASHINGTON, *October* 31, 1867."

"HOUSEHOLDERS' SCHEDULE. { *District No.* ——. *Square No.* ——. *Blank No.* ——.

"*Enumeration of the District of Columbia, taken in pursuance of a Joint Resolution of Congress, approved March* 30, 1867, *directing a report from the Department of Education, on the Educational Condition of the District of Columbia, and under the sanction of the Municipal authorities of Washington and Georgetown and the Levy Court, with the concurrence and through the agency of the Commissioners of the Metropolitan Police.*

"The blank on the opposite side should be filled out by the head of each family, with the information required by the headings of the columns, for *each person in the family,* including the head of the family, his wife, children, boarders, and servants. It is designed to include all who may have their usual home, or lodging place, in the family on the morning of the 11th of November. If a person lodges at one place and takes his meals at another, the lodging place *only* should be regarded for this purpose as his or her home. By carefully attending to this rule, no names will be returned from two places. If a member of the family is temporarily absent on the 11th, he should be reported as if at home. If visitors or strangers (not employed in the District) happen to be present in the family at the date of the enumeration, they should be omitted—the object being to ascertain the population *permanently resident* or *temporarily employed* within the District, rather than the number who may happen to be present at a given date. Department clerks and others who may be away on temporary leaves of absence should be included.

"Where families are boarding at hotels or in private houses, their names should be reported *together* by the householder at whose establishment they may be residing. To distinguish them as a family, a brace ({) should be marked on the left hand of the names to indicate the members that constitute the family; whether a husband and wife, or husband, wife, and children, &c., as the case may be.

"In reporting the present occupation, avoid general terms—such as "clerk," "mechanic," &c., but specify particularly the kind of employment, as "merchant's clerk," "clerk in pension office," "carpenter," "stonecutter," "mason," &c. The inmates of a family, other than those who have a regular employment, or who serve in the family for wages, need not be separately reported in this column; but hired servants, children attending school, or at work, and all persons of either sex, and of whatever age, who have a profession, trade, or occupation at which they are regularly employed, should be reported.

"In reporting whether a person is in the service of Government, the entry "C" is intended to include all such as may be employed by job or contract, and such as may be working by the hour, day, week, month or year, for the Government. It will include all laborers and artizans employed in the Navy Yard, Arsenal, &c., or in the erection of

public buildings, as well as all clerks, or other employés who may be hired in any capacity in either of the Departments or Government offices, and who depend upon Government for support, either directly or through a contractor in the pay of the United States. The entry " M " should include those who are commissioned or enlisted in the Military Service, and " N " such as are employed in the Navy.

" This blank should be filled out, in readiness, early on Monday morning, on the 11th of November. It will be called for on that day by a member of the police. The entries should be made carefully and distinctly with pen and ink."

Hotels, boarding houses and institutions having more than fifteen persons in the family, were supplied with blanks according to their wants. In a few instances, two or more families were reported on one blank, where living in the same house, but when this was done, a line was drawn across the page to indicate a separate family in the classification.

An obvious difficulty in procuring census returns in the method we adopted, is due to the fact, that in many families there are none able to read or write. Without special assistance, the enumerators would be delayed in making out the returns, and the district would need to be greatly reduced in size, to secure the prompt return desired.

To remedy this, as far as practicable in the present case, application was made through the proper channels, for assistance by the visitors and agents of the Freedman's Bureau, and by the teachers of colored schools. Much valuable assistance was freely and cheerfully rendered by them, in filling up the blanks of those unable to write. The friendly coöperation of the public generally, was solicited to this end, through the public press, with good success, and several persons devoted considerable time to this labor, without hope or promise of reward. In one or two cases, special agents were sent into districts where their assistance was supposed to be most needed, in filling out the blanks, and, with the view of realizing the difficulties of the work under the most adverse circumstances, I visited some two hundred families, for the purpose of filling census blanks, in neighborhoods where poverty, ignorance and vice prevail.

From apprehension that blanks thus filled might be lost before they were called for, the persons employed under our direction, as above mentioned, were instructed to take up the blanks they filled, and leave in their place, card receipts, on which were marked the ward, street, district, square, street number, name of family, and name of person filling up and taking the blank. The policemen were instructed to receive these cards where found, instead of the blanks left.

This supposed risk of loss of blanks by the careless and ignorant, who are unaccustomed to the care of papers, was over-estimated, and in justice to these classes, I am happy to record the fact, that in almost every instance they were carefully saved. In a great majority of cases, the illiterate had procured the aid of some person in whom they had confidence, to fill up the details in readiness for return, and when called for, they were carefully brought out from the safest repository in the dwelling; often pocket-worn and soiled, but if filled up, the returns were in good faith, according to the best information within reach, and with the utmost willingness to comply with the call, in strict sincerity and truth. The use of card receipts, therefore, proved a needless precaution, and might have been properly dispensed with.

The principal difficulty in procuring returns, was ultimately found in a small class of persons of fair, and even finished education, who thought proper to deny the authority upon which the census was taken, or to charge that the blanks called for more information than was implied in the joint resolution of Congress. These persons in some cases returned the blanks without entries, or with uncivil remarks. The enumerators reported a few cases, in which apprehensions of conscription or other personal liability appeared to influence replies. Several diplomatic representatives of foreign countries, regarding the

census as a municipal inquiry not properly including themselves, respectfully returned the papers in blank, or with only the names of those in their employment, while others reported complete. The inmates of convents, after taking the religious vows of a nun, are seldom reported in a census, and are not returned in this.

The following statement may enable the public to appreciate the probable extent of deficiencies of the present census from all causes:

Returned with statement that the family had removed, or could not be found, or that the persons for whom intended were reported in other families,	43
Returned with statement that the building was vacant or unfinished.....	18
From buildings first supposed to be inhabited, but found to be places of business only	18
Entirely blank, and without remark, but supposed to be chiefly from business places. Quite a number were found to be so by inquiry........	49
Refused information; in some cases, because the parties claimed to be non-residents	33

In a few other instances the blanks were partially filled, with names of children attending school only.

In 106 cases, the returns were so poorly written that they needed copying before use. Of these, 68 were from white families, and 38 from colored. Without exception, these appeared to be filled according to the best of their ability, but some were exceedingly deficient in facts, as they were all in arrangement.

Persons familiar with statistical labors will recognize the above as an extremely low percentage of deficiencies for the amount of population represented. As a general rule, the returns are neatly written and carefully made.

The distribution of blanks was commenced on the afternoon of Wednesday, November 6, and by Saturday evening had been very nearly completed. Their collection was begun on Monday morning, November 11th, and in some districts the work was finished on that day. But in most cases, two or three days elapsed before the returns were all brought in, the delay being partly occasioned by inequality in the size of districts, but chiefly on account of the absence of families at their work, or the non-return of blanks sent out to be filled.

The number of enumeration districts was as follows:

City of Washington,	1st ward....................................	28
	2d ward....................................	19
	3d ward....................................	20
	4th ward....................................	15
	5th ward....................................	9
	6th ward....................................	10
	7th ward....................................	21
City of Georgetown	....	21
County of Washington	....	11
Total	....	154

The distribution by police precincts was as follows:

1st Precinct (Lieut. James W. Gessford). 7th ward, Washington, 21 districts.

2d Precinct (Lieut. James Johnson). Parts of the 1st, 2d and 3d wards of Washington, and that portion of the county between Rock Creek and the Eastern Branch, 12 districts.

3d Precinct (Lieut. John F. Essex). Georgetown, and that portion of the county between Rock Creek and the Potomac, 24 districts.

4th Precinct (Lieut. C. M. Skippon). Part of the 7th ward of Washington, 25 districts.

5th Precinct (Lieut. Alexander Tait). Part of the 2d ward of Washington, 16 districts.

6th Precinct (Lieut. W. S. Hurley). Part of the 3d ward of Washington, 18 districts.

7th Precinct (Lieut. Adolphus Eckloff). Whole of 4th and part of 5th ward of Washington, 18 districts.

8th Precinct (Lieut. R. A. Milstead). Part of 5th and whole of 6th wards of Washington, together with that portion of the county south of the Eastern Branch, 20 districts.

In enumerating the scattered population of the county, the men were directed to make but a single visit to families where it was thought most convenient, and to make out and take with them the blank at that time. The delay thus occasioned, was less than would have happened in traveling twice over the ground.

Although these men were mounted, it was still found that their labors progressed but slowly, as compared with those in the city, and the last returns were received from these thinly settled districts. This experience is suggestive of the difficulties that might attend an enumeration over a large area, and indicates the necessity of the most careful preparation of details to secure early returns. In the last English census, about two hundred families were assigned as a day's work to one enumerator in densely settled towns, and about fifteen miles of travel in rural districts. This estimate applied in the present instance, would have proved nearly true in the former case, but much too great in the latter.

The finished reports of districts were brought in as follows: On the 11th, 1; on the 12th, 9; on the 13th, 44; on the 14th, 56; on the 15th, 30; on the 16th, 9; and on the 18th, 5. Most of the later were delayed in a nearly finished state to include a small number of delinquent reports, and much the greater part of the actual labor of collection was done on the 11th.

I cannot too highly commend the zeal and intelligence with which the police force under the direction of Major Richards, accomplished this labor, and our public acknowledgments are due both to officers and men for the energetic and thorough accomplishment of the duty, without promise or expectation of additional compensation so far as I am informed, and with no other motive than because it was an order.

The confidence with which the citizens gave in a descriptive list of their families, with no penalties for non-compliance, and perhaps to some extent, with no requirment beyond that implied in an official request of the civil authorities, is equally worthy of commendation.

Historical Notices.

The District of Columbia, originally embraced a surface ten miles square on both sides of the Potomac, about 160 miles from its mouth, and at the head of tide water. It was ceded to the General Government by the States of Maryland and Virginia in 1788–9; was accepted in 1790, and has been used since 1800 as a seat of government for the United States.*

* The idea of a district, independent of the jurisdiction of any State, was suggested in 1783, by an insult offered to Congress while in session at Philadelphia, by an armed mob which the State authorities could not control, and which compelled an adjournment to Princeton. Various propositions were made for a location upon the Hudson, Delaware and Susquehanna, but without decision until 1790. On the 23d of December, 1788, the State of Maryland passed an act to cede to the Government of the United States, a district not exceeding ten miles square as a seat of government. On the 3d of December, 1789, the State of Virginia made a similar

That portion of the district lying west of the Potomac was retroceded to Virginia by an act of Congress, approved July 9, 1846, upon condition of approval by the citizens concerned in the transfer. This was determined affirmatively by a *viva voce* election, on the 1st and 2d of September, by a vote of 763 to 222, and the transaction was announced as perfected by a proclamation of the President, on the 7th of September, 1846.

The census herewith presented, therefore, embraces only that portion lying east of the Potamac, consisting of the cities of Washington and Georgetown, and the county of Washington, the latter under the jurisdiction of the Levy Court.

The city of Washington (at first known for a short period as Federal City) extends from northwest to southeast, about four and a half miles, with a breadth of about two and a half miles, and a circumference of fourteen miles. The streets running north and south are designated by numbers, commencing at North Capitol street and South Capitol street (which run north and south from the Capitol), and extending east and west to the boundary. The streets running east and west are designated by letters, beginning at East Capitol street, and a line running west to the Potomac, opposite the centre of the Capitol. These lettered streets read north and south to V and W. The avenues are named from the older States. The streets vary in width, from 70 to 100 feet, with one exception (K st. north), and the avenues from 120 to 160 feet. The total area of avenues and open spaces is 3.604 acres, and of public reservations, exclusive of 10, 11, 12 (since used for other purposes), 513 acres. The whole area of squares is 131,684,176 feet, or about 3,016 acres.*

The city was incorporated by an act of Congress May 3d, 1802, and is at present divided into seven wards. The squares are numbered from north to south, commencing on the west and progressively extending towards the east, the highest numbers in the original survey being 1,146. When selected as the site for a city, the grounds now included within the corporation were occupied as improved farms, and devoted to the culture of corn, tobacco and wheat.†

The city of Georgetown, separated from Washington by Rock Creek, was originally laid out under an act of the Colonial Assembly of Maryland, dated May 15, 1751. It was incorporated as a town in 1789, and forms but one ward. For greater convenience, the statistics of this city are classified in this census by election precincts, which are bounded as follows:

1st Precinct.—That portion South of Gay street and east of High street.

2d Precinct.—That portion north of Gay street and east of High street.

3d Precinct.—That portion south of First street and west of High street.

4th Precinct.—That portion north of First street and west of High street.

As preliminary to the statistics obtained by the present census, and essential for intelligent comparisons, I have thought proper to present the results of the several censuses taken by national authority, since the organization of the district, with the various details of clasification that they embrace. In these,

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offer, and on the 16th of July, 1790, a bill passed by Congress for locating the seat of government on the Potomac, at the mouth of the Eastern Branch, received the sanction of President Washington. Three commissioners were appointed in January, 1791, to locate the district, and the southern-most corner stone was planted at Jones' Point. at the mouth of Hunting Creek, on the west bank of the Potomac, on the 15th of April, 1791, in the presence of a large concourse of spectators.

The survey of the city of Washington was first entrusted to Major Pierre C. L'Enfant, but some disagreement arising between him and the commissioners, Major Andrew Ellicott was employed in 1792, and the plan adopted by him was carried out in the course of that year.

From the original map engraved by Thackara & Vallance, of Philadelphia, in 1792, it appears that but slight changes have been made since the completion of Mr. Ellicott's survey.

* Waterson's Guide to Washington, page 17.

† J. Elliott's Historical Sketches of the Ten Miles Square, page 10.

I have deducted the population of the part now under the jurisdiction of the State of Virginia, and included in the town and county of Alexandria, in order that the growth of the district east of the Potomac may be more easily studied and compared. Reserving the details of these returns for the body of this report, I will here give only the general conclusions.

Comparative Results of Censuses taken by the National Government.

Numbers reported, by Sex and Color.

Years.	Whites.			Colored.									General total.
				Free colored.			Slaves.			Total colored.			
	Males	Females.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.	
1800*	......	......	10,066	......	......	783	......	......	3,244	......	......	4,027	14,093
1810	5,191	5,154	10,345	......	......	1,572	......	......	3,554	......	......	5,126	15,471
1820	8,437	8,030	16,467	1,209	1,645	2,854	2,177	2,343	4,520	3,386	3,988	7,374	23,841
1830	10,644	10,508	21,152	2,004	2,600	4,604	2,141	2,364	4,505	4,145	4,964	9,109	30,261
1840	11,583	12,342	23,925	2,679	3,820	6,499	1,341	1,779	3,120	4,020	5,599	9,619	33,544
1850	18,494	19,447	37,941	4,248	5,811	10,059	1,422	2,265	3,687	5,670	8,076	13,746	51,687
1860	29,585	31,179	60,764	4,702	6,429	11,131	1,212	1,973	3,185	5,914	8,402	14,316	75,080

Increase (or decrease) since last Census.

Years.	Whites.			Colored.									General increase.
				Free colored.			Slaves.			Total colored.			
	Males	Females.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.	
1800	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1810	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1820	3,246	2,876	6,122	......	......	1,282	......	......	966	......	......	2,248	8,370
1830	2,207	2,478	4,685	795	955	1,750	36†	21	15†	759	976	1,735	6,420
1840	939	1,834	2,773	675	1,220	1,895	800†	585†	1,385†	125†	6''5	510	2,283
1850	6,911	7,105	14,016	1,569	1,991	3,560	81	486	567	1,650	2,477	4,127	18,143
1860	11,091	11,732	22,823	454	618	1,072	210†	292†	502†	244	326	570	23,393

Excess of Males or of Females.

Years.	Whites.		Colored.					
			Free colored.		Slaves.		Total colored.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.	Males.	Fem.
1800	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1810	37	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
1820	407	....	....	436	....	166	....	602
1830	136	....	....	696	....	123	....	819
1840	....	759	....	1,141	....	438	....	1,579
1850	....	953	....	1,563	....	843	....	2,406
1860	....	1,594	....	1,727	....	761	....	2,488

* Entire District. The remainder are only for the portion east of the Potomac.
† Decrease.

Percentage of each class to total population.

Years.	WHITES.			COLORED.								
				FREE COLORED.			SLAVES.			TOTAL COLORED.		
	Male.	Fem.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.	Male.	Fem.	Total.
1800..	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......
1810..	33.55	33.32	66.87	......	......	10.16	......	......	22.97	......	......	33.13
1820..	35.39	33.68	69.07	5.07	6.90	11.97	9.13	9.83	18.96	14.20	16.73	30.93
1830..	35.17	34.72	69.89	6.62	8.59	15.21	7.07	7.83	14.90	13.69	16.42	30.11
1840..	34.53	36.79	71.32	7.99	11.38	19.37	3.99	5.32	9.31	11.98	16.70	28.68
1850..	35.79	37.62	73.41	8.22	11.24	19.46	2.75	4.38	7.13	10.97	15.62	26.59
1860..	39.40	41.52	80.92	6.26	8.57	14.83	1.62	2.63	4.25	7.88	11.20	19.08

General Summary of Population, as shown by present Census.

The total population of the District of Columbia, as ascertained by the Census of November 11th, 1867, is 126,990, of whom 44,803 are white males, 43,524 white females, 17,654 colored males, and 21,009 colored females. General total by sex, 62,457 males, and 64,533 females, or very nearly 49.2 per cent of the former and 50.8 per cent of the latter. The total number of whites is 88,327, or 69.55 per cent, and of colored 38,663, or 30.45 per cent of the entire population.

The present totals of population of each class, and the increase of each since the Census of 1860, are given in the following table by wards. The general statistics of this Census are classified in like manner, by wards for Washington, and by precincts for Georgetown, but for purposes of reference and deduction of percentages, the totals only of the district, will be embraced in the introductory portion of this report.

Population by classes, with total increase of each since 1860.—*City of Washington.*

WARDS.	Present population.	Increase since 1860.	WHITES.				COLORED.			
			MALES.		FEMALES.		MALES.		FEMALES.	
			Present No.	Inc'se since 1860.	Present No.	Increase since 1860.	Present number.	Increase since 1860.	Present number.	Inc'se since 1860.
1st ward......	16,923	8,571	5,281	2,423	4,943	1,821	3,137	2,167	3,562	2,160
2d ward......	17,696	8,135	5,698	2,225	5,637	1,540	2,785	2,038	3,576	2,332
3d ward.......	14,404	4,702	5,555	1,525	5,413	1,044	1,449	.961	1,987	1,172
4th ward......	18,394	6,491	7,080	2,099	7,208	2,121	1,813	1,117	2,293	1,154
5th ward	11,408	5,107	4,124	1,771	3,731	1,131	1,669	1,087	1,884	1,118
6th ward......	9,518	3,929	4,220	1,543	3,840	1,257	626	489	832	649
7th ward	17,709	7,995	5,742	1,791	5,643	1,685	2,910	2,098	3,414	2,421
Total Wash't'n	106,052	44,930	37,700	13,377	36,415	10,599	14,389	9,957	17,548	10,997

City of Georgetown.

PRECINCTS.	Present population.	Increase since 1860.	WHITES.				COLORED.			
			MALES.		FEMALES.		MALES.		FEMALES.	
			Present No.	Inc'se since 1860.	Present No.	Increase since 1860.	Present number.	Increase since 1860.	Present number.	Inc'se since 1860.
1st precinct...	2,481	573	950	150	964	163	256	127	311	133
2d precinct ...	3,268	764	898	50	982	118	667	320	791	276
3d precinct ...	2,814	910	1,171	383	1,165	269	177	98	301	160
4th precinct ..	3,230	813	1,171	303	1,278	275	310	112	471	123
Total Georg'tn	11,793	3,060	4,120	886	4,389	825	1,410	657	1,874	692
Remainder of District* ...	9,145	3,920	2,983	955	2,720	921	1,855	1,126	1,587	918
Total District of Columbia	126,990	51,910	44,803	15,218	43,524	12,345	17,654	11,740	21,009	12,607

CIVIL CONDITION.

The condition of each person with reference to the marriage relation, and the percentage of each to the population, is as follows:

CLASSES.		Whites.	Colored.	Total.
Number	Single males	27,310	10,471	37,781
	do females	23,838	11,610	35,448
	Married males	15,442	6,169	21,611
	do females	15,189	6,500	21,689
	Widowers	1,131	431	1,562
	Widows	3,853	2,319	6,172
Percentage of each to total of each color	Single males	30.92	27.08	29.75
	do females	26.99	30.03	27.81
	Married males	17.48	15.95	17.02
	do females	17.11	16.81	17.10
	Widowers	1.28	1.12	1.23
	Widows	4.36	5.99	4.86

Of those reported unknown, there are 920 white males, 644 white females, 583 colored males, and 580 colored females.

The number of white married pairs of whites reported as living together in families, was 14,147, and of colored, 5,509.

The information above given has never been required in a national census, and the valuable reports of Rhode Island and Massachusetts, for 1865, are also deficient in this item. It was included in the New York State Census of 1855 and 1865, and the results given in detail, by towns, wards and counties, with percentages of each to the total population, but without distinction of color or sex. The proportions reported in New York at the two periods referred to, as compared with the present results in the District of Columbia, were as follows:

	New York, 1855.	New York, 1865.	Dist. of Col.
Single (both sexes)	60.08	57.76	57.91
Married (both sexes)	36.15	37.45	34.59
Widowers	1.02	1.11	1.28
Widows	2.75	3.60	4.36

* The details of population of the *County* of Washington, are as follows: Between the Potomac and Rock Creek, 1,516 white and 538 colored; between Rock Creek and the Eastern Branch, 2,441 white and 1,299 colored; south of the Eastern Branch, 1,746 white and 1,605 colored.

The marked increase in the relative proportion of widows and diminution of numbers of single persons, in 1865, in New York, may be rationally attributed to the late war, and the still greater percentage in the District may doubtless be principally due to the same cause.

As a farther means of comparison we may note that the proportions of these several classes, at different periods and in different countries, have been found as follows:

	Single.	Married.	Widowers.	Widows.
Belgium, 1846	63.91	30.49	1.97	3.63
Canada, 1851	66.66	30.81	0.94	1.59
England, 1821	60.00	33.00	....	....
England and Wales (males) 1851	62.50	33.69	3.80	....
(females) "	59.79	32.97	....	7.24
Scotland (males) "	66.77	29.83	3.40	....
(female) "	63.71	27.91	....	8.38
Great Britain (males) "	63.08	33.17	3.75	....
(females) "	60.35	32.24	....	7.41
France (males) "	56.04	39.26	4.70	...
(females) "	51.99	38.68	....	9.38

Ages.

The specific age of each person in nearest whole years was required, and in most instances given in the householder's schedule. These have been classified separately by sex and color in single years to 21, and in groups of five years through life. The total number of each class, and the percentage which each bears to the totals of its class are as follows:

Ages in single years to twenty-one.

Ages.	Whites.		Colored.		Ages.	Whites.		Colored.	
	Numbers.	Per cent. of whites.	Numbers.	Per cent of col'ed.		Numbers.	Per cent. of whites.	Numbers.	Per cent of col'd.
—1...	559	0.63	337	0.87	11	1,654	1.87	743	1.92
1...	3,704	4.19	1,340	3.46	12	1,744	1.97	1,097	2.84
2...	2,658	3.00	930	2.41	13	1,639	1 85	895	2.11
3...	2,143	2.43	781	2.02	14	1,661	1.88	934	2.41
4...	1,974	2.23	582	1.51	15	1,617	1.83	869	2.25
5...	1,796	2.03	633	1.64	16	1,669	1.89	915	2.36
6...	1,916	2 17	650	1.68	17	1,537	1.74	758	1.96
7...	2,023	2.29	774	2.00	18	1,758	1.99	1,104	2.85
8...	2,091	2.36	863	2.03	19	1,574	1.78	869	2.25
9...	1,889	2.14	749	1.93	20	1,879	2.13	1,134	2.93
10...	2,007	2.27	999	2.56	21	1,798	2.03	860	2.22

Ages in Quinquennial periods through life.

Ages.	Whites. Numbers.	Per cent. of whites.	Colored. Numbers.	Per cent of col'ed.	Ages.	Whites. Numbers.	Per cent. of whites.	Colored. Numbers.	Per cent of col'd.
—5	10,998	12.45	3,470	10,27	55–60	1,817	2 06	802	2.07
5-10.	9,727	11.01	3,669	9,49	60–65	1,479	1.67	765	1.98
10–15.	8,705	9.85	4,668	12,07	65-70	946	1.07	462	1.19
15–20.	8,155	9.23	4,473	11,57	70–75	507	0.57	292	0.75
20–25.	9,632	10.90	4,669	12,07	75–80	290	0.33	162	0.42
25-30.	9,313	10.54	3,886	10,05	80–85	118	0.13	139	0.36
30–35.	7,202	8.15	2,310	5,97	85–90	37	0.04	41	0.11
35–40.	6,124	6.93	2,385	6,16	90-95	13	.015	24	0.06
40–45.	4,578	5.18	1,743	4.51	95–100	8	.009	14	0.03
45–50.	3,896	4.41	1,747	4.52	100+	3	.003	20	0.05
50-55.	2,969	3.36	1,333	3.46	......	....	....	....	......

Ages in single years to twenty-one, by wards, distinguishing sex and color.

Age, sex, and color.	Washington.								Georgetown.					County.	Total in District.
	First ward.	Second ward.	Third ward.	Fourth ward.	Fifth ward.	Sixth ward.	Seventh ward.	Total.	First precinct.	Second precinct.	Third precinct.	Fourth precinct.	Total.		
Under one year.															
White ...Male	35	37	36	46	14	18	45	231	6	3	10	5	24	22	277
Female	31	34	44	46	20	12	51	238	3	11	6	6	26	18	282
Colored..Male	30	33	8	14	16	4	28	133	....	4	....	4	8	19	160
Female	21	43	11	14	19	5	24	137	....	1	....	1	2	38	177
One year.															
White ...Male	244	209	266	269	168	177	282	1,615	50	37	48	48	183	101	1,899
Female	221	213	212	304	144	189	262	1,545	43	33	43	55	174	86	1,805
Colored..Male	114	98	63	67	66	20	112	540	7	31	7	16	61	56	657
Female	124	108	59	66	65	19	122	563	12	25	8	17	62	58	683
Two years.															
White ...Male	153	156	160	205	122	124	195	1,117	34	26	40	37	137	87	1,341
Female	190	152	144	179	94	137	220	1,118	29	23	36	47	135	64	1,317
Colored..Male	87	83	29	42	45	14	74	374	5	23	6	9	43	46	463
Female	84	99	42	26	32	16	76	375	7	28	6	10	51	41	467
Three years.															
White ...Male	160	125	119	154	86	112	168	924	23	23	25	33	104	50	1,078
Female	116	113	132	185	100	104	153	903	26	19	22	34	101	61	1,065
Colored..Male	64	76	33	47	37	8	73	338	3	17	3	7	30	44	412
Female	58	75	29	41	28	10	59	300	6	18	4	7	35	34	369
Four years.															
White ...Male	125	111	108	163	84	118	145	854	25	16	23	31	95	54	1,003
Female	99	94	104	165	78	109	161	810	20	25	26	41	112	49	971
Colored..Male	59	45	28	19	26	11	44	232	4	15	2	4	25	27	284
Female	41	35	26	29	31	14	48	224	5	16	9	9	39	35	298
Five years.															
White ...Male	92	112	123	119	90	96	130	762	19	17	21	25	82	57	901
Female	107	129	90	130	86	88	125	755	22	13	25	19	79	61	895
Colored..Male	50	45	27	30	31	13	51	247	3	9	4	8	24	37	308
Female	49	47	30	25	48	19	50	268	4	12	3	12	31	26	325
Six years.															
White ...Male	88	115	102	147	90	100	140	782	22	25	23	39	109	67	958
Female	95	117	126	149	80	95	135	797	20	24	35	25	104	57	958
Colored..Male	48	52	31	24	25	7	54	241	4	7	2	7	20	38	299
Female	53	71	31	23	40	7	47	272	3	18	3	9	38	41	351
Seven years.															
White ...Male	108	119	116	146	100	108	155	852	22	15	25	20	82	64	998
Female	121	114	131	159	87	94	151	857	19	29	23	35	106	62	1,025
Colored..Male	61	47	37	48	42	10	67	312	6	13	2	7	28	50	390
Female	69	48	40	33	43	14	67	314	3	15	4	8	30	40	384
Eight years.															
White ...Male	138	128	115	176	103	95	146	901	18	19	19	27	83	61	1,045
Female	107	124	132	157	103	89	145	857	28	27	28	32	115	74	1,046
Colored..Male	65	65	37	34	40	14	74	329	5	9	....	11	25	49	403
Female	74	67	44	43	48	14	80	370	10	13	4	9	36	54	460
Nine years.															
White ...Male	110	108	109	151	82	106	148	814	16	31	27	35	109	44	967
Female	96	102	104	141	107	85	139	774	17	19	25	25	86	62	922
Colored..Male	68	57	21	30	33	8	49	266	7	15	1	9	32	44	342
Female	76	45	42	42	46	13	71	335	6	15	5	11	37	35	407
Ten years.															
White ...Male	121	127	128	163	87	92	142	860	20	11	20	35	86	67	1,013
Female	101	134	110	170	93	98	143	849	21	19	18	25	83	62	994
Colored..Male	79	79	43	55	56	11	75	398	10	24	35	8	45	60	503
Female	70	78	42	48	60	16	93	407	8	19	5	12	44	45	496

Ages in single years to twenty-one, by wards, &c.—Continued.

Age, sex, and color.	Washington.								Georgetown			
	First ward.	Second ward.	Third ward.	Fourth ward.	Fifth ward.	Sixth ward.	Seventh ward.	Total.	First precinct.	Second precinct.	Third precinct.	Fourth precinct.
Eleven years.												
White ... Male	92	94	98	116	65	92	99	656	21	15	24	2
Female	85	111	99	133	62	77	146	713	15	27	27	1
Colored .. Male	64	48	37	35	39	11	57	291	6	19	1	[illegible]
Female	67	45	36	44	45	18	77	332	8	13	6	[illegible]
Twelve years.												
White ... Male	84	121	98	140	76	87	143	749	23	19	24	3
Female	45	140	102	120	74	72	121	674	21	16	18	3
Colored .. Male	79	87	40	58	47	23	86	420	6	18	4	1
Female	88	97	65	72	44	21	95	482	10	19	6	14
Thirteen years.												
White ... Male	85	96	84	122	77	83	111	658	14	12	25	28
Female	95	105	91	129	69	78	122	689	25	26	23	23
Colored .. Male	73	65	35	26	52	20	59	330	7	99	7	10
Female	92	82	30	50	44	19	89	406	8	15	4	16
Fourteen years.												
White ... Male	84	86	100	141	74	87	109	681	15	12	30	14
Female	89	61	104	137	79	84	121	675	18	27	28	25
Colored .. Male	71	65	36	37	36	17	90	352	8	15	4	3
Female	74	78	67	58	43	23	86	429	9	19	5	13
Fifteen years.												
White ... Male	83	86	91	133	54	76	100	623	19	12	29	20
Female	114	104	107	116	57	81	109	688	22	19	17	25
Colored .. Male	66	65	33	39	31	18	65	317	6	23	....	7
Female	82	75	46	63	37	21	75	399	5	14	10	18
Sixteen years.												
White ... Male	86	79	99	130	76	62	99	631	19	16	22	19
Female	87	110	90	146	98	86	124	741	25	14	24	30
Colored .. Male	54	53	39	36	32	21	58	293	8	10	6	8
Female	87	76	75	65	57	34	84	472	11	24	7	15
Seventeen years.												
White ... Male	78	78	88	110	53	60	112	579	17	14	20	16
Female	83	109	104	136	69	79	121	701	11	18	27	28
Colored .. Male	55	41	25	35	33	17	43	249	7	6	1	6
Female	82	79	44	49	34	20	77	385	8	22	8	10
Eighteen years.												
White ... Male	78	90	80	114	73	82	93	610	21	11	25	21
Female	105	82	142	178	78	97	130	812	26	30	35	28
Colored .. Male	73	63	45	49	43	14	77	364	6	15	7	5
Female	102	107	69	92	48	34	92	544	12	18	9	12
Nineteen years.												
White ... Male	68	83	81	103	63	77	86	561	21	16	23	21
Female	97	137	107	137	85	76	112	751	21	16	16	25
Colored .. Male	55	71	23	31	33	18	56	287	6	8	4	2
Female	87	97	79	63	39	22	73	460	6	12	7	13
Twenty years.												
White ... Male	91	94	76	98	75	80	98	612	18	13	16	14
Female	129	107	122	181	76	87	152	944	19	26	36	28
Colored .. Male	50	146	15	37	23	12	53	336	3	9	9	7
Female	104	169	90	90	56	22	110	641	8	20	10	13
Twenty-one years.												
White ... Male	147	107	114	132	149	112	82	843	13	19	29	27
Female	81	105	121	141	96	62	90	696	22	19	19	30
Colored .. Male	81	63	27	37	26	13	64	311	10	13	5	13
Female	68	78	48	59	40	18	63	394	4	19	4	4

In all census returns of ages, there are usually found evidences that the answers were given only in the nearest even number. The numbers for 29 or 31, for example, are much less than for 30. In the present census, where the blanks were filled by the family themselves, deliberately, and with opportunities for reference to family records, we notice less of this irregularity than usual, especially among the white population. Among the colored, however, there is much uncertainty, and but little confidence can be placed in the statements claiming advanced ages. The classification has, however, followed the returns as they were received, and should be taken with the allowances due to probable errors.*

The frequent changes of residence and multitude of causes that influence the relative proportions of different ages and classes, in the District of Columbia, leave their traces in the returns of the census. The undue proportion of young and middle aged persons in the general aggregate, the inequality of ages, occasioned by the presence of a garrison of young men, or an asylum of children in a ward, and other accidental causes, may be traced in the tables, and render them less valuable for the study of vital statistics, than such as would be furnished in a district having a fixed population.

It will be noticed, that of the whites, the number of males is 1,279 greater than that of females, while of the colored, the females exceed in number by 3,355. In a population where immigration is governed by the usual motives of settlement, it has hitherto been found, that in all newly settled regions, the number of males is in excess, and that as the country becomes older, the proportions approach equality, or become entirely reversed, as we find in most of the older States of the Union. The peculiar organization of the population of the District of Columbia, and the extraordinary causes that have operated since 1860, tend to render the results exceptional to the general rule. The war appears to have brought into the district more colored females than males. The employments of government have drawn thither more white males than females.

PLACE OF BIRTH.

This item has been tabulated separately by sexes and colors for each separate State, Territory and foreign country reported, with totals for American and foreign. The general result is as follows:

Place of birth.	Whites.	Col'd.
United States:		
Dist. of Columbia..	33,536	10,552
Alabama	39	33
Arkansas	7	3
California	58	1
Connecticut	478	8
Delaware	251	16
Florida	41	12
Georgia	97	105
Illinois	192	6
Indiana	237	8
Iowa	74	..
Kansas	19	4
Kentucky	175	67
Louisiana	124	43
Maine	523	2
Maryland	10,154	10,006
Massachusetts	1,215	33
Michigan	146	1
Minnesota	33	..
Mississippi	52	21
Missouri	123	11
Nebraska	18	..
Nevada	1	..
New Hampshire	400	2
New Jersey	775	17

*The New York Census of 1865 (taken immediately after the war, and while the possibility of a military conscription still lingered as a suspicion in the minds of the ignorant), reveals in its general results the influence of this cause by returning a much greater number of males at 45, than for many of the earlier years of life.

With reference to the frequently repeated remark concerning the difficulty of obtaining a correct return of ages of females, my experience with census labors has not hitherto enabled me to trace any appreciable error to this cause. The sum total of all ages would probably show no material differences between the sexes, attributable to false returns or under statements in the census schedules.

Ages in single years to twenty-one, by wards, &c.—Continued.

Age, sex, and color.	Washington.								Georgetown.			
	First ward.	Second ward.	Third ward.	Fourth ward.	Fifth ward.	Sixth ward.	Seventh ward.	Total.	First precinct.	Second precinct.	Third precinct.	Fourth precinct.
Eleven years.												
White ...Male	92	94	98	116	65	92	99	656	21	15	24	27
Female	85	111	99	133	62	77	146	713	15	27	27	19
Colored ..Male	64	48	37	35	39	11	57	291	6	19	1	4
Female	67	45	36	44	45	18	77	332	8	13	6	9
Twelve years.												
White ...Male	84	121	98	140	76	87	143	749	23	19	24	35
Female	45	140	102	120	74	72	121	674	21	16	18	30
Colored ..Male	79	87	40	58	47	23	86	420	6	18	4	14
Female	88	97	65	72	44	21	95	482	10	19	6	14
Thirteen years.												
White ...Male	85	96	84	122	77	83	111	658	14	12	25	28
Female	95	105	91	129	69	78	122	689	25	26	23	23
Colored ..Male	73	65	35	26	52	20	59	330	7	99	7	10
Female	92	82	30	50	44	19	89	406	8	15	4	16
Fourteen years.												
White ...Male	84	86	100	141	74	87	109	681	15	12	30	14
Female	89	61	104	137	79	84	121	675	18	27	28	25
Colored ..Male	71	65	36	37	36	17	90	352	8	15	4	3
Female	74	78	67	58	43	23	86	429	9	19	5	13
Fifteen years.												
White ...Male	83	86	91	133	54	76	100	623	19	12	29	20
Female	114	104	107	116	57	81	109	688	22	19	17	25
Colored ..Male	66	65	33	39	31	18	65	317	6	23	....	7
Female	82	75	46	63	37	21	75	399	5	14	10	18
Sixteen years.												
White ...Male	86	79	99	130	76	62	99	631	19	16	22	19
Female	87	110	90	146	98	86	124	741	25	14	24	3
Colored ..Male	54	53	39	36	32	21	58	293	8	10	6	8
Female	87	76	75	65	57	34	84	472	11	24	7	15
Seventeen years.												
White ...Male	78	78	88	110	53	60	112	579	17	14	20	16
Female	83	109	104	136	69	79	121	701	11	18	27	28
Colored ..Male	55	41	25	35	33	17	43	249	7	6	1	6
Female	82	79	44	49	34	20	77	385	8	22	8	10
Eighteen years.												
White ...Male	78	90	80	114	73	82	93	610	21	11	25	21
Female	105	82	142	178	78	97	130	812	26	30	35	24
Colored ..Male	73	63	45	49	43	14	77	364	6	15	7	5
Female	102	107	69	92	48	34	92	544	12	18	9	12
Nineteen years.												
White ...Male	68	83	81	103	63	77	86	561	21	16	23	21
Female	97	137	107	137	85	76	112	751	21	16	16	25
Colored ..Male	55	71	23	31	33	18	56	287	6	8	4	2
Female	87	97	79	63	39	22	73	460	6	12	7	13
Twenty years.												
White ...Male	91	94	76	98	75	80	98	612	18	13	16	14
Female	129	107	122	181	76	87	152	944	19	26	36	28
Colored ..Male	50	146	15	37	23	12	53	336	3	9	9	7
Female	104	169	90	90	56	22	110	641	8	20	10	13
Twenty-one years.												
White ...Male	147	107	114	132	149	112	82	843	13	19	29	27
Female	81	105	121	141	96	62	90	696	22	19	19	30
Colored ..Male	81	63	27	37	26	13	64	311	10	13	5	13
Female	88	78	48	59	40	18	63	394	4	19	4	4

In all census returns of ages, there are usually found evidences that the answers were given only in the nearest even number. The numbers for 29 or 31, for example, are much less than for 30. In the present census, where the blanks were filled by the family themselves, deliberately, and with opportunities for reference to family records, we notice less of this irregularity than usual, especially among the white population. Among the colored, however, there is much uncertainty, and but little confidence can be placed in the statements claiming advanced ages. The classification has, however, followed the returns as they were received, and should be taken with the allowances due to probable errors.*

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This item has been tabulated separately by sexes and colors for each separate State, Territory and foreign country reported, with totals for American and foreign. The general result is as follows:

Place of birth.	Whites.	Col'd.	Place of birth.	Whites.	Col'd.
United States:			Kentucky.........	175	67
Dist. of Columbia..	33,536	10,552	Louisiana..	124	43
Alabama	39	33	Maine	523	2
Arkansas	7	3	Maryland	10,154	10,006
California	58	1	Massachusetts	1,215	33
Connecticut	478	8	Michigan	146	1
Delaware	251	16	Minnesota	33	..
Florida	41	12	Mississippi	52	21
Georgia	97	105	Missouri	123	11
Illinois...........	192	6	Nebraska	18	..
Indiana	237	8	Nevada	1	..
Iowa.............	74	..	New Hampshire ...	400	2
Kansas...........	19	4	New Jersey.......	775	17

* The New York Census of 1865 (taken immediately after the war, and while the possibility of a military conscription still lingered as a suspicion in the minds of the ignorant), reveals in its general results the influence of this cause by returning a much greater number of males at 45, than for many of the earlier years of life.

With reference to the frequently repeated remark concerning the difficulty of obtaining a correct return of ages of females, my experience with census labors has not hitherto enabled me to trace any appreciable error to this cause. The sum total of all ages would probably show no material differences between the sexes, attributable to false returns or under statements in the census schedules.

Ages in single years to twenty-one, by wards, &c.—Continued.

Age, sex, and color.	Washington. First ward.	Second ward.	Third ward.	Fourth ward.	Fifth ward.	Sixth ward.	Seventh ward.	Total.	Georgetown. First precinct.	Second precinct.	Third precinct.	Fourth precinct.	Total.	County.	Total in District.
Eleven years.															
White ...Male	92	94	98	116	65	92	99	656	21	15	24	27	87	68	811
Female	85	111	99	133	62	77	146	713	15	27	27	19	88	42	843
Colored ..Male	64	48	37	35	39	11	57	291	6	19	1	4	30	35	356
Female	67	45	36	44	45	18	77	332	8	13	6	9	36	19	387
Twelve years.															
White ..Male	84	121	98	140	76	87	143	749	23	19	24	35	101	58	908
Female	45	140	102	120	74	72	121	674	21	16	18	30	85	77	836
Colored ..Male	79	87	40	58	47	23	86	420	6	18	4	14	42	52	514
Female	88	97	65	72	44	21	95	482	10	19	6	14	49	52	583
Thirteen years.															
White ...Male	85	96	84	122	77	83	111	658	14	12	25	28	79	63	800
Female	95	105	91	129	69	78	122	689	25	26	23	23	97	53	839
Colored ..Male	73	65	35	26	52	20	59	330	7	99	7	10	43	36	409
Female	92	82	30	50	44	19	89	406	8	15	4	16	43	37	486
Fourteen years.															
White ...Male	84	86	100	141	74	87	109	681	15	12	30	14	71	71	823
Female	89	61	104	137	79	84	121	675	18	27	28	25	98	65	838
Colored ..Male	71	65	36	37	36	17	90	352	8	15	4	3	30	43	425
Female	74	78	67	58	43	23	86	429	9	19	5	13	46	34	509
Fifteen years.															
White ...Male	83	86	91	133	54	76	100	623	19	12	29	20	80	75	778
Female	114	104	107	116	57	81	109	688	22	19	17	25	83	68	839
Colored ..Male	66	65	33	39	31	18	65	317	6	23	....	7	36	39	392
Female	82	75	46	63	37	21	75	399	5	14	10	18	47	31	477
Sixteen years.															
White ...Male	86	79	99	130	76	62	99	631	19	16	22	19	76	71	778
Female	87	110	90	146	98	86	124	741	25	14	24	30	93	57	891
Colored ..Male	54	53	39	36	32	21	58	293	8	10	6	8	32	32	357
Female	87	76	75	65	57	34	84	472	11	24	7	15	57	29	558
Seventeen years.															
White ...Male	78	78	88	110	53	60	112	579	17	14	20	16	67	58	704
Female	83	109	104	136	69	79	121	701	11	18	27	28	84	48	833
Colored ..Male	55	41	25	35	33	17	43	249	7	6	1	6	20	29	298
Female	82	79	44	49	34	20	77	385	8	22	8	10	48	27	460
Eighteen years.															
White ...Male	78	90	80	114	73	82	93	610	21	11	25	21	78	85	773
Female	105	82	142	178	78	97	130	812	26	30	35	28	119	54	985
Colored ..Male	73	63	45	49	43	14	77	364	6	15	7	5	33	43	440
Female	102	107	69	92	48	34	92	544	12	18	9	12	51	29	624
Nineteen years.															
White ...Male	68	83	81	103	63	77	86	561	21	16	23	21	81	53	695
Female	97	137	107	137	85	76	112	751	21	16	16	25	78	50	879
Colored ..Male	55	71	23	31	33	18	56	287	6	8	4	2	20	34	341
Female	87	97	79	63	39	22	73	460	6	12	7	13	38	30	528
Twenty years.															
White ...Male	91	94	76	98	75	80	98	612	18	13	16	14	61	58	731
Female	129	107	122	181	76	87	152	944	19	26	36	28	109	65	1,148
Colored ..Male	50	146	15	37	23	12	53	336	3	9	9	7	28	43	407
Female	104	169	90	90	56	22	110	641	8	20	10	13	51	35	727
Twenty-one years.															
White ...Male	147	107	114	132	149	112	82	843	13	19	29	27	88	59	990
Female	81	105	121	141	96	62	90	696	22	19	19	30	80	32	808
Colored ..Male	81	63	27	37	26	13	64	311	10	13	5	13	41	55	407
Female	68	78	48	59	40	18	63	394	4	19	4	4	31	28	453

In all census returns of ages, there are usually found evidences that the answers were given only in the nearest even number. The numbers for 29 or 31, for example, are much less than for 30. In the present census, where the blanks were filled by the family themselves, deliberately, and with opportunities for reference to family records, we notice less of this irregularity than usual, especially among the white population. Among the colored, however, there is much uncertainty, and but little confidence can be placed in the statements claiming advanced ages. The classification has, however, followed the returns as they were received, and should be taken with the allowances due to probable errors.*

The frequent changes of residence and multitude of causes that influence the relative proportions of different ages and classes, in the District of Columbia, leave their traces in the returns of the census. The undue proportion of young and middle aged persons in the general aggregate, the inequality of ages, occasioned by the presence of a garrison of young men, or an asylum of children in a ward, and other accidental causes, may be traced in the tables, and render them less valuable for the study of vital statistics, than such as would be furnished in a district having a fixed population.

It will be noticed, that of the whites, the number of males is 1,279 greater than that of females, while of the colored, the females exceed in number by 3,355. In a population where immigration is governed by the usual motives of settlement, it has hitherto been found, that in all newly settled regions, the number of males is in excess, and that as the country becomes older, the proportions approach equality, or become entirely reversed, as we find in most of the older States of the Union. The peculiar organization of the population of the District of Columbia, and the extraordinary causes that have operated since 1860, tend to render the results exceptional to the general rule. The war appears to have brought into the district more colored females than males. The employments of government have drawn thither more white males than females.

Place of Birth.

This item has been tabulated separately by sexes and colors for each separate State, Territory and foreign country reported, with totals for American and foreign. The general result is as follows:

Place of birth.	Whites.	Col'd.	Place of birth.	Whites.	Col'd.
United States:			Kentucky	175	67
Dist. of Columbia	33,536	10,552	Louisiana	124	48
Alabama	39	33	Maine	523	2
Arkansas	7	3	Maryland	10,154	10,006
California	58	1	Massachusetts	1,215	33
Connecticut	478	8	Michigan	146	1
Delaware	251	16	Minnesota	33	..
Florida	41	12	Mississippi	52	21
Georgia	97	105	Missouri	123	11
Illinois	192	6	Nebraska	18	..
Indiana	237	8	Nevada	1	..
Iowa	74	..	New Hampshire	400	2
Kansas	19	4	New Jersey	775	17

*The New York Census of 1865 (taken immediately after the war, and while the possibility of a military conscription still lingered as a suspicion in the minds of the ignorant), reveals in its general results the influence of this cause by returning a much greater number of males at 45, than for many of the earlier years of life.

With reference to the frequently repeated remark concerning the difficulty of obtaining a correct return of ages of females, my experience with census labors has not hitherto enabled me to trace any appreciable error to this cause. The sum total of all ages would probably show no material differences between the sexes, attributable to false returns or under statements in the census schedules.

Place of birth.	Whites.	Col'd.
New York	4,184	76
North Carolina	129	225
Ohio	731	28
Oregon	3	..
Pennsylvania	4,575	130
Rhode Island	130	4
South Carolina	125	129
Tennessee	147	33
Texas	46	7
Vermont	429	8
Virginia	6,694	12,805
West Virginia	52	10
Wisconsin	98	2
Territories:		
Arizona	..	..
Colorado	1	..
Dakotah	1	..
Idaho	..	..
Indian	2	..
Montana	..	..
New Mexico	7	..
Utah	4	..
Washington	1	..
Total Territories	9	..
Total United States	67,041	34,308
Foreign Countries:		
Africa	..	4
Argentine Republic	2	..
Austrian Empire:		
Austria	26	..
Bohemia	4	..
Hungary	23	..
Belgium	24	..
Brazil	4	1
Chili	2	..
Denmark	25	..
East Indies (not specf'd)	8	..
Europe (not specified)	3	..
France	212	1
Germany*:		
Baden	45	..
Bavaria	222	..
Bremen	7	..
Brunswick	6	..
Hamburgh	2	..
Hanover	147	..
Hesse	172	..
Hesse Cassel	17	..
Hesse Darmstadt	41	..
Nassau	1	..
Oldenberg	8	..
Prussia	475	..
Saxe Weimar	1	..
Saxony	173	..
Schleswig	5	..
Wurtemberg	174	..
Germany (not specified)	3,141	..
Total Germany	5,522	..
Greece	1	..
Great Britain and British Colonies:		
England	1,787	1
Scotland	402	..
Wales	30	..
Ireland	9,147	..
Total British Isles	11,366	1
Australia	3	3
Bermuda	6	..
British America	4	..
Canada	212	10
Gibraltar	1	..
Malta	1	..
New Brunswick	19	..
Newfoundland	9	..
Nova Scotia	15	1
Prince Edward's Island	1	..
St. Helena	1	..
Total British Colonies,	272	14
Total Great Britain and British Colonies	11,638	15
Hayti	..	1
Holland	22	..
Italy	192	..
Japan	2	..
Mexico	39	..
Nicaragua	2	..
Portugal	19	..
Russian Empire:		
Russia	39	..
Poland	75	..
Spain and Dependencies:		
Spain	32	2
Cuba	7	4
So. America (not spe'd)	4	1
Sweden and Norway:		
Sweden	32	..
Norway	4	..
Switzerland	131	..
Turkey	2	..
West Indies (not spe'd)	13	1
Total European	17,757	4
Total foreign, not European	358	26
Total foreign	18,115	30
At sea	30	..
Unknown	3,141	4,325

* Without reference to relative rank or jurisdiction.

Nationality of Parents.

Two columns were provided in the schedule of the present census for entering the nationality of the parents of each person whose name was reported. The results have been classified for the whites under twenty years of age only. These have been distinguished by sexes in groups of five years, and each parent under the six following nationalities: "American," "English," "German," "Irish," "Other Countries not included in preceding," and "Unknown."

Parentage of Whites Twenty years old and under.

PARENTAGE.	AGE AND SEX.									
	Under 5.		5 to 10.		10 to 15.		15 to 20.		Total.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	Male.	Fem.
American Father:										
American mother	3,086	3,003	2,561	2,614	2,327	2,364	1,934	2,319	9,908	10,300
English mother	37	27	30	23	19	27	20	26	106	103
German mother	25	20	19	13	9	10	9	9	62	52
Irish mother	86	70	46	35	40	33	23	17	195	155
Nationality of mother other than preceding	26	28	21	16	17	13	8	18	72	70
Nationality of mother unknown	27	22	57	37	47	46	49	76	180	181
Total,	3,287	3,165	2,734	2,738	2,459	2,493	2,043	2,465	10,523	10,861
English Father:										
American mother	59	73	56	51	48	48	44	57	207	229
English mother	40	22	44	36	45	42	44	44	173	144
German mother	1	1	....	....	....	....	1	....	2	1
Irish mother	23	35	14	20	7	16	3	12	47	83
Nationality of mother other than preceding	7	6	10	10	8	6	6	6	31	28
Nationality of mother unknown	2	1	2	4	5	2	3	4	12	11
Total	132	138	126	121	113	114	101	123	472	496
German Father:										
American mother	139	114	64	91	59	58	38	45	300	308
English mother	10	5	9	10	9	7	3	3	31	25
German mother	627	609	487	542	391	390	310	335	1,815	1,876
Irish mother	16	17	10	15	8	11	4	6	38	49
Nationality of mother other than preceding	12	14	9	12	6	6	6	4	33	36
Nationality of mother unknown	3	2	4	4	6	8	5	6	18	20
Total	807	761	584	674	479	480	366	399	2,235	2,314
Irish Father:										
American mother	122	105	92	82	63	69	58	65	335	321
English mother	9	13	9	4	8	7	7	6	33	30
German mother	3	4	1	....	....	....	....	2	4	6
Irish mother	896	956	772	843	651	738	399	546	2,718	3,078
Nationality of mother other than preceding	3	4	6	1	7	5	9	6	25	16
Nationality of mother unknown	4	6	14	9	16	12	5	8	39	35
Total	1,037	1,088	894	939	745	826	478	633	3,154	3,486
Nationality of Father other than preceding:										
American mother	79	74	55	66	50	35	26	30	210	205
English mother	7	9	5	7	7	7	4	5	23	28
German mother	24	17	15	12	11	7	5	6	55	42

Parentage of Whites, &c,—Continued.

PARENTAGE.	AGE AND SEX.									
	UNDER 5.		5 TO 10.		10 TO 15.		15 TO 20.		TOTAL.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Irish mother	23	19	15	14	9	10	4	7	51	50
Nationality of mother other than preceding	65	78	75	74	70	65	66	62	276	279
Nationality of mother unknown	7	1	5	6	5	2	4	6	21	15
Total	205	198	170	179	152	126	109	116	636	619
Nationality of Father unknown:										
American mother	39	53	75	74	86	113	93	106	293	346
English mother	1	2	2	2	3	2	3	8	9	14
German mother	4	4	8	4	7	7	7	10	26	25
Irish mother	18	10	23	11	27	15	14	9	82	45
Nationality of mother other than preceding	1	3	3	2	3	1	3	.....	10	6
Nationality of mother unknown	71	75	96	75	169	181	358	369	694	700
Total	134	147	207	168	295	319	478	502	1,114	1,136
RECAPITULATION.										
Nationality of the Father:										
American father	3,287	3,165	2,734	2,738	2,459	2,493	2,043	2,465	10,523	10,861
English father	132	138	126	121	113	114	101	123	472	496
German father	807	761	583	674	479	480	366	399	2,235	2,314
Irish father	1,037	1,088	894	939	745	826	478	633	3,154	3,486
Nationality of father other than preceding	205	198	170	179	152	126	109	116	636	619
Nationality of father unknown,	134	147	207	168	295	319	478	502	1,114	1,136
Total	5,602	5,497	4,714	4,819	4,243	4,358	3,575	4,238	18,134	18,912
Nationality of the Mother:										
American mother	3,524	3,422	2,903	2,978	2,633	2,687	2,193	2,622	11,253	11,709
English mother	104	78	99	82	91	92	81	92	375	344
German mother	684	655	530	571	418	414	332	362	1,964	2,002
Irish mother	1,062	1,107	880	938	742	818	447	597	3,131	3,460
Nationality of mother other than preceding	114	128	124	115	111	96	98	96	447	435
Nationality of mother unknown	114	107	178	135	248	251	424	469	964	962
Total	5,602	5,497	4,714	4,819	4,243	4,358	3,576	4,238	18,134	18,912

YEARS RESIDENT IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

The schedule used in the present census contained an inquiry concerning the length of time each person had resided within the District, in years; or if recent, in years and months. It was answered concerning 75,818 or 85.72 per cent of whites, and 32,177 or 83.22 per cent of colored—leaving 12,509 of the former and 6,486 of the latter not reported. The returns made, appear to have been carefully and truly stated, and furnish a most interesting historical view of the changes that have occurred in the population of the District, so far as relates to the present inhabitants. The classification resulting from these returns forms a new feature in the census—having never before been published in any official digest that I have seen.*

* In 1855, the New York State Census Blank for population, contained a column headed "Years Resident in Present Locality," but the answers were so few and uncertain, that I could tabulate nothing satisfactorily from them, and therefore omitted the inquiry in 1865.

Following the usual classification by wards and precincts, and a separate table for colors, I have arranged the statistics reported under this head for single years, from one up to the highest number given. From this has been constructed a table also by single years, showing the number of those now living in the District who resided therein for each year back to 1777. Of course, these numbers in no way indicate the population existing at the several periods stated, because they take no note of those who may have died or removed. They simply show the number of *present inhabitants* who were residing in the District in the several years.

Length of residence in District.

LENGTH OF RESIDENCE.			YEARS.	NUMBER OF PRESENT INHABITANTS LIVING IN DISTRICT AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.			
				Whites.		Colored.	
Years resident in District.	Whites.	Colored.		Number.	Per cent. of whites.	Number.	Per cent. of colored.
1	10,688	3,231	1866	75,718	85.72	32,177	83.23
2	6,210	2,837	1865	65,030	72.62	28,946	74.87
3	5,715	3,362	1864	58.820	66.59	26,109	67.53
4	5,177	3,996	1863	53,105	60.93	22,747	58.83
5	4,183	4,515	1862	47,928	54.26	18,751	48.59
6	4,590	3,469	1861	43,745	49.53	14,236	36.82
7	2,607	1,187	1860	39,155	44.33	10,767	27.86
8	2,150	629	1859	36,548	41.37	9,580	24.79
9	2,093	366	1858	34,398	38.94	8,951	23.15
10	2,738	548	1857	32,305	36.75	8,585	22.20
11	1,645	322	1856	29,567	33.47	8,037	20.79
12	2,122	442	1855	27,922	31.61	7,715	19.95
13	1,709	302	1854	25,800	29.29	7,273	18.81
14	2,003	365	1853	24,091	27.28	6,971	18.03
15	2,261	451	1852	22,088	25.00	6,606	17.09
16	1,868	358	1851	19,827	22.45	6,155	15.92
17	1,550	288	1850	17,959	20.33	5,797	15.00
18	1,556	394	1849	16,409	18.56	5,509	14.19
19	947	281	1848	14,853	16.82	5,115	13.36
20	1,514	582	1847	13,906	15.74	4,834	12.50
21	769	221	1846	12,392	14.03	4,252	10.99
22	783	250	1845	11,623	13.16	4,031	10.42
23	792	229	1844	10,840	11.45	3,781	9.79
24	708	183	1843	10,048	11.39	3,552	9.19
25	886	383	1842	9,340	10.57	3,369	8.71
26	569	190	1841	8,454	9.67	2,986	7.72
27	550	145	1840	7,885	8.93	2,796	7.23
28	531	152	1839	7,335	8.34	2,651	6.88
29	384	120	1838	6,804	7.70	2,499	6.46
30	896	393	1837	6,420	7.27	2,379	6.15
31	817	68	1836	5,524	6.15	1,986	5.14
32	314	85	1835	5,207	5.89	1,918	4.96
33	274	75	1834	4,893	5.54	1,833	4.74
34	274	64	1833	4,619	5.23	1,758	4.55
35	409	169	1832	4,345	4.92	1,694	4.38
36	248	80	1831	3,936	4.45	1,525	3.94
37	237	76	1830	3,688	4.17	1,445	3.74
38	226	75	1829	3,451	3.91	1,369	3.54
39	181	62	1828	3,225	3.65	1,294	3.35
40	477	272	1827	3,044	3.44	1,232	3.19
41	130	29	1826	2,567	2.91	960	2.48
42	167	46	1825	2,437	2.76	931	2.41
43	111	40	1824	2,270	2.57	885	2.29
44	107	21	1823	2,159	2.44	845	2.18
45	190	113	1822	2,052	2.32	824	2.13
46	112	34	1821	1,862	2.11	711	1.84
47	160	36	1820	1,750	1.98	677	1.75
48	128	42	1819	1,590	1.71	641	1.65
49	131	39	1818	1,462	1.65	599	1.55

Length of residence in District—Continued.

LENGTH OF RESIDENCE.			YEARS.	NUMBER OF PRESENT INHABITANTS LIVING IN DISTRICT AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.			
				Whites.		Colored.	
Years resident in District.	Whites.	Colored.		Number.	Per cent. of colored.	Number.	Per cent. of colored.
50	270	162	1817	1,331	1.57	560	1.45
51	90	13	1816	1,061	1.20	398	1.03
52	95	29	1815	971	1.09	385	0.98
53	66	23	1814	876	0.99	356	0.92
54	68	23	1813	810	0.92	333	0.86
55	93	47	1812	742	0.84	310	0.80
56	66	22	1811	649	0.73	263	0.68
57	43	18	1810	583	0.66	241	0.62
58	56	16	1809	540	0.61	223	0.57
59	37	12	1808	484	0.55	207	0.53
60	117	67	1807	447	0.51	195	0.50
61	27	5	1806	330	0.37	128	0.33
62	40	10	1805	303	0.34	123	0.32
63	27	15	1804	263	0.29	113	0.29
64	35	7	1803	236	0.26	98	0.25
65	35	23	1802	201	0.23	91	0.23
66	23	7	1801	166	0.19	68	0.17
67	22	7	1800	143	0.16	61	0.16
68	20	7	1799	121	0.14	54	0.14
69	16	2	1798	101	0.11	47	0.12
70	17	15	1797	85	0.09	45	0.12
71	4	1	1796	68	0.07	30	0.08
72	12	....	1795	64	0.07	29	0.08
73	9	1	1794	52	0.06	29	0.08
74	8	4	1793	43	0.05	28	0.07
75	5	6	1792	35	0.04	24	0.06
76	6	1	1791	30	0.03	18	0.05
77	4	....	1790	24	0.03	17	0.05
78	2	1	1789	20	0.02	17	0.05
79	3	....	1788	18	0.02	16	0.04
80	7	6	1787	16	0.02	16	0.04
81	....	2	1786	10	0.01	10	0.02
82	1	....	1785	9	0.01	8	0.02
83	....	1	1784	6	0.007	8	0.02
84	1	....	1783	6	0.007	7	0.02
85	....	1	1782	6	0.007	7	0.02
86	2	1	1781	6	0.007	6	0.02
87	1	1	1780	5	0.006	5	0.01
88	....	....	1779	5	0.006	5	0.01
89	1	1	1778	5	0.006	5	0.01
90	1	1	1777	5	0.006	4	0.01

INTENTION OF RESIDENCE, OWNERSHIP, OR RENTAL OF REAL ESTATE.

In the column headed "Intends Permanent Residence, if 'Yes,' mark 1 in this column," an affirmative record was returned by 59,440 whites, and 30,011 colored; total, 89,451. The remainder were left blank, or marked "No." Of owners of real estate, there were reported 6,485 whites, and 1,399 colored; total, 7,884. Of renters of real estate, there were reported 8,895 whites, and 4,595 colored; total, 13,490.

In classifying the entries in the column of owners or renters, it was frequently found that some, through ignorance of the intentions of the inquiry, had marked opposite every name in the family, while others had only marked opposite the name of the head of the family. My clerks were instructed to count only one entry for a family, unless found against the names of adult males.

It is possible that a few wives, children, and other inmates of families owning property in their own right, may have been dropped by this rule, but the exceptions were so numerous, and the errors so obvious, that no other course appeared practicable. Another source of uncertainty arises from the impossibility of knowing from the returns, whether the ownership is that of the land in fee, or of a building on land paying a ground rent. It is believed that some reported under one view of the case, and some under the other.

Voters.

In the column headed "Voters," the instructions of the present census directed an entry of the name of the State, Territory, or District, where each voter claimed the right of exercising his privilege of voting. The returns show the following results:

States, &c.	Voters.	States, &c.	Voters.
Dist. of Columbia (whites)	13,294	New Hampshire	64
do (col'd)	6,648	New Jersey	113
Alabama	3	New York	773†
Arkansas	1	North Carolina	5
California	20	Ohio	156†
Connecticut	66	Oregon	4
Delaware	22	Pennsylvania	783‡
Florida	2	Rhode Island	4
Georgia	4	South Carolina	..
Illinois	85	Tennessee	17
Indiana	84	Vermont	47
Iowa	44	Virginia	215
Kansas	13	West Virginia	11
Kentucky	22	Wisconsin	45
Louisiana	10	Territories:	
Maine	85	Colorado	3
Maryland	537	Idaho	1
Massachusetts	159*	Utah	1
Michigan	59	Washington	1
Minnesota	17		
Mississippi	2	Total United States	23,452
Missouri	26	Reported as disfranchised	15
Nebraska	5		
Nevada	1		

Males of legal age from whom no returns as to right of voting was received: Americans, 3,937; of foreign birth, 3,408; colored, 2,017. It is probable that many of those of foreign birth included in this number are aliens, but no particular inquiry was made to designate those of this class.

Occupations.

In the present census, the occupations of 28,976 whites and 15,903 colored persons are reported, exclusive of those attending school or otherwise under instruction. In classifying these returns, much uncertainty was found to exist, from the indefiniteness of the entries, especially with reference to those in the various departments of government, as public officers and clerks. While the greater number specified with exactness, their positions, and the names of offices where employed, many reported only "Clerk," "Govern-

* Of these, 1 is reported as a colored voter.
† Of these, 2 are reported as colored voters.
‡ Of these, 7 are reported as colored voters.

Ages in single years to twenty-one, by wards, &c.—Continued.

Age, sex, and color.	Washington. First ward.	Second ward.	Third ward.	Fourth ward.	Fifth ward.	Sixth ward.	Seventh ward.	Total.	Georgetown. First precinct.	Second precinct.	Third precinct.	Fourth precinct.	Total.	County.	Total in District.
Eleven years.															
White ...Male	92	94	98	116	65	92	99	656	21	15	24	27	87	68	811
Female	85	111	99	133	62	77	146	713	15	27	27	19	88	42	843
Colored ..Male	61	48	37	35	39	11	57	291	6	19	1	4	30	35	356
Female	67	45	36	44	45	18	77	332	8	13	6	9	36	19	387
Twelve years.															
White ...Male	84	121	98	140	76	87	143	749	23	19	24	35	101	58	908
Female	45	140	102	120	74	72	121	674	21	16	18	30	85	77	836
Colored ..Male	79	87	40	58	47	23	86	420	6	18	4	14	42	52	514
Female	88	97	65	72	44	21	95	482	10	19	6	14	49	52	583
Thirteen years.															
White ...Male	85	96	84	122	77	83	111	658	14	12	25	28	79	63	800
Female	95	105	91	129	69	78	122	689	25	26	23	23	97	53	839
Colored ..Male	73	65	35	26	52	20	59	330	7	99	7	10	43	36	409
Female	92	82	30	50	44	19	89	406	8	15	4	16	43	37	486
Fourteen years.															
White ...Male	84	86	100	141	74	87	109	681	15	12	30	14	71	71	823
Female	89	61	104	137	79	84	121	675	18	27	28	25	98	65	838
Colored ..Male	71	65	36	37	36	17	90	352	8	15	4	3	30	43	425
Female	74	78	67	58	43	23	86	429	9	19	5	13	46	34	509
Fifteen years.															
White ...Male	83	86	91	133	54	76	100	623	19	12	29	20	80	75	778
Female	114	104	107	116	57	81	109	688	22	19	17	25	83	68	839
Colored ..Male	66	65	33	39	31	18	65	317	6	23	...	7	36	39	392
Female	82	73	46	63	37	21	73	399	5	14	10	18	47	31	477
Sixteen years.															
White ...Male	86	79	99	130	76	62	99	631	19	16	22	19	76	71	778
Female	87	110	90	146	98	86	124	741	25	14	24	30	93	57	891
Colored ..Male	54	53	39	36	32	21	58	293	8	10	6	8	32	32	357
Female	87	76	75	65	57	34	84	472	11	24	7	15	57	29	558
Seventeen years.															
White ...Male	78	78	88	110	53	60	112	579	17	14	20	16	67	58	704
Female	83	109	104	136	69	79	121	701	11	18	27	28	84	48	833
Colored ..Male	55	41	25	35	33	17	43	249	7	6	1	6	20	29	298
Female	82	79	44	49	34	20	77	385	8	22	8	10	48	27	460
Eighteen years.															
White ...Male	78	90	80	114	73	82	93	610	21	11	25	21	78	85	773
Female	105	82	142	178	78	97	130	812	26	30	35	28	119	54	985
Colored ..Male	73	63	45	49	43	14	77	364	6	15	7	5	33	43	440
Female	102	107	69	92	48	34	92	544	12	18	9	12	51	29	624
Nineteen years.															
White ...Male	68	83	81	103	63	77	86	561	21	16	23	21	81	53	695
Female	97	137	107	137	85	76	112	751	21	16	16	25	78	50	879
Colored ..Male	55	71	23	31	33	18	56	287	6	8	4	2	20	34	341
Female	87	97	79	63	30	22	73	460	6	12	7	13	38	30	528
Twenty years.															
White ...Male	91	94	76	98	75	80	98	612	18	13	16	14	61	58	731
Female	129	107	122	181	76	87	152	944	19	26	36	28	109	65	1,148
Colored ..Male	50	146	15	37	23	12	53	336	3	9	9	7	28	43	407
Female	104	169	90	90	56	22	110	641	8	20	10	13	51	35	727
Twenty-one years.															
White ...Male	147	107	114	132	149	112	82	843	13	19	29	27	88	59	990
Female	81	105	121	141	96	62	90	696	22	19	19	30	80	32	808
Colored ..Male	81	63	27	37	26	13	64	311	10	13	5	13	41	55	407
Female	88	78	48	59	40	18	63	394	4	19	4	4	31	28	453

In all census returns of ages, there are usually found evidences that the answers were given only in the nearest even number. The numbers for 29 or 31, for example, are much less than for 30. In the present census, where the blanks were filled by the family themselves, deliberately, and with opportunities for reference to family records, we notice less of this irregularity than usual, especially among the white population. Among the colored, however, there is much uncertainty, and but little confidence can be placed in the statements claiming advanced ages. The classification has, however, followed the returns as they were received, and should be taken with the allowances due to probable errors.*

The frequent changes of residence and multitude of causes that influence the relative proportions of different ages and classes, in the District of Columbia, leave their traces in the returns of the census. The undue proportion of young and middle aged persons in the general aggregate, the inequality of ages, occasioned by the presence of a garrison of young men, or an asylum of children in a ward, and other accidental causes, may be traced in the tables, and render them less valuable for the study of vital statistics, than such as would be furnished in a district having a fixed population.

It will be noticed, that of the whites, the number of males is 1,279 greater than that of females, while of the colored, the females exceed in number by 3,355. In a population where immigration is governed by the usual motives of settlement, it has hitherto been found, that in all newly settled regions, the number of males is in excess, and that as the country becomes older, the proportions approach equality, or become entirely reversed, as we find in most of the older States of the Union. The peculiar organization of the population of the District of Columbia, and the extraordinary causes that have operated since 1860, tend to render the results exceptional to the general rule. The war appears to have brought into the district more colored females than males. The employments of government have drawn thither more white males than females.

PLACE OF BIRTH.

This item has been tabulated separately by sexes and colors for each separate State, Territory and foreign country reported, with totals for American and foreign. The general result is as follows:

Place of birth.	Whites.	Col'd.	Place of birth.	Whites.	Col'd.
United States:			Kentucky.........	175	67
Dist. of Columbia..	33,536	10,552	Louisiana..	124	48
Alabama.........	39	33	Maine...........	523	2
Arkansas........	7	3	Maryland........	10,154	10,006
California........	58	1	Massachusetts.....	1,215	33
Connecticut.......	478	8	Michigan.........	146	1
Delaware.........	251	16	Minnesota........	33	..
Florida..........	41	12	Mississippi.......	52	21
Georgia..........	97	105	Missouri.........	123	11
Illinois...........	192	6	Nebraska.........	18	..
Indiana..........	237	8	Nevada..........	1	..
Iowa............	74	..	New Hampshire...	400	2
Kansas...........	19	4	New Jersey.......	775	17

*The New York Census of 1865 (taken immediately after the war, and while the possibility of a military conscription still lingered as a suspicion in the minds of the ignorant), reveals in its general results the influence of this cause by returning a much greater number of males at 45, than for many of the earlier years of life.

With reference to the frequently repeated remark concerning the difficulty of obtaining a correct return of ages of females, my experience with census labors has not hitherto enabled me to trace any appreciable error to this cause. The sum total of all ages would probably show no material differences between the sexes, attributable to false returns or under statements in the census schedules.

Over Fifteen, and Unable to Read and Write.

In classifying the returns of those over 15 years of age, unable to read and write, it was found that some persons had misunderstood the intention of the headings of the blank, and marked "1" in these columns, where it was apparent by the signature and manner of filling up, that they could both read and write. In these cases, the record was corrected. Those under 15 years of age were marked out, and the returns were uniformly and carefully revised by an experienced clerk before being tallied. The tables for whites present separately those of "American," "German," "Irish," and "other" nationalities each subdivided by sexes into groups of ages as follows:

*Whites, unable to read and write.**

Ages.	American.		German.		Irish.		Other Nationalities.		Total.		General total.
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
Unable to read:											
15 to 20	124	106	3	8	13	31	5	3	145	148	293
20 to 30	110	142	13	16	57	156	9	14	189	328	517
30 to 40	60	85	20	21	65	136	7	5	152	247	399
40 to 50	40	73	16	11	57	73	1	5	114	162	276
50 and over	51	78	10	14	56	73	5	8	112	171	283
Total	385	484	63	70	249	475	29	36	737	1,075	1,812
Unable to write:											
15 to 20	140	114	4	8	22	43	5	4	171	169	340
20 to 30	115	171	13	22	73	206	9	15	210	414	624
30 to 40	78	105	21	24	91	160	7	4	197	293	490
40 to 50	56	75	19	13	68	89	3	3	147	180	327
50 and over	63	92	8	19	72	92	4	4	147	207	354
Total	452	569	66	86	327	596	31	33	876	1,274	2,150

*Colored, unable to read and write.**

Ages.	Native of District of Columbia.		Native of Maryland.		Native of Virginia.		Natives of Other States, &c.		Total.		General total.
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
Unable to read:											
15 to 20	122	184	165	280	292	427	18	17	597	908	1,505
20 to 30	226	353	440	793	675	1,140	82	53	1,423	2,339	3,762
30 to 40	112	184	302	365	475	617	37	25	926	1,191	2,117
40 to 50	96	122	238	284	388	425	36	13	758	844	1,602
50 and over	71	108	306	428	465	534	25	15	867	1,075	1,942
Total	636	965	1,459	2,175	2,312	3,149	201	128	4,608	6,417	11,025
Unable to write:											
15 to 20	142	236	191	346	324	539	21	18	678	1,139	1,817
20 to 30	263	414	500	909	839	1,214	87	61	1,689	2,598	4,287
30 to 40	131	197	352	413	556	689	41	31	1,080	1,330	2,410
40 to 50	129	126	270	329	444	464	38	13	881	932	1,813
50 and over	87	113	349	479	511	561	25	13	971	1,066	2,037
Total	760	1,125	1,673	2,512	2,695	3,491	215	144	5,343	7,272	12,615

* The totals in some cases exceed the numbers over them, because they also include those whose ages or place of birth were unknown.

Deaf and Dumb, Blind, Insane, and Idiotic.

The present census reports 179 deaf and dumb, 72 blind, 341 insane, and 30 idiotic. The inmates of public institutions are included in these numbers. Their numbers and percentages by sex and color are as follows:

	Number.	Per Cent.		Number.	Per Cent.
Deaf and dumb:			Insane:		
Whites—Male....	107	0.121	Whites—Male....	208	0.232
Female..	51	0.058	Female..	92	0.140
Total ...	158	0.179	Total ...	300	0.372
Colored—Male....	8	0.021	Colored—Male....	20	0.052
Female..	13	0.033	Female..	21	0.053
Total ...	21	0.054	Total ...	41	0.105
Blind:			Idiotic:		
Whites—Male....	18	0.020	Whites—Male....	9	0.010
Female..	23	0.026	Female..	10	0.011
Total ...	41	0.046	Total ...	19	0.021
Colored—Male.. .	14	0.036	Colored—Male....	6	0.016
Female..	17	0.044	Female..	5	0.013
Total ...	31	0.070	Total ...	11	0.029

In every census, and in any method of taking it hitherto employed, great difficulty has been met in obtaining correct returns of these classes, especially concerning the insane and idiotic. Of the former, many persons who are partially insane, and who yet attend to their business, are omitted; and of the latter, their existence is often concealed from record. An idiot in the family is a misfortune that most families would willingly keep from public notice, and instances have occurred in which the family physician, a frequent visitor for years in a family, has been ignorant of the presence of an idiot, until sickness rendered his professional services necessary.

Partial deafness and blindness, and other bodily infirmities, were reported in a few cases, but so seldom that any attempt to classify would lead to error, as altogether below the truth. The information was not called for, and therefore could not be uniform. Inquiries concerning causes and effect of hereditary influences, formed a feature in the New York State census of 1865; but as these required a separate blank, they were not included in the present census. The uncertainty and error of non-professional inquiries of this class, involving much superstition and conjecture, would have required a liberal allowance to be made in the application of results to any practical use.

Orphans.

The number of orphans twenty years old and under is reported as 2,295, or 1.81 per cent of the population. We have no previous census with which to compare the relative proportion of this class. Arranged by sexes, colors and years, they are as follows:

AGES.	WHITES.			COLORED.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 1	2	1	3	1	1	2
1	11	14	25	2	1	3
2	8	19	27	7	4	11
3	20	18	38	10	6	16
4	21	27	48	4	4	8
5	13	46	59	12	13	25
6	16	39	55	12	10	22
7	24	42	66	19	18	37
8	35	48	83	24	17	41
9	48	34	82	15	24	39
10	44	54	98	20	22	42
11	33	35	68	14	13	27
12	40	83	123	27	24	51
13	34	65	99	15	23	38
14	43	77	120	29	26	55
15	41	51	92	16	21	37
16	40	64	104	27	27	54
17	41	56	97	13	22	35
18	35	61	96	19	42	61
19	17	43	60	12	15	27
20	15	40	55	7	12	19
Unknown	114	33	147			
Total	695	950	1,645	305	345	650

Of the above there were 138 white male, and 229 female children living in institutions, and the remainder in families. Of colored children, 26 males and 11 females were reported as in institutions.

FAMILIES.

The number of families reported in the District is 23,495, of which 7,241 are composed entirely of colored persons. The total number in Washington is 20,073, in Georgetown 2,054, and in the remainder of the District 1,368. The average number of persons in a family is 5.28 in Washington, 5.74 in Georgetown, 6.68 in the county, and 5.40 in the entire District. It is obvious that the larger number for the county is due to the existence of large institutions, the inmates of which are regarded as a single family.

The number of houses inhabited by one family is 17,358; by two families, 2,119; by three families, 402; by four families, 95; by five families, 20; by six families, 18; by seven families, 5; by eight families, 3; by eleven families, 1; by twelve families, 1; and by twenty-three families, 1.

By reference to the schedule and instructions, it will be noticed that persons making out the returns of families were requested to mark with a brace such boarders as have a family relationship to one another, the design being to ascertain the number of families who were not householders, but simply inmates of other families. The returns show that there are of the whites 1,271 families boarding in Washington, 148 in Georgetown, and 53 in the county, making a general aggregate of 1,472.

Of these 759 were families of two persons, usually man and wife; 397 were of three persons; 190 of four persons; 76 of five persons; 32 of six persons; 12 of seven persons, and 6 of eight persons.

Of colored families boarding, there are 420, of which 215 are of two, 98 of three, 55 of four, 26 of five, 18 of six, 4 of seven, 2 of eight, and 2 of nine persons.

The number of boarders bearing a family relationship is therefore 4,173 whites, and 1,244 colored. Of single boarders there is nothing to indicate the number.

The "families" above mentioned as boarders are not counted in as forming a part of the 23,495 families, or, more properly, households in the District. They constitute but parts of such households, and are included among them.

BUILDINGS.

The Enumerators' Books contained columns for recording the number of stories, material, and uses of buildings, if otherwise occupied than as dwellings, and the number of families occupying each house. If their occupation was limited to the basement, or to any particular story, this fact was also to be noted.

The total number of buildings reported is 23,095, of which 20,437 are used as dwellings. Of the latter, the following classification has been made:

Stores and sales-rooms for merchandise:	
Used, in part, as dwellings	1,635
Not used as dwellings	266
Restaurants and saloons:	
Used, in part, as dwellings	320
Not used as dwellings	21
Offices:	
Used, in part, as dwellings	21
Not used as dwellings	146
Used for mechanical trades and manufactures:	
Used, in part, as dwellings	370
Not used as dwellings	404
Warehouses and buildings used for storage:	
Used as dwellings	13
Not used as dwellings	102
Materials of which built:	
Wood—Total number	14,583
Used as dwellings	13,260
Brick—Total number	8,409
Used as dwellings	7,113
Stone—Total number	64
Used as dwellings	38
Other buildings—Total number	39
Used as dwellings	26

Summary of Buildings by materials and stories.

STORIES—NUMBER AND USES.	Wood.	Brick.	Stone.	Other buildings.	Total.
1 story—Total number	9,771	473	6	7	4,257
Used as dwellings	3,208	244	2	5	3,459
2 stories—Total number	9,648	3,717	18	8	13,388
Used as dwellings	9,008	3,250	14	7	12,280
3 stories—Total number	1,082	2,995	23	17	4,117
Used as dwellings	991	2,613	15	12	3,631
4 stories—Total number	68	1,123	15	7	1,213
Used as dwellings	54	940	5	2	1,001
5 stories—Total number	14	82	3	....	99
Used as dwellings	4	43	1	....	48
6 stories—Total number	....	8	....	....	8
Used as dwellings	....	8	....	....	6

The remainder were not specified, as to number of stories. Stables, fronting upon streets and bearing street numbers, not included in table, 129—of which 13 were inhabited by families.

Buildings not Included in the Preceding Classes

Government buildings, including capitol and the departments	7
Other Government buildings and establishments	6
Scientific institutions: Smithsonian Institution, Naval Observatory, and Medical Museum	3
Asylums and homes for destitute	8
Hospitals	11
Soldiers' barracks	20
Police stations and offices	9
City buildings: City hall and jail	2
Banks	7
Halls	23
Depots	2

Places erected for religious worship:*

Baptist	5	New Jerusalem	1
Baptist (colored)	3	Presbyterian	5
Congregational	1	Presbyterian (colored)	1
German Lutheran	1	Protestant Episcopal	4
Jewish Synagogue	1	Roman Catholic	4
Methodist (not specified)	5	Churches (not specified)	12
Methodist Episcopal	3	Colored churches (not specified)	7
Methodist Protestant	2		
Methodist (colored)	2	Total	57

BUILDINGS ERECTED IN 1866 AND 1867.

It was intended to designate in the Enumerators' Books buildings erected and in course of building in 1866 and 1867, but as several of these books were returned without entry of this item, it is supposed that all of this class were not returned. The numbers reported were as follows:

In 1866, 152 wood, 92 brick, and 1 stone. Total, 245.

In 1867; 312 wood, 229 brick, 3 of other materials. Total, 544.

Number of houses with basements used as dwellings, 729, viz: Wood, 195; brick, 532; stone, 2.

Under the head of "Sanitary Condition and Exposures," 731 dwellings were reported as bad; and, in many cases, the causes of insalubrity were specified as—vicinity to slaughter houses, pools of water, open drains, &c., or heaps of filth, crowded apartments, &c.

In the oral instructions to enumerators, they were requested to make inquiry and note down in their books the numbers found sick. But as the printed directions made no allusion to the subject, it appears to have been frequently

* As some of the titles in this list are indefinite, we may state, for further information, that the Church Directory, at the period of taking the census, contained the names of 55 religious societies in Washington, and 9 in Georgetown, viz: Baptist, 5; Congregational, 1; Christian, 1; Friends, 1; Jewish, 1; Lutheran, 4; Methodist Episcopal, 14; Methodist Protestant, 4; New Jerusalem, 1; Presbyterian, 11; Protestant Episcopal, 9; Roman Catholic, 8; Spiritualists, 1; Unitarian, 1; designation uncertain, 2. Several of these worshiped in halls used also for secular purposes.

omitted. The number reported sick in the District, at the time of taking the census, was 190.

Number of Families Living in Different Stories.

In most cases, the returns show the number of families living in each story, where two or more occupy one house. They have been concisely arranged in the following table:*

Number of houses occupied by two or more families, with number of families living in each story.

Families in a House, and Number of Families in each Story.	Basement.	1st story.	2d story.	3d story.	4th story.	Number of houses.	Families in a House, and Number of Families in each Story.	Basement.	1st story.	2d story.	3d story.	4th story.	Number of houses.
Two families	1	1	..	..	..	40	Four families	..	1	3	..	..	83
	1	..	1	..	..	13		..	..	1	3	..	1
	..	1	1	..	..	1,556		..	2	2	..	..	43
	..	1	..	1	..	1		..	..	2	2	..	2
	..	..	1	1	..	33		..	..	..	2	2	1
	..	..	1	..	1	52		..	3	1	..	..	3
	..	..	..	1	1	2		..	..	4	..	..	1
	2	..	..	..	..	1	Five families	2	1	2	..	..	2
	..	2	..	..	..	218		..	2	3	..	..	2
	..	..	2	..	..	9		..	3	2	..	..	2
	..	..	..	2	..	2		..	4	1	..	..	3
Three families	1	1	1	..	..	16		..	..	2	2	1	1
	..	1	1	1	..	111		..	..	2	3	..	1
	..	..	1	1	1	5		..	2	2	1	..	1
	1	2	..	..	..	2		..	1	2	1	1	1
	..	1	2	..	..	114	Six families	..	1	2	3	..	8
		..	1	2	..	1		..	2	2	2	..	1
	2	1	..	..	..	1		..	2	4	..	..	1
	..	2	1	..	..	100		..	4	2	..	..	2
	..	..	2	1	..	2		..	3	3	..	..	10
	..	3	..	..	..	13		..	4	1	1	..	1
	..	..	..	3	..	3	Seven families	..	2	2	3	..	1
Four families	..	1	1	1	1	11		..	3	3	1	..	1
	1	1	2	..	..	2		..	2	2	2	1	1
	..	1	2	1	..	10	Eight families	..	4	4	..	..	1
	..	1	..	2	1	1	Eleven families	..	..	6	5	..	1
	..	1	1	2	..	8	Twelve families	..	1	4	5	2	1
	..	2	1	1	..	5	Twenty-three families	..	4	6	10	3	1

The average number of inhabitants in a house is found to be 6.21 for the whole District. In Washington, it is 6.15; in Georgetown, 6.29; and in the remainder of the District, 6.82. The presence of large households and institutions is here also shown by the larger average of the suburban section.

A count of the number of buildings and dwellings has been made at different periods, and affords the means for comparing the averages of the present with the past. On the first of December, 1819, there were found 129 shops separate from dwellings, 43 public buildings, and 354 squares with improvements upon them. Of brick houses, there were then 925—of which 50 were

* This table should be read as follows: "Houses with two families, of which one lives in basement, and one in first story, 40." "Houses with two families, of which one lives in basement, and one in second story, 13," &c.

one story, 654 two stories, and 221 three stories. Of framed houses, there were 1,113—of which 314 were one story, 534 two stories, and 250 three stories. Allowing the number to have been the same at the time of taking the census in the summer of 1820, we find the number of persons in a house to have been 4.05.

At the close of 1830, the number of brick houses was reported as 1,578, and of wood, as 1,655—a total of 3,233, and an average of 5.29 persons to a house. It is quite probable that these percentages are too low, and that many buildings included in the returns had no inhabitants.

Respectfully submitted,

FRANKLIN B. HOUGH.

From the foregoing enumeration and classification by age and sex of the inhabitants of the District of Columbia, as well as their distribution through the city wards and other territorial subdivisions, we can estimate the educational requirements of the entire community, and the modifications in the means and modes of instruction demanded by the location, nationality, and occupation of families, and other special circumstances of the juvenile population.

The extent to which the educational wants of this large and rapidly increasing population are met, the number, location, attendance, and teaching force, as well as the subjects and aids of instruction, not only in the public schools, so designated, but in every institution for instruction under any form of legal organization and management, was investigated by written answers to carefully prepared questions, and by personal visits by a clerk of this Department, Mr. Z. Richards, who had been for many years a teacher and active promoter of education in the District. The results of these inquiries will be given substantially in the tables and report prepared by him.

The better to understand the difficulties and facilities of the educational work to be done in this District, the historical development of schools of different grades and kinds—elementary and superior, public and private, individual and associated, secular and denominational—was undertaken, and the results, so far as reached, will be presented in the Appendix.

To enable the Commissioner to judge of the relative efficiency of the systems of public schools in actual operation in the District, and to suggest any additional legislation, either national or municipal, for the purpose of making these schools more efficient or their benefits more general, inquiries were instituted into the organization and condition of public instruction in all the principal cities of the United States, the results of which are summarily stated under the third division of this report. To make the experience of these cities available in perfecting the details of local organization and administration, as well as to aid in establishing more philosophical as well as practical courses of instruction for each grade of schools, a digest of their school codes and selections from their programmes of instruction will be found in the Appendix.

In order that those who are to legislate or act on this great subject of public instruction, either primarily in Congress, or as its representatives in municipal authority, or in any board clothed with the administration of this great trust, may be enabled to do so wisely, inquiries have been instituted into the organization and condition of public schools in several of the national capitals of Europe, and some of their characteristic features are set forth briefly in this report, and more in detail in the Appendix.

To judge of the ability of this District, as compared with other municipalities, to maintain a liberal system of public instruction, information has been sought as to the population, property-valuation for taxable purposes, the amount and rate of taxation and expenditure for school and other purposes, as well as the indebtedness of the principal cities of the United States, the result of which, when tabulated, will be given in the Appendix.

II.—HISTORY AND CONDITION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

1. ACTION OF THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT.

To the action of Congress, as the fountain of supreme and exclusive jurisdiction over the District of Columbia, we must look, for such originating and controlling legislation as has been had on the subject of public schools and other institutions of popular education.

In the original charter granted by Congress to the city of Washington in 1802, no provision was made or power given for establishing public schools. In the amended charter of 1804, the following section was introduced: "The said corporation shall have power to provide for the establishment and superintendence of schools."

Immediately on the acceptance of this amended charter the corporation of Washington passed an act "to establish and endow a permanent institution for the education of youth," which will be cited in full under the legislation of the city on this subject.

For sixteen years there appears no trace of further legislation by Congress in behalf of public schools, although the presentation of several memorials by the municipal authorities of Washington and Georgetown, and by the inhabitants of the District, for some substantial aid in the construction of houses and the support of teachers is recorded. In the year, 1820, the charter of the city of Washington was again amended, so as to read: "The said corporation shall also have power and authority to provide for the establishment and superintendence of public schools, and to endow the same." But no endowment of public lands, or of any kind, followed this grant of power.

In 1848 Congress again amended the charter by the following words: "The said corporation shall have power to lay and collect a school tax upon every free white male citizen of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, of one dollar per annum;" also "to lay and collect taxes for the support of public schools;" also in section 9 of the said charter, "That the school tax which may be levied and collected in pursuance of the powers in this act given, shall constitute a fund, or be added to any other fund now or hereafter to be constituted by any act of the corporation for the establishment and support of common schools, and for no other purpose, under such regulations as may from time to time be established and provided by the corporation."

On the 20th of May, 1862, an act of Congress was approved to provide for the public instruction of youth in primary schools throughout the county of Washington, in the District of Columbia, without the limits of Washington and Georgetown.

In this act special provision was made for the education of the children of both white and colored parents. (Statutes at Large for 1861–'62, chapter 77.)

On the 21st of May, 1862, another act was approved, "providing for the education of colored children in the cities of Washington and Georgetown, District of Columbia, and for other purposes." (Statutes at Large for 1861–'62, chapter 83.)

Again, on the 11th of July, 1862, an act was approved "relating to schools for the education of colored children in the cities of Washington and Georgetown, in the District of Columbia," in which three persons therein named were made trustees of said schools, "and their successors in office, who are hereby created a board of trustees of the schools for colored children in the cities aforesaid, and who shall possess all the powers and perform all the duties conferred upon and required of the trustees of public schools in the said cities of Washington and Georgetown by the aforesaid act," of May 21, 1862. The said trustees are to

be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior. (Statutes at Large for 1861–'62, chapter 151.)

The last act required the municipal authorities of Washington and Georgetown to pay into the hands of said trustees ten per cent. of all taxes levied and received "on the real and personal property in said cities owned by persons of color."

On the 25th of June, 1864, another act was approved, "to provide for public instruction of youth in the county of Washington, D. C., and for other purposes." This act modifies and amends the act of May 20, 1862. (Statutes at Large for 1863–'64, chapter 156.)

Again, on the 23d of July, 1866, an act was approved for the purpose of construing the act of June 25, 1864, so as to require the cities of Washington and Georgetown to pay over certain portions of all moneys received or expended for school or educational purposes to the trustees of schools for colored children in said cities, to be used by them, at their pleasure, for such schools in Washington and Georgetown; and on the 28th of July the Commissioner of Public Buildings was directed to convey to the same trustees lots No. 1, 2, and 18, in square 985 for the use of schools established by them for colored children. (Statutes at Large for 1865–'66, chapter 217.)

The preceding enumeration includes all the legislation of Congress on the subject of public schools both for white and colored children. The supplementary action by the municipal authorities and local trustees is as follows:

2. SCHOOL LEGISLATION OF WASHINGTON.

In accordance with the amended charter of the city, in 1804, two years after the first charter was granted, the city councils passed the following ordinance, entitled "An act to establish and endow a permanent institution for the education of youth in the city of Washington:"

Impressed with the inseparable connection between the education of youth and the prevalence of pure morals, with the duties of all communities to place within the reach of the poor as well as the rich the inestimable blessing of knowledge, and with the high necessity of establishing at the seat of general government proper seminaries of learning, the city council of Washington do pass the following act:

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the first and second chambers of the city of Washington*, That the superintendence of public schools within the city of Washington shall be placed under the direction of a board of thirteen trustees; whereof seven shall be annually chosen by the joint ballots of the council from among the residents of the city; and six shall be annually chosen by individuals contributing to the promotion of schools hereinafter provided. A majority of the board shall constitute a quorum. The board shall appoint a president and treasurer, the former of whom shall be of their own body; shall remain in office until a new election of president, which shall take place at the pleasure of the board; shall vote on all questions, and have also a casting vote in all cases of equal division. They shall have power to pass all necessary by-laws not inconsistent with this act; to receive donations, and to vest and apply the funds placed under their care in such manner as they may see fit. They shall make an adequate provision, and pay at such rates as they deem reasonable and proper for the education of children residing in the city, whose parents or guardians are unable to defray the expenses of their education; they shall keep a journal of their proceedings, and shall on the second Monday in June, in each year, make a full report of them to the councils, excepting the names of those children who shall receive education without any charge being made therefor.

SEC. 2. *And be it enacted, &c.*, That so much of the net proceeds of taxes laid, or to be laid on slaves, on dogs, on licenses for carriages and hacks, for ordinaries and taverns, for retailing of wines and spirituous liquors, for billiard tables, for theatrical and other public amusements, for hawkers and pedlars, be appropriated as the trustees may decide to be necessary for the education of the poor of the city, payable by the treasurer of the board of trustees in four quarterly payments, on the first Monday of January, April, July, and October, of 1805: *Provided*, That if the said net proceeds exceed annually the sum of $1,500, the surplus shall be retained by the treasurer of the city, subject to the disposition of the council.

SEC. 3. *And be it enacted, &c.*, That within one week after the passage of this act the two chambers of the council shall meet together, and by joint ballot appoint three of their members, who shall be authorized to take all the necessary preliminary steps for carrying this

plan into effect. They shall solicit themselves, or name others to solicit, contributions in money or lots; and the money shall be payable at such time after the first Monday of May next, and in such instalments, as they shall prescribe. It shall be paid to the treasurer of the board of trustees, and the lots shall be transferred to the institution in such manner as the board shall direct. Contributions to any amount shall be received. The committee may employ agents to solicit subscriptions at a distance, and the sum of two hundred dollars is hereby appropriated to defray such expenses as may be thereby incurred, payable out of the proceeds of the aforesaid taxes, which sum the treasurer is hereby authorized to pay. They shall on the first Monday of May make a report of their proceedings to the council, and shall forthwith give public notice to the contributors to assemble on the third Monday of July ensuing, at such place as they shall name, at which time and place the individuals who shall have contributed ten dollars or upwards shall, in person or proxy, elect six trustees to hold their appointment for one year, of which election the committee shall be judges; and each contributor shall have as many votes as he shall have contributed sums of ten dollars. The judges of the election shall notify the persons elected to convene at the Capitol on the first Monday in August following.

The council of this city shall, on the fourth Monday of July next, elect by joint ballot seven trustees, who shall hold their appointments until the second Monday in July, on which day a new election shall be held, which shall be repeated on the same day in each succeeding year.

The secretary of the first chamber shall immediately notify the persons elected to meet at the Capitol on the first Monday of August, on which day the committee shall deliver over to the board of trustees all the original papers in their possession, together with the journal of their proceedings, and the entire direction of public schools shall thereupon devolve upon said board. All subsequent elections by the contributors shall be held in such manner as the board of trustees shall prescribe. (Approved December 5, 1804.)

The committee of three designated by the joint vote of the two chambers of the city council on the 12th of October, 1804, in pursuance of the third section, canvassed the city very thoroughly for contributions, and obtained the names of 190 subscribers to the amount of $4,000 in sums varying from $200 to $10, and on the fourth Monday of July, 1805, Robert Brent, William H. Smith, William Cranch, William Brent, George Blagden, John Dempsie, and Nicholas King were chosen trustees of the public schools of Washington, and met for organization at the Capitol on the 5th of August following.

Of the board of trustees created by this act, Thomas Jefferson, then President of the United States, was elected the first president, having been previously elected a member of the board by the city council. In his letter of acceptance, dated at Monticello, August 14, 1805, he says: "Sincerely believing that knowledge promotes the happiness of men, I shall ever be disposed to contribute my endeavors towards its extension, and, in the instance under consideration, will willingly undertake the duties proposed to me, so far as others of paramount obligation will permit my attention to them." For three successive years he was elected president of the board, and was succeeded in 1808 by John P. Van Ness, by Robert Brent in 1809, by Gabriel Duvall in 1811, and Rev. James Laurie, D. D., in 1814, who continued to preside till 1818, when the board was superseded by a new organization, by which trustees were appointed for each of the two districts into which the city of Washington was divided.

The volume of original records of the proceedings of the trustees created by the ordinance of the city of Washington, approved October 5, 1805, embracing the names of the original contributors in aid of the establishment of the first system of public schools for this national capital, and giving the reports of special committees and details of the schools from 1805 to 1818, came into the possession of the late Peter Force, and is now with his valuable collection of manuscripts, pamphlets, and books, in the library of Congress. As the only existing record of the efforts to establish and administer public schools for fifteen years, we have made extracts, which will be found in the Appendix.

We give in the appendix the date and title of all the ordinances of the corporation of Washington relating to the public schools, and shall in this summary introduce such action only as has materially affected the system and condition of the schools.

In 1808 the city of Washington made an appropriation directly of $800 for

the support of "a permanent institution for the education of youth," and repealed so much of the act of 1804 as appropriated $1,500 out of the income from taxes on slaves, dogs, licenses, &c.

By a provision of the charter, the city was authorized to raise funds by lotteries, for effecting any important improvements for which the ordinary revenues were insufficient, and accordingly, in November, 1812, a resolution was passed to raise by lottery, if possible, $10,000, for building school-houses and endowing two public schools upon the Lancasterian system, one in the eastern and one in the western sections of the city; which resolution was approved by President Madison. For several successive years similar resolutions were adopted, and some money was realized from some of these schemes and used for schools and other purposes. In the end, however, these lottery schemes were not only unsuccessful, but resulted in saddling a heavy debt upon the city.

The next important change in city legislation was made in 1816, when the city was divided into two school districts; the first district embracing the 1st and 2d wards, and the second embracing the 3d and 4th wards. In the first district there were nine trustees, six of whom were chosen on joint ballot by the councils, and three were chosen by the ten-dollar subscribers. The second district had seven trustees chosen on joint ballot by the city councils. Each district was at first provided with one school; and the first district received from the city $1, 500, and the second district $800, according to the number of pupils in each district.*

In 1818 the system of public schools in Washington was so changed as "to be conducted upon the principle of instructing poor scholars," and the act was repealed which required the election of trustees by those who subscribed $10. The appropriation of $1,500 annually to the western district was repealed, and $1,000 appropriated, to be expended in educating poor children only. The trustees were authorized, however, to select scholars sufficiently qualified, and place them in private schools of a higher grade, provided they could be received for $10 per quarter, and appropriations were made for this purpose.

In 1820 the city appropriated $1,000 to the first district, and $850 to the second district; and it was ordered "that it shall not be lawful to suffer any children to be taught *for pay;* but that the schools shall consist entirely of children whose parents are unable to pay for their tuition."

In 1826, $40,000, previously raised by lotteries, were "appropriated, solemnly pledged and set apart, for the purpose of endowing two charity schools, one in the eastern section and the other in the western section of the city." This amount the mayor was required to invest in corporation stocks, and the interest alone was to be used by the trustees of said schools in paying the salaries of teachers and contingent expenses of said schools. Portions of this interest were used from time to time, and the mayor was instructed to purchase stock with all unappropriated balances, which has been done, so that now the amount of this stock held by the mayor is about $58, 655, the interest of which is added to the school fund. From time to time the corporation of Washington, and of the two cities combined, has memorialized Congress, and asked for aid, in public lands or otherwise, to furnish the means for increasing and improving the facilities for educating the children of a rapidly increasing population, made up to a great extent of persons connected directly or indirectly with the government.

A comparative examination of the reports of the schools from time to time,

* On the 12th of February, 1812, the first school in this city upon the Lancasterian system was started, with ninety male and female pupils, under the superintendence of Mr. Henry Ould, now a resident of this city, having come from England about the 1st of November, 1811, with his brother Robert Ould, with whom he taught in a school in Georgetown of the same character, which was established on the 18th of November, 1811. Mr. Henry Ould continued his connection with this school in this city until September, 1836, with marked success and honor to himself; since which time the Lancasterian system has not been kept up as such, any further than by its reflex influence upon other schools.

with the census of the city, shows that at no time, since the establishment of public free schools in the city, have more than one-fourth of the children of school age been provided with any school accommodations, and not more than one-sixth in buildings owned by the city.

In 1840, in addition to the 296 pupils provided for in the eastern and western schools, appropriations were made to aid two charity schools conducted by some public-spirited and philanthropic ladies, which aid was continued for several years.

During the ten years from 1840 to 1850, the late Mr. W. W. Seaton, who filled the office of mayor of the city for that period, with much credit and honor to himself and to the city, manifested a deep interest in the cause of public school education; and he was instrumental to a great extent in introducing into Washington the main features of the system of common schools, now so popular and useful in the most favored portions of our country. In his message of 1842, Mr. Seaton stated that only 1,200 out of the 5,200 children of the city could be instructed in the public schools. He recommended to the councils the adoption and introduction of "the admirable system of common schools adopted in the New England States, by which the benefits of education are placed within reach of every child in the community." This system was warmly advocated by some of the prominent citizens, and its merits were discussed with much zeal and spirit for two or three years.

Fortunately for the cause, and for its friends in the city, they had the aid of such men as Hon. John Quincy Adams, Justice Woodbury, Hon. Caleb Cushing, Hon. Charles Hudson, Rev. S. G. Bulfinch, Rev. E. E. Hale, and other prominent public men. Yet such was the opposition to the free-school system, and the diversity of views respecting it, and doubts whether the city charter conferred sufficient power to impose taxes for the support of schools, in addition to the pretended inexpediency of imposing them, that Mayor Seaton, in his annual communication of 1843, modified his views so far as to recommend "simply the use of the entire interest of the school fund for school purposes, the establishment of an additional school and the admission of pupils, other than the extremely poor, by the payment of a tuition fee of fifty cents monthly." On the 6th of December, 1844, the above recommendation was carried into effect, as follows:

AN ACT to increase the number of public schools in the city of Washington and for other purposes.

SECTION 1. Four school districts. First district, all of first ward and part of second ward, north of canal; second district, part of third ward north of canal; third district, fourth and sixth wards and part of fifth, east of canal; fourth district, all the residue of the city.

SEC. 2. On first Monday of October, annually, three trustees from each district, to be elected in joint meeting of councils, with mayor as president of board; continue in office till successors are chosen.

SEC. 3. Board to appoint a secretary, who shall be paid $50 per annum; one-half whole number of trustees to constitute a quorum.

SEC. 4. Board to have power to appoint all teachers and assistants, prescribe studies and text-books, make by-laws, rules, and regulations for schools; alter at pleasure; fill up vacancies in their own body between two annual elections, and transact all business and matters appertaining to schools. Annual examination to be held in July; written report to be made to councils in August.

SEC. 5. Four sub-boards, to be constituted of the trustees in each district, for practical supervision of schools, to meet once a month, on a regular day, and keep journal of proceedings. Journal to be kept by teachers of transactions of schools, studies pursued, with names of all admitted, withdrawn, and dismissed, &c.

SEC. 6. Mayor to cause erection of school-house on Judiciary square, for second district, sufficient for two hundred and fifty pupils, at cost of $2,000. Also, procure lot and erect a school-house for fourth district for one hundred and fifty pupils, at cost of $1,300, both to be furnished, and to be built by contract by lowest bidder. Rooms to be rented for second and fourth districts until buildings are completed.

SEC. 7. For each school, one male teacher, to be appointed as principal, to have charge of

the school-house, and to take care for its preservation. Teachers to strictly conform to rules of trustees; salary not to exceed $800, payable monthly; deductions to be made for loss of time or absence from duty.

SEC. 8. All white children between six and sixteen to be admitted; taught upon most improved methods; male and female pupils kept separate; children of one district may be received into schools of another district.

SEC. 9. Pupils to pay tuition-fee in advance, not to exceed fifty cents a month, and furnish their own books Children of indigent parents may be taught and supplied with books free of charge

SEC. 10. All money received for tuition to be deposited monthly in bank to credit of school fund; and when fees in any school warrant, trustees may apply to councils for authority to employ additional teachers, who are to be females, and the salaries not to exceed $250.

SEC. 11. Board of trustees to furnish councils annually with estimates of appropriations needed. All appropriations made by councils to be subject to the order of the board of trustees, from time to time, as required; receipts to be returned to register for settlement.

SEC. 12. Repeals all acts inconsistent.

This combined free and pay system went into operation on the 1st of January, 1845, and continued until the 1st of September, 1848. When the schools were first opened, and some time thereafter, they were nearly full, and the sum received from the pay pupils amounted to nearly enough ($1,050) to pay the assistants. But each year after the first the total number of pupils diminished, as well as the receipts from tuition, till, in 1848, the trustees reported to the council that they had dismissed the assistant teachers, in consequence of the tuition fees, to which they were restricted, being inadequate for their support. As the system which had been in operation till 1845 was defective, in educating only a portion of the youthful population, and at the same time fastening upon it the badge of poverty, and upon the schools the stigma of charity or pauper schools so the system afterwards adopted was injudicious in bringing social distinctions into the school room. The pupils soon ascertained which of their number were pay and which were free scholars, and it led to heart-burnings and ill-natured remarks among themselves and their respective parents. This state of things continued until the renewal of the charter by Congress, in 1848, in which power was given to the corporation to impose a school tax and also a capitation tax of one dollar annually on each voter, to be appropriated to the use of public schools. In accordance with this authority the city councils so amended the school law of 1844 as to require and make provision for collecting the capitation tax, to abolish the tuition fees, to increase the number of schools, to furnish an office for the trustees at the City Hall, and to establish a high school, on the 1st of September, 1851, which last provision has never been carried into operation. Amendments were made from time to time by the corporation to the school law, without materially changing the general system, until 1858.

The amount received from the capitation tax varied from year to year, not in the proportion to the change in the population, but in the proportion to the number of persons who actually voted, from $3,172 to $7,192 in 1860. The city law is explicit and imperative: "That there be, and hereby is, imposed and laid for the year 1848, and for each and every year thereafter, a school tax of one dollar upon every free white male citizen of this city of the age of twenty-one years and upwards, which shall be due and payable at the same time and shall be collected in the same manner as the taxes upon personal property are collected," &c. By the same act the proceeds of the school tax were "set apart and pledged for the establishment and support of public schools in this city, and for no other purpose," &c. But, so far as can be ascertained, the provisions of this act were and have been continuously disregarded, except the collection of this tax from those persons only who voted at the polls; and not even the amount thus collected has been set apart and used for schools and no other purpose, as it has been the habit of the different executive officers of this city to pay any bills, so long as there was money to the credit of any fund. During the past year (1867) not even this amount has

been collected, in consequence of the act of Congress, dated January 8, 1867, "to regulate the elective franchise in the District of Columbia," which has been so construed as not to make it obligatory upon any voter to pay such, or any tax, previous to voting. It is believed by many, however, that this poll-tax can be collected now in the same way as any personal tax, and, if collected, it would, according to the late census, make an addition to the schoolfund of some $20,000.

No other legislation of special interest, except the authorizing of the employment of sub-assistant female teachers in female grammar schools, and the providing for the protection of schools and teachers against persons disposed to disturb them, was effected until November 12, 1858, when the following act was passed, which is the law under which the present system of public schools is now organized:

AN ACT in relation to public schools.

Be it enacted, &c., That from and after the passage of this act, the city of Washington shall comprise four public school districts, to be divided as follows, viz: All of the first and second wards shall constitute the first school district; all of the third and fourth wards shall constitute the second school district: all of the fifth and sixth wards shall constitute the third school district; and the seventh ward shall constitute the fourth school district.

SEC. 2. *And be it enacted*, That annually, on or about the first Monday in October, the mayor shall appoint, by and with the advice and consent of the board of aldermen, a board of trustees, consisting of three persons from each school district, who, with the mayor for the time being as president of said board, shall have the management of all the public schools in the city of Washington; and the absence of any trustee from three sucessive meetings of the board. except in case of sickness or necessary temporary absence from the city, shall vacate his seat as a member thereof, and the secretary of the board shall thereupon notify the mayor, who shall fill the vacancy by a new appointment in like manner. The said board shall continue in office until their successors are appointed.

SEC. 3 *And be it enacted*, That the board of trustees, appointed in accordance with the foregoing section, shall assemble at the City Hall on the first Monday after their appointment, or some early day thereafter, (of which due notice shall be given by the mayor,) and shall organize themselves. In case the mayor shall be absent, or be unable to preside at any of the meetings of the said board, a president *pro tempore* shall be elected by the members present.

SEC. 4. *And be it enacted*, That the mayor shall, at the same time that he annually appoints the trustees, also appoint, by and with the advice and consent of the board of aldermen, a secretary, who shall keep a journal of all the proceedings of the board of trustees, and perperform such other duties as the rules of the board of trustees and the nature of the office may require.

The mayor shall, in like manner, appoint a treasurer, to make the disbursements for the public schools, and to keep the accounts and vouchers thereof.

It shall be the duty of the secretary and the treasurer to attend the meetings of the board of trustees: but they shall have no vote in said board, and they shall each be allowed a compensation* of two hundred dollars per annum, payable monthly out of the school fund.

The treasurer shall give bond and security in the sum of two thousand dollarst for the faithful performance of his duties

SEC. 5. *And be it enacted*, That the board of trustees shall have power to appoint all teachers, assistant teachers, and sub-assistant teachers, which may be authorized by law, and the same to change at pleasure; to prescribe the course of studies and the books to be used in the schools; but no books shall be changed, unless by a vote of two-thirds of the whole board, and the books in all the schools in the several districts shall be uniform

The board shall also make and execute such by-laws and rules and regulations for the management of the schools as they may deem necessary and proper, a copy of which shall occupy a conspicuous place in the school-room; for the government of the teachers and children, and the same to alter, amend, or abrogate at pleasure; and to determine upon, do, and transact all business and matters appertaining to said schools, agreeably to their by-laws and regulations, and subject at all times to the laws of the corporation.

They shall cause an annual examination of all the public schools to be held in or before the month of July, on such day or days as they may from time to time appoint; and shall make a written report to the board of aldermen and board of common council annually, on or about the first Monday of September, giving a full account of their proceedings for the past year, the condition of the several schools, the number of pupils of each sex, with the

* See act of Sept. 1, 1862.

studies pursued; and make whatever suggestions from time to time they may conceive proper for the better accomplishment of the objects of this act: and shall give such information as the two boards, or either of them, may at any time call for.

SEC. 6. *And be it enacted*, That the board of trustees aforesaid, in addition to the other duties prescribed by this act, shall divide themselves into as many separate sub-boards as there may be school districts, for the exercise of practical supervision over the public schools placed under their jurisdiction, severally subject at all times to the control of the board of trustees.

The said sub-boards shall meet at least once a month at the respective school-houses, on some regular day to be appointed by themselves, and shall cause a journal to be kept by the principal teacher of the transactions of the schools, the studies pursued, with the names of any and all who may have been admitted, withdrawn, or dismissed from the school, or who may have applied and failed to obtain admission.

SEC. 7. *And be it enacted*, That there shall be appointed annually by the board of trustees* one male teacher for each of the district schools, who shall be the principal thereof, and who, during his continuance in office, shall have charge (subject to the direction of the sub-boards of trustees respectively) of the school-house and appurtenances thereof, and shall take due care for its preservation; and the said teachers, and such other teachers, assistant teachers, and sub-assistant teachers, as may be appointed, from time to time, shall strictly conform to such rules and regulations as may be prescribed by the board of trustees.

The said teachers of the district schools shall respectively receive as compensation* for their services a salary not exceeding the rate of nine hundred dollars per annum; the assistant teachers of the district schools an annual salary of five hundred dollars; the teachers of male primary schools an annual salary of five hundred dollars; the principal teachers of primary schools an annual salary of three hundred and fifty dollars; and the assistant teachers of primary schools an annual salary of three hundred dollars; and the sub-assistant teachers, hereinafter authorized, an annual salary of one hundred dollars, each of which salaries shall be payable monthly.

Provided, That nothing herein contained shall prevent the board of trustees from employing teachers at a less rate of compensation.

Provided, also, That such compensation shall be subject to a deduction for any loss of time or absence from duty.

SEC. 8. *And be it enacted*, That the board of trustees of the public schools be authorized to select the most meritorious and advanced pupil of the female department of each district school, who shall be styled *sub-assistant* teacher, and shall pursue such studies as the board may determine, under the direction of the teacher of the female department of said district school; and the said sub-assistant teachers shall each, in their respective districts, supply any vacancy which may occur in any primary school temporarily, whenever they are required to do so by the sub-board of the district to which they are attached.

SEC. 9. *And be it enacted*, That all white children between the ages of six and seventeen years, within the respective school districts aforesaid, shall be admitted into the schools, and shall be taught upon the most approved methods of imparting common school instruction.

Provided, That the parents or guardians of such children shall be *bona fide* residents of the city of Washington: and the board of trustees are hereby authorized to cause the necessary books and stationery to be furnished free of charge to all destitute pupils attending any of the public schools of this city.

The male and female pupils shall, as far as practicable, be kept separate during the school hours, and shall have different places assigned them for recreation.

Provided, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent the children of one district from being received into the school of any other district.

SEC. 10. *And be it enacted*, That the board of trustees of the public schools shall keep an office in the City Hall, in such room as may be selected by the mayor, where all the books, papers, and other matters relating to the public schools, and the proceedings of the said board of trustees, shall be kept, and where all the meetings of the said board shall be held.

SEC. 11. *And be it enacted*, That the board of trustees shall annually furnish to the board of aldermen and board of common council estimates of the amount which may be necessary for the payment of the teachers and assistant teachers, for the purchase of books and stationery, and for all other contingent and necessary expenses of each of said schools; and it shall be the duty of the two boards to make provision by law for the payment of all such salaries and other necessary expenses out of any money to the credit of the school fund, and when that shall be insufficient, out of the general fund; and all such appropriations shall be subject to the orders of the board of trustees, from time to time, as the same may be required to be properly disbursed, and for which the receipts shall, in every case, be taken and returned to the register of the corporation for settlement.

SEC. 12. *And be it enacted*, That all acts or parts of acts heretofore passed relative to the public schools, to organize and establish a board of trustees of the public schools, the salary of the secretary and treasurer, and the duties of the board, be and the same are hereby repealed.

Approved November 12, 1858.

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*See acts of September 1, 1862, sec. 3; July 12, 1864; January 16, 1865, and August 11, 1866.

Under the special direction of this department, in pursuance of the resolution of Congress, all the public schools, both for white and colored children, in the District of Columbia, have been visited and examined, during the summer and fall, and the following general summary of their condition obtained. In this summary is included, also, as the result of visitation and their own reports, a similar class of the statistics of all the private elementary schools of the District. In a few cases, where the information was not furnished by the principal, the statistics were given by the patrons or pupils of the schools. Besides, as the result of an actual census of the District, taken by this department, in order to show more satisfactorily the relative condition of the District to its educational advantages, the following summary will show the actual population, the number of children of school age, white and colored, male and female; the amount of taxable property, and amount of taxes of all kinds; the number of tax-payers, on both real and personal property; the present value of all school property; the amount of school expenditures, the capacity of school buildings, and other matters connected with the condition of education and the means of its improvement.

General summary of the statistics of education in the city of Washington in 1867.

POPULATION.

I.—1. Whites, males		37,700
females		36,415
Total		74,115
2. Colored, males		14,389
females		17,548
Total		31,937
Grand total		106,052
II.—Number of children between 6 and 18:		
1. Whites, males		8,786
females		9,015
Total		17,801
2. Colored, males		3,798
females		4,603
Total		8,401
Grand total		26,202
III.—Number of blind:		
Males	13	
Females	22	
		35
Number of blind between 6 and 18, males	4	
females	5	
		9
IV.—Number of deaf and dumb:		
Males	19	
Females	22	
		41
Number of deaf and dumb between 6 and 18, males	8	
females	11	
		19

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

V.—1. Number in buildings owned by the city, for whites		44
2. Number in buildings rented by the city, for whites		44
3. Number in buildings owned by the city, for colored		23
4. Number in buildings from Freedmen's Bureau, for colored		26
VI.—Average number of pupils, first four months of 1867:		
1. Whites, male pupils		2,526
female pupils		2,105
Total		4,631
2. Colored, male pupils		1,204
female pupils		1,211
Total		2,415
Grand total		7,046
VII.—Whole number of school sittings:		
1. Whites		5,040
2. Colored		2,618
Total number of school sittings		7,658
VIII.—Number of teachers:		
1. White, males	6	
females	83	
		89
2. Colored, females		49
Total number of public school teachers		138
IX.—Cost of supporting public schools for year:		
1. Amount of teachers' wages for white schools		$46,716
2. Amount of salaries of treasurer and clerk for white schools		700
3. Amount of incidentals for white schools:		
a. For repairs, &c	$27,521 29	
b. For new buildings	20,720 43	
c. For rents of rooms	11,000 00	
d. For printing	553 99	
		59,796
Total expenditures for white schools		107,212
4. Amount of teachers' wages for colored schools		$21,255
5. Amount of incidentals for colored schools		9,266
6. Amount paid for new buildings and lots for colored schools		24,975
Total expenditures for colored schools		55,496
Grand total of expenses in Washington		162,708
X.—Amount of school property:		
1. For white schools		$150,000
2. For colored schools		39,000
Total school property		189,000
XI.—1. Whole amount of taxable property		$44,032,592
2. Whole amount of taxes		687,569
3. Whole number of tax-payers, personal and real		10,050

PRIVATE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

XII.—1. Number of white private schools	78
2. Number of colored private schools	7
Total private schools	85
Number of white private school teachers	157
3. Number of white pupils, males	2,335
females	2,382
Total white private pupils	4,717
4. Number of colored private pupils, males	66
females	166
Total colored private pupils	232
5. Amount of salaries and expenses for white private schools. In consequence of the irregularity and indefiniteness of reports from these schools, it has been necessary to rely upon estimates, which, it is believed, are under the real amount, as follows	$110,389
6. Amount of expenses for private colored schools, mostly estimated	$3,030

3. SCHOOL LEGISLATION IN GEORGETOWN.

Georgetown became an incorporated city by an act of the legislature of Maryland, in November, 1789; and from its cession to the United States, in 1790, there appears to have been no congressional or municipal legislation in reference to public schools, or indeed to education generally, until the year 1810. The original charter is silent upon the subject; and no system of public schools was established until December, 1842.

Prior to 1810 the opportunities for education were confined to a few private schools. Towards the close of that year (1810) and in the early part of 1811, a society, called the "Lancasterian School Society," was organized, for the establishment of a school to be conducted on the system of Joseph Lancaster. On the 18th of November, 1811, a school of this character was opened by Mr. Robert Ould, a pupil of Lancaster, who came to this country in that year on the special invitation of the Georgetown Lancasterian School Society, and who had been recommended by Mr. Lancaster as having been specially trained in his system.

This school was sustained by private contributions and a small charge for tuition until the year 1815, when the Georgetown corporation appropriated one thousand dollars for its support, and continued that appropriation annually, for the education of destitute children and for those whose parents were unable to educate them, until the suspension of the school, in 1842. In December of that year (1842) an act was passed by the city councils "for the purpose of more effectually securing a primary education to the poor of both sexes, within the limits of this town; the school now in operation, and supported by appropriations out of the public funds, to be taken under the exclusive care of the corporation authority; and that guardians thereof be annually appointed in the joint meeting of the two boards." Immediately thereafter, a Board of Guardians, consisting of *seven members*, was chosen, "two of whom were to be members of the boards of the common council, who, together, were authorized to make their own by-laws, to elect their teachers, fix their compensation, pay the same, and other necessary expenses, out of funds to be set apart for the use of the board of guardians exclusively." The funds set apart for compensation of teachers and other expenses did not exceed $1,000 prior to 1853.

After the passage of this act there was to be no tuition fee charged or collected, so that the schools became *free* to all.

In August, 1844, an act was passed by the city authorities, by which the guardians were authorized to receive donations of money from parents or guardians of pupils in the schools, and also from other contributors. In 1848 an act was passed, directing the guardians to charge or receive pay for all scholars whose parents or guardians are, in the opinion of a majority of the board, able to pay, not exceeding *one dollar* per month, for the general use of the schools.

In August, 1849, the board of guardians were authorized to purchase a church on Montgomery street, for school purposes, and to pay for it $1200, in corporation bonds. An appropriation was also made of $800 for the purpose of fitting it properly. Additional appropriations of from $1,500 to $2,500 were made annually, which furnished the principal means for the support of the schools, until January, 1857, when an act was passed by the councils to assess a school-tax of one dollar upon all free white male residents twenty-one years of age and upwards. This tax was collected, like a similar tax in Washington, only from such as actually voted at the polls, and was considered as annulled by the act of Congress of January 8, 1867, "to regulate the elective franchise of the District of Columbia." In 1859 the city made appropriations necessary to build a commodious and comfortable house on High street, at an expense of $4,500. In April, 1860, the corporation directed that another application to Congress for an appropriation, for purpose of education, should be made, which, like other similar applications, met with no favorable results.

General statistics of the schools and condition of the city, similar to those above in regard to Washington, are given below. In the absence of printed reports, except for the year 1866–'67, it is very difficult to obtain the various statistics from year to year, in order to compare the present with the past:

General summary of the school statistics of the city of Georgetown.

POPULATION.

I.—1. Whites, males	4,120
females	4,389
Total	8,509
2. Colored, males	1,410
females	1,874
Total	3,284
Grand total	11,793
II.—Number of children between 6 and 18:	
1 Whites, males	1,030
females	1,122
Total	2,152
2. Colored, males	383
females	511
Total	894
Grand total	3,046
III.—Number of blind:	
Males, 5; females, 3	8
Number of blind between 6 and 18, males	1
IV.—Number of deaf and dumb:	
Males, 6; females, 3	9
Number of deaf and dumb between 6 and 18, males	2

PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

V.—1. Number in buildings owned by city, for whites	8
Number in buildings owned by city, for colored	8
There are no public schools in rented rooms or buildings.	
VI.—Average number of pupils, first four months of 1867:	
1. Whites, males	190
females	172
Total	362
2. Colored, males	160
females	173
Total	333
Grand total	695
VII.—Whole number of school sittings:	
1. White schools	480
2. Colored schools	438
Total number of sittings in public schools	918
VIII.—Number of teachers:	
1. White, female	8
2. Colored, female	8
Total	16
IX.—Cost of supporting public schools per year:	
1. Teachers' wages, white schools	$3,904
2. Repairs, &c	642
3. Incidentals	547
Total expenses for white schools	5,093
4. Teachers' wages for colored schools	3,660
5. Contingencies for colored schools	1,500
Total expenses of colored schools	5,160
X.—Amount of school property:	
1. White schools	$10,700
2. Colored schools	6,000
Total	16,700
XI.—1. Whole amount of taxable property	$5,641,936
2. Whole amount of taxes	5,400
3. Whole number of tax-payers, personal and real	391

PRIVATE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.*

XII.—1. Number of white private schools	21
2. Number of white private school teachers	30
3. Number of white private pupils, males	420
females	215
Total white private pupils	635
4. Amount of salaries and expenses for white private schools	$19,500

* There are no private schools for colored children in Georgetown.

4. SCHOOL LEGISLATION FOR THE COUNTY.

The county outside of the cities of Washington and Georgetown has been placed by Congress under the administration of "the levy court," and embraces a large portion of the territory of the District. Until the year 1862 there had been no legislative provision for schools in the county, the only means for the education of children being in occasionally established private and family schools.

In 1862, May 20, an act was approved entitled "An act to provide for the public instruction of youth in primary schools throughout the county of Washington, in the District of Columbia, without the limits of the cities of Washington and Georgetown." (Statutes at Large for 1861–'62, p. 394.) The provisions of this voluminous bill give power to the levy court to appoint seven commissioners, who shall have power to divide the county into districts, to provide schools for colored children, and in general perform such acts as may be necessary to provide good schools and supply the same with well qualified teachers. In 1864, June 25, Congress passed an act modifying and adding to the act of 1862, so as to give more efficiency to the system of schools in the county.

In accordance with these acts, the Levy Court appointed the requisite number of commissioners, and immediately thereupon schools were started in every district as fast as suitable accommodations could be provided. During the past year there have been in successful operation fifteen schools, two in each of the six districts, one of which is for white and one for colored children; and two for white and one for colored children in the seventh district. The general statistics of these schools are given hereafter.

In the act of Congress approved June 25, 1864, section 20 reads as follows, and is applicable to all the people of the District, in the cities or county. So far as action on the part of the school or other officers is concerned, it is believed that this law has been a dead letter, though its importance cannot fail to be acknowledged. The act is as follows:

That every person, in the said District of Columbia, having under his or her control a child between the ages of eight and fourteen years, shall annually, during the continuance of such control, send such child to some public school in that part of said district in which he or she shall at the time reside, at least twelve weeks, six of which shall be consecutive; and for the neglect of such duty, the party offending shall forfeit to the use of the school of that portion of said district in which he or she shall reside, a sum not exceeding twenty dollars, to be recovered before any justice of the peace of the said district: *Provided*, That if it be made to appear to said justice that the party so offending was not able, for any cause, to send such child to school, or that such child has been attending any other school for a like period of time, or that such child, by reason of bodily or mental infirmity, was not fit to attend such school, such penalty shall not be enforced.

On the 28th of July, 1866, an appropriation was made by Congress as follows: "For the payment in part for the purchase of sites and the erection of school-houses in the county of Washington, in the District of Columbia, payable to the board of commissioners of primary schools of said county, the sum of *ten thousand dollars*." This sum, and additional sums raised by taxation and income from fines, have enabled the commissioners to build a sufficient number of comfortable school-houses, upon lots of their own, of from one-half to a whole acre.

General summary of school and other statistics of the County.

POPULATION.

I.—1. Whites, males	2,983
females	2,720
Total	5,703

2.—Colored, males		1,855
females		1,587
Total		3,442
Grand total		9,145
II.—Number of children between 6 and 18:		
1. White, males		767
females		727
Total		1,494
2. Colored, males		507
females		444
Total		951
Grand total		2,445
III.—Number of blind:		
Males	4	
Females	2	
		6
Number of blind between 6 and 18		0
IV.—Number of deaf and dumb:		
Males	80	
Females	30	
		110
Number of deaf and dumb in Columbia Institution, males	75	
females	30	
		105
V.—Number of schools in buildings owned by the county, for whites		8
Number of schools in buildings owned by the county, for colored		7
VI.—Average number of pupils first four months of 1867:		
1. Whites, males		180
females		176
Total		356
2. Colored, males		168
females		155
Total		323
Grand total		679
VII.—Whole number of school sittings:		
1. White		481
2. Colored		450
Total		931
VIII.—Number of teachers for white schools		8
Number of teachers for colored schools		7
Total		15
IX.—Cost of supporting public schools one year:		
1. Amount of teachers' wages, white		$5,860
Amount of contingencies, white		1,917
Amount of improvements, white		1,000
Total cost of white schools		8,777

2. Amount of teachers' wages, colored	4,080
Amount of contingencies	1,278
Amount of improvements	4,002
Total	9,360
Grand total of expenses	18,137
X.—Amount of school property:	
White	$11,444
Colored	7,500
Total	18,944
XI.—Whole amount of taxable property	$5,666,351
Whole amount of taxes	$5,500
Number of tax-payers, personal and real	800

5. SCHOOLS FOR COLORED CHILDREN.

The colored population of the District of Columbia, excluding the portion ceded back to Virginia in 1846, as shown by the successive enumeration of the inhabitants, was as follows:

Year.	Free.	Slaves.	Total.
In 1800	783	3,244	4,027
In 1810	1,572	3,554	5,126
In 1820	2,854	4,520	7,374
In 1830	4,604	4,505	9,109
In 1840	6,499	3,120	9,619
In 1850	10,059	3,687	13,746
In 1860	11,131	3,185	14,316
In 1867	38,663	....	38,663

This sudden increase of the colored population of the District from 1860 to 1867, and the entire disappearance of slaves as a class in the census of 1867, are the results of the war of the rebellion of 1861, which brought large numbers of slaves within the Union lines for protection, and which in its progress led to a law, entitled "An act for the release of certain persons held to service or labor in the District of Columbia," approved April 16, 1862.

Under its provisions, loyal persons, owning slaves residing at the time in the District, might within ninety days, present claims for compensation for slaves emancipated by the act; and three commissioners were appointed to carry its provisions into effect. A supplementary act was passed July 12, 1862.

The report of the commissioners (*Executive Doc. No. 42, 38th Congress, 1st session,*) gives a full statement of their transactions in the performance of this duty, of which the following were the general results:

Petitions received claiming compensation	966
Number of slaves for whom compensation was claimed	3,100
Petitions favorably acted upon	901
Petitions rejected wholly	36
Petitions rejected in part	21
Number of servants for whom pay was allowed	2,989
Number for whom pay was withheld	111

Under the supplementary act, 161 petitions were received, of which 139 were granted and 22 rejected. The average sum allowed was limited to $300 for each slave.

No public provision for the education of colored children was made until the act of Congress, approved May 21, 1862. Prior to that various efforts, going back as far as 1814,* to establish schools for free children of color had been made by benevolent persons, but only embracing a very small portion of the children of that class who were of suitable age. And even the few schools which existed in 1835 were closed by a mob, (a portion of that moral epidemic, which prevailed so disgracefully in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, about the same time,) who demolished a number of buildings used for the education of colored children, utterly destroying the school furniture and threatening prominent men of color, while ransacking and plundering their homes in quest of incendiary papers. The individuals, most of them whites and delicate women, who had charge of these schools which were thus violently closed, did not resume their work; but in 1836 John F. Cook, a colored man, opened a school which was continued by him, with an average daily attendance of one hundred pupils, till his death in 1856, and then continued by his two sons, one of whom has now a school of one hundred and twenty-five pupils near the Capitol.

In 1852 Miss Myrtella Miner, impressed with the duty of educating a neglected class of female colored children, resigned a position as teacher in a private family at the south and devoted herself, with her limited resources, to the founding of an institution in Washington for the better training of such persons in domestic economy and mode of teaching, as well as in the rudiments of science. Although her enterprise met with discouragement, she persevered; a site of three acres was obtained, and a fund partially collected for the erection of suitable buildings to accommodate one hundred and fifty pupils with class-rooms, and to board such as came from abroad. This school was incorporated by Congress, March 3, 1863, under the name of "The Institution for the Education of Colored Youth," but has not yet gone into operation.

At the breaking out of the late war numerous schools were opened by benevolent persons and associations; but the number of children to be educated was soon too large to be provided for by individual or associated benevolence, and Congress, by an act approved May 20, 1862, and more effectually, an act passed July 11, 1862, made provision for this object. By this last act three persons named therein and their successors in office were created a board of trustees for the schools for colored children in the cities of Washington and Georgetown, into whose hands the municipal authorities of those cities were required to pay ten per cent. of all taxes levied on property owned by persons of color for the support of schools for the children of this portion of the population. By a subsequent act passed on the 25th of June, 1864, and the 23d of July, 1866, the proportionate part—such a proportion as the colored children between six and seventeen bear to all the children between the same ages—of all money received or expended for school or educational purposes by the cities of Georgetown and Washington, shall be paid over to the trustees of schools for colored children to be used by them for such schools. From the report of these trustees, dated November 1, 1867, it appears that these acts have not been executed in a prompt and liberal spirit.

Owing to the refusal of the corporation of Washington to execute the several acts of Congress relating to colored schools, according to their true intent and meaning, the amount

* The first school for the education of colored children, so far as is known, was opened in Georgetown by Mr. Henry Potter, an Englishman, in 1814, which was continued for several years with about thirty pupils, when there were at that time at least 1,000 children of the proper school age. The second school was opened by Mrs. Billings, an English lady, in Georgetown, in 1815, and removed to Washington in the year following. The third school was opened in Georgetown, in 1822, and subsequently removed and continued in Washington, with an average attendance of about ninety pupils. Some notices of these and subsequent efforts to establish schools for colored children, furnished by Mr. Cook, whose father and brother have been connected with these schools since 1836, will be found in the Appendix, together with an account of them.

of funds received by the trustees has been small, and their operations necessarily limite In order, however, to make the most of what they did receive they have combined th action with that of the Freedmen's Bureau and the northern benevolent associations, wl kindly sent hither and paid a large number of teachers during the entire school year. Th fact enabled the trustees to use most of their means to purchase and secure for the use colored schools, through future time, several sites for school-houses, and erect on two them good and substantial brick buildings, capable of accommodating one thousand scholar There are now four good school-houses for colored schools in Washington, and one Georgetown, together, having capacity for 2,250 children. It has been the desire of tl trustees to secure a sufficient number of sites for school-houses while they can be had reasonable prices and in proper localities, which it is found, even now, almost impossible do, on account of the prejudice of many property-holders against having colored schools their neighborhood, as well as the scarcity of lots of sufficient size on sale for such purpose.

It will be seen by the treasurer's report, a copy of which is herewith enclosed, that tl total amount expended during the year is $17,976 12, and that the receipts, including balan on hand October 31, 1866, $2,289 22, and amount paid them by General O. O. Howar Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, $2,500—are $16,232 64, leaving a balance $1,743 48 due the treasurer, which sum he has advanced, and awaits the action of the co poration of Washington for reimbursement.*

The number of schools supported entirely by the trustees during the year was seve and for a portion of the time ten. There were sixty-seven schools supported by northe associations at an expense of $40,000. Fuel and rooms for many of these schools we provided and paid for by the trustees, and other expenses were incurred by reason of th operation. These associations are now paying twenty-seven teachers, and two more a expected to open schools during the present month. The average attendance was abo forty-five to each school. The progress of the pupils was even greater than the most sa guine had anticipated, many showing the possession of intellectual faculties to a remarkal degree, and proving beyond controversy the falsity of the assertion, so often repeated, th the colored race are not susceptible or capable of being educated and exalted beyond th degraded condition when held as slaves. For the present year thirty-two teachers have be employed from October 1. All the schools have been commenced under very favoral auspices, and all promise most flattering results. If, as before stated, the trustees recei the arrearages due them, a much larger number of teachers will be employed to the end the school year.

In consequence of the large number of children, white and colored, brought to the capi by reasons of the operations of the government, the parents of whom, being temporary re dents, own no property and pay no taxes, but whose children should and must be educate it is deemed but right and proper that Congress render some aid in keeping up a pro system of public schools. It is not just to require the taxpayers alone to support it. Mo than half the white children attending school in this city, it is estimated, are the sons a daughters of transient persons in government employ, and a much larger proportion colored children belong to families recently slaves, who, of course, pay nothing into the c treasury, and are totally unable to contribute anything to the cause of education. Whi the government has been liberal in its support of the schools in the States nothing has ev been done by it where Congress has the power to exclusive legislation. May we not ventu to ask you to call the attention of Congress to this subject, and to suggest that an ann appropriation of one-half the sum needed for school purposes in this district be made, co ditioned on the raising of an equal amount by the cities of Washington and Georgetown, a the Levy Court of the county of Washington, to be apportioned between the three jur dictions, according to the population of each? In view of the fact that the aid furnished the Freedmen's Bureau and by the northern benevolent associations will be withdrawn af the present year, and that no schools for white or colored children will be sustained in t district, excepting such as are supported by the citizens thereof, it is deemed very importa that this matter be urged upon the attention of Congress at the coming session.

The statistics of these schools are included in the preceding summaries, a in the following general summary for the District:

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* General Howard advanced $5,000 toward the erection of the school-houses on the Isla and on O street, $2,500 of which was paid to the treasurer, and $2,500 directly to the co tractors, Messrs. Litchfield, Williams & Hunt.

6. GENERAL SUMMARY OF POPULATION AND SCHOOLS IN THE DISTRICT.

Statistical classification.	Washing'n.	Georgeto'n.	County.	Total.
I.—Aggregate population:				
1.—Whites, males	37,700	4,120	2,983	44,803
females	36,415	4,389	2,720	43,524
Total	74,115	8,509	5,703	88,327
2.—Colored, males	14,389	1,410	1,855	17,654
females	17,548	1,874	1,587	21,009
Total	31,937	3,284	3,442	38,663
Total population	106,052	11,793	9,145	126,990
II.—Number of persons between 6 and 18:				
1.—Whites, males	8,786	1,030	767	10,583
females	9,015	1,122	727	10,864
Total	17,801	2,152	1,494	21.447
2.—Colored, males	3,798	383	507	4,088
females	4,603	511	444	5,558
Total	8,401	894	951	10,246
Grand total	26,202	3,046	2,445	31,693
III.—Number of persons between 5 and 20:				
1.—Whites, males	11,331	1,332	1,020	13,683
females	12,277	1,507	957	14,741
Total	23,608	2,839	1,977	28,424
2.—Colored, males	5,032	483	664	6,184
females	6,516	682	564	7,762
Total	11,548	1,170	1,228	13,946
Grand total	35,156	4,009	3,205	42,370
IV.—Number of children under 5 years:				
1.—Whites, males	4,741	543	315	5,598
females	4,614	548	278	5,440
Total	9,355	1,091	592	11,038
2.—Colored, males	1,617	167	192	1,976
females	1,599	189	206	1,994
Total	3,216	356	398	3,970
Grand total	12,571	1,447	990	15,008
V.—Number of blind, (males 22, females 27)	35	8	6	49
Number between 6 and 18, (males 5, females 5)	9	1	....	10
VI.—Number of deaf and dumb, (males 105, females 55)	41	9	110	160
Number of deaf and dumb between 6 and 18, (males 85, females 41.)	19	2	105	126
VII.—Public schools:				
1.—No. of buildings owned by the city, (for whites)	44	8	9	60
2.—No. of buildings rented by the city, (for whites)	44	....	....	44
3.—No. of buildings owned by the city, (for colored)	23	8	7	38
4.—No. of buildings from Freed's Bur'u, (for col'd)	26	....	....	26
VIII.—Average number of pupils first four months 1867:				
1.—Whites, males	2,526	190	180	2,896
females	2,105	172	176	2,453
Total	4,631	362	356	5,349
2.—Colored, males	1,204	160	168	1,532
females	1,211	173	155	1,539
Total	2,415	333	323	3,071
Grand total	7,046	695	679	8,420
IX.—Whole number of school sittings, (white)	5,010	480	481	6.001
Whole number of school sittings, (colored)	2,618	438	304	3,260
Total number of school sittings	7,658	918	785	9,561

of funds received by the trustees has been small, and their operations necessarily limited. In order, however, to make the most of what they did receive they have combined their action with that of the Freedmen's Bureau and the northern benevolent associations, who kindly sent hither and paid a large number of teachers during the entire school year. This fact enabled the trustees to use most of their means to purchase and secure for the use of colored schools, through future time, several sites for school-houses, and erect on two of them good and substantial brick buildings, capable of accommodating one thousand scholars. There are now four good school-houses for colored schools in Washington, and one in Georgetown, together, having capacity for 2,250 children. It has been the desire of the trustees to secure a sufficient number of sites for school-houses while they can be had at reasonable prices and in proper localities, which it is found, even now, almost impossible to do, on account of the prejudice of many property-holders against having colored schools in their neighborhood, as well as the scarcity of lots of sufficient size on sale for such a purpose.

It will be seen by the treasurer's report, a copy of which is herewith enclosed, that the total amount expended during the year is $17,976 12, and that the receipts, including balance on hand October 31, 1866, $2,289 22, and amount paid them by General O. O. Howard, Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, $2,500—are $16,232 64, leaving a balance of $1,743 48 due the treasurer, which sum he has advanced, and awaits the action of the corporation of Washington for reimbursement.*

The number of schools supported entirely by the trustees during the year was seven, and for a portion of the time ten. There were sixty-seven schools supported by northern associations at an expense of $40,000. Fuel and rooms for many of these schools were provided and paid for by the trustees, and other expenses were incurred by reason of their operation. These associations are now paying twenty-seven teachers, and two more are expected to open schools during the present month. The average attendance was about forty-five to each school. The progress of the pupils was even greater than the most sanguine had anticipated, many showing the possession of intellectual faculties to a remarkable degree, and proving beyond controversy the falsity of the assertion, so often repeated, that the colored race are not susceptible or capable of being educated and exalted beyond their degraded condition when held as slaves. For the present year thirty-two teachers have been employed from October 1. All the schools have been commenced under very favorable auspices, and all promise most flattering results. If, as before stated, the trustees receive the arrearages due them, a much larger number of teachers will be employed to the end of the school year.

In consequence of the large number of children, white and colored, brought to the capital by reasons of the operations of the government, the parents of whom, being temporary residents, own no property and pay no taxes, but whose children should and must be educated, it is deemed but right and proper that Congress render some aid in keeping up a proper system of public schools. It is not just to require the taxpayers alone to support it. More than half the white children attending school in this city, it is estimated, are the sons and daughters of transient persons in government employ, and a much larger proportion of colored children belong to families recently slaves, who, of course, pay nothing into the city treasury, and are totally unable to contribute anything to the cause of education. Whilst the government has been liberal in its support of the schools in the States nothing has ever been done by it where Congress has the power to exclusive legislation. May we not venture to ask you to call the attention of Congress to this subject, and to suggest that an annual appropriation of one-half the sum needed for school purposes in this district be made, conditioned on the raising of an equal amount by the cities of Washington and Georgetown, and the Levy Court of the county of Washington, to be apportioned between the three jurisdictions, according to the population of each? In view of the fact that the aid furnished by the Freedmen's Bureau and by the northern benevolent associations will be withdrawn after the present year, and that no schools for white or colored children will be sustained in the district, excepting such as are supported by the citizens thereof, it is deemed very important that this matter be urged upon the attention of Congress at the coming session.

The statistics of these schools are included in the preceding summaries, and in the following general summary for the District:

* General Howard advanced $5,000 toward the erection of the school-houses on the Island and on O street, $2,500 of which was paid to the treasurer, and $2,500 directly to the contractors, Messrs. Litchfield, Williams & Hunt.

6. GENERAL SUMMARY OF POPULATION AND SCHOOLS IN THE DISTRICT.

Statistical classification.	Washing'n.	Georgeto'n.	County.	Total.
I.—Aggregate population:				
1.—Whites, males	37, 700	4, 120	2, 983	44, 803
females	36, 415	4, 389	2, 720	43, 524
Total	74, 115	8, 509	5, 703	88, 327
2.—Colored, males	14, 389	1, 410	1, 855	17, 654
females	17, 548	1, 874	1, 587	21, 009
Total	31, 937	3, 284	3, 442	38, 663
Total population	106, 052	11, 793	9, 145	126, 990
II.—Number of persons between 6 and 18:				
1.—Whites, males	8, 786	1, 030	767	10,583
females	9, 015	1, 122	727	10,864
Total	17,801	2, 152	1, 494	21,447
2.—Colored, males	3, 798	383	507	4, 688
females	4, 603	511	444	5, 558
Total	8, 401	894	951	10, 246
Grand total	26,202	3, 046	2, 445	31,693
III.—Number of persons between 5 and 20:				
1.—Whites, males	11, 331	1, 332	1, 020	13, 683
females	12, 277	1, 507	957	14, 741
Total	23, 608	2, 839	1, 977	28, 424
2.—Colored, males	5, 032	483	664	6, 184
females	6, 516	682	564	7, 762
Total	11, 548	1, 170	1, 228	13, 946
Grand total	35, 156	4, 009	3, 205	42, 370
IV.—Number of children under 5 years:				
1.—Whites, males	4, 741	543	315	5, 598
females	4, 614	548	278	5, 440
Total	9, 355	1, 091	592	11, 038
2.—Colored, males	1, 617	167	192	1, 976
females	1, 599	189	206	1, 994
Total	3, 216	356	398	3, 970
Grand total	12, 571	1, 447	990	15, 008
V.—Number of blind, (males 22, females 27)	35	8	6	49
Number between 6 and 18, (males 5, females 5)	9	1	....	10
VI.—Number of deaf and dumb, (males 105, females 55)	41	9	110	160
Number of deaf and dumb between 6 and 18, (males 85, females 41.)	19	2	105	126
VII.—Public schools:				
1.—No. of buildings owned by the city, (for whites)	44	8	9	60
2.—No. of buildings rented by the city, (for whites)	44	....	....	44
3.—No. of buildings owned by the city, (for colored)	23	8	7	38
4.—No. of buildings from Freed's Bur'u, (for col'd)	26	....	....	26
VIII.—Average number of pupils first four months 1867:				
1.—Whites, males	2, 526	190	180	2, 896
females	2, 105	172	176	2, 453
Total	4, 631	362	356	5, 349
2.—Colored, males	1, 204	160	168	1, 532
females	1, 211	173	155	1, 539
Total	2, 415	333	323	3, 071
Grand total	7, 046	695	679	8, 420
IX.—Whole number of school sittings, (white)	5, 040	480	481	6. 001
Whole number of school sittings, (colored)	2, 618	438	304	3, 360
Total number of school sittings	7, 658	918	785	9, 361

General summary, &c.—Continued.

Statistical classification.	Washing'n.	Georgeto'n.	County.	Total.
X.—Number of teachers, (white, male 6, female 83)	89	8	8	105
Number of teachers, (colored, females)	49	8	7	[illegible]4
Total number of public school teachers	138	16	15	1[illegible]
XI.—Cost of supporting public schools for year 1867:				
1.—Amount of teachers' wages for white schools	$46, 716	$3, 904	$5, 860	....
2.—Amount of salaries of treasurer and clerk	700	....	....	....
3.—Amount of incidentals for white schools, viz:	....	547	....	....
a.—For repairs, &c. $27, 521 29	....	642	....	....
b.—For new buildings 20, 720 43	....	....	....	....
c.—For rents of rooms 11, 000 00	....	....	....	....
d.—For printing 553 99	59, 796	....	....	....
Total expenditures for white schools	107, 212	5, 093	8, 777	$121, 0[illegible]2
4.—Amount of teachers' wages for colored schools	$21, 255	$3, 660	$4, 080	$28, 9[illegible]
5.—Amount of incidentals for colored schools	9, 266	1, 590	1, 278	12, 0[illegible]
6.—Amount paid for new buildings and lots for colored schools.	24, 975	....	4, 002	28, 977
*Total expenditures	55, 496	5, 160	9, 360	70, 016
Grand total of expenditures	$162, 708	$10, 253	$18, 137	$191, [illegible]98
XII.—Amount of public school property	$189, 000	$16, 000	$18, 914	$223, 944
XIII.—1.—Amount of taxable property	$44, 032, 592	$5, 641, 936	$5, 666, 351	$55, 340, 8[illegible]
2.—Amount of taxes, personal and real	687, 569	5, 400	5, 500	698, 46[illegible]
3.—Number of taxpayers	10, 050	991	800	11, 841

7. PRIVATE AND INCORPORATED SCHOOLS.

There are several grades of private schools in the cities of Washington and Georgetown. Five or six of the boys' schools sustain a high character, and have many of the advantages of the high schools of other cities. In them young men are thoroughly trained and fitted for college and positions of usefulness.

There are also about the same number of girls' schools, where young ladies have an opportunity to pursue the higher grades of studies, in some instances, with thoroughness and success.

There are a few other male and female schools, which rank about as high as the public grammar schools, but much the largest portion of them are no better than the lowest public primary schools, and are taught, in many instances, by persons who have no higher claims for patronage than their pecuniary necessities.

In connection with the Columbian, Gonzaga, and Georgetown colleges, there are schools of an advanced character, where the higher branches of preparatory study are pursued to fit young men for college and other important positions in life.

The following statistics of private schools relate to *unincorporated* institutions, and schools avowedly parochial, as well as those connected more or less directly with religious denominations. An account of the incorporated institu-

* According to the report of Professor A. E. Newton, superintendent of the colored schools of Washington and Georgetown, not less than $40,000 have been furnished by charitable associations at the north, to aid in supporting the colored schools for the year ending June 30, 1867. A large portion of the teachers have been sent on by these associations, and as a general thing they have proved themselves efficient, and their labors have been successful. During the current year about thirty of the schools out of the fifty-seven are sustained by the trustees of colored schools, out of funds furnished by the cities of Washington and Georgetown.

tions (Georgetown College, Columbian College, Gonzaga College, and the Ladies' Academy of the Visitation, at Georgetown) will be given in the appendix.

Incorporated schools.

A summary of the number of students during the year ending June 30, 1867, in the following named colleges of the District, not included in the general summary given before of public and private schools, is as follows:

	Whole number.	Belonging to District of Columbia.
COLUMBIAN COLLEGE.		
1. Academic students	212	128
2. Law students	198	35
3. Medical students	29	11
Total	439	174
GONZAGA COLLEGE.		
Academic students, which includes all	299	299
GEORGETOWN COLLEGE.		
1. Academic students	290	......
2. Medical students	124	......
Total	414	94
Total for the three colleges	1,152	567

As appears from the above table a large number of the students in these colleges do not belong to the District of Columbia.

Orphan asylums.

The following named orphan asylums afford educational facilities to many children not reckoned in the tables of school statistics, which diminishes the real number of children of school age not attending the public or private schools, though many of the children of the asylums are under the school age of six years—how many it has not been ascertained:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Protestant Orphan Asylum	43	54	97
St. Joseph's Catholic Orphan Asylum	66	......	66
St. Ann's Catholic Orphan Asylum	15	23	38
St. Vincent's Catholic Orphan Asylum	......	151	151
National Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphan Home	22	20	42
Colored orphans	26	11	37
Total number of orphans in institutions	172	259	431

*General summary of private schools in the District.**

	Washington.	Georgetown.	Total.
I.—Number of private elementary schools:			
1. White schools	78	21	99
2. Colored schools	7	....	7
Total number of schools	85	21	106
II.—Number of private school teachers:			
1. Of white schools	157	30	187
2. Of colored schools	7	....	7
Total number of teachers	164	30	194
III.—Number of pupils in private schools:			
1. Whites, males	2,335	420	2,755
females	2,382	215	2,597
Total number of pupils, white	4,717	635	5,352
2. Colored, males	66	....	66
females	166	....	166
Total number of pupils, colored	232	....	232
Grand total of private pupils	4,949	635	5,584
IV.—Cost of supporting private schools:†			
1. For white private schools	$110,389	$19,500	$129,889
2. For colored private schools	3,030	....	3,030
Total cost of private schools	113,419	19,500	132,919

8. SCHOOL-HOUSES, FURNITURE, AND LIBRARIES.

Washington city.

In the city of Washington there are ten brick buildings in which are accommodated twenty-eight schools with sixty scholars each. One of these, called the Wallach building, is well arranged to accommodate ten schools, and is situated near the Navy Yard. Very few school buildings in the country present a better external appearance than this, and its internal accommodations are very good, though not equal to its appearance. In this building, as in many others of considerable pretensions, the outside appearance has been regarded at the expense of internal fitness and convenience, though at present it is decidedly superior to any other in the city. It has a capacious assembling hall, and, what is very essential to a school building in a city, it is surrounded with a plenty of ground, enclosed, for out-door exercises. This building and lot cost the city some $40,000, which may be considered an economical expenditure. Of the other brick buildings, two accommodate three schools each; and only one of these two may be considered a suitable building for school purposes, and this was built originally for an engine-house, situated at the corner of Sixth street west and New York avenue. The other, situated on Third street

* No private schools in the county.

† The cost of private institutions, on account of indefinite reports, is partly made up from careful estimates.

east, is an old market, transformed, or rather converted, into a school-house, with very little transformation. Three other brick buildings were built for schools, and accommodate two schools each, in a comfortable manner; though they lack the conveniences of modern school architecture. One of these is situated in the second ward, one in the fourth, and one in the seventh ward. The other brick buildings owned by the city were all built for some other purpose than for schools. The wooden buildings owned by the city are frail, cheaply built, one story, and in most cases destitute of the proper appliances and comforts of good school-houses.

The rented buildings, in which are accommodated one-half of the white schools of the city, are some of them made of brick, and some of wood; and though a few of them are well located and comfortable, very many of them are badly located, uncomfortable, and, in some cases, unsightly structures. In consequence of the greatly increased population and increased demand for school accommodations, without a corresponding increase of property and pecuniary means, the city has been less able to provide more and better accommodations, than many cities of less population.

There is, however, in process of erection in the second ward, at the corner of Thirteenth street west and K, a very excellent and commodious building, called the "Franklin School Building," which will rank with the best structures of the kind in the country, and will cost not far from $100,000. The trustees hope to have it ready for occupancy by the 1st of September, 1868.

It is proper to state here, that, so far as there may be any deficiency in the character and location of the public school buildings of this city, it is not owing to any neglect or want of interest on the part of those gentlemen who are now or who have been trustees. On the contrary, the history and condition of the schools show that the trustees have made use of every means in their power, in the most economical, laborious and efficient manner, and that their labors have been attended with marked success; for, while they have not been provided with means for building a sufficient number of good school-houses, they have not failed to supply the best kind of school furniture for even the miserable rooms, in some cases, they have been obliged to occupy.

Besides, it should be said, to the credit of the trustees, that they have provided their schools with as good teachers as will be found, on an average, in the schools of many of our most favored cities. In fact, on visiting some of the school-rooms, and beholding the beautiful school furniture, and the accomplished and fine-looking teachers in charge of them, one cannot fail to be struck with an unpleasant contrast between the buildings and their contents.

Buildings for colored schools.

The trustees of the colored schools of this city have been enabled, by the aid of money received from the city and from the Freedmen's Bureau, to build several very commodious, though plain, school buildings, three or four of which will accommodate eight schools each. Two of these are good brick buildings, which, though lacking architectural beauty or display, and, to some extent, proper accommodations, are convenient, and meet a pressing demand. Many of the other buildings occupied by colored schools are of an inferior and forbidding character, as they are located in unpleasant and, in some instances, unhealthy localities.

School buildings in Georgetown.

For the white schools there are but two buildings, one of which was formerly a small brick church, now fitted up with four very convenient and appropriate school-rooms; and the other built of wood in a very neat and substantial man-

ner, having two large rooms, with two schools in each; or one double-school, with a principal and assistant teacher.

There is but one building for colored schools, built of wood, in a very plain but convenient manner, which accommodates eight schools in as many rooms.

School buildings in the county.

The school buildings of the county are all new, or have been built within a few years. They are neat, plain structures, with one room in each, except that at Uniontown, which has one room for males and one for females. These buildings are all built of wood, and are located upon lots sufficiently large to furnish ample play-ground; and most of the lots are enclosed with neat, substantial fences. Though these buildings are scattered over a large surface, they furnish quite as good accommodations as are found among our most favored country towns.

School furniture.

In nearly all the school buildings of the District occupied by whites will be found the most approved kind of school furniture, after the Boston or Philadelphia patterns; but the colored schools are mainly supplied with home-made, pine furniture, which, it is just to say, is generally very neat and convenient.

School libraries.

There has been no special provision of any kind for school libraries. There are two or three schools, however, in which there is a small collection of books, made without much reference to the real wants of the pupils; but no arrangements are made to secure their circulation or reading. There are but few books of reference for the teachers, and no documents relating to the schools of other cities for the members of the board.

9. TEXT-BOOKS AND STUDIES.

There is a good degree of uniformity in the text-books used in the public schools, for both white and colored children, and, to a great extent, they are the same as are used in the larger cities of our country. As to their relative character there may be differences of opinion, but of all it may be said that they have been prepared by authors of reputation. The text-books in the private schools are much more variable than those of the public schools, though the standard works are nearly the same in both classes of schools.

The following tables exhibit the different studies pursued in the public schools, together with the number of pupils pursuing each kind:

Studies and text-books in schools for white children.

The following table gives the number of pupils in each study:

Names of studies, &c.	Washington.	Georgetown.	County.	Total.
1. Arithmetic, mental	3,545	192	162	3,899
written	3,048	126	182	3,356
2. Astronomy, (one school)	19	....	....	19
3. Algebra, (one school)	40	2	....	42
4. Botany, (one school)	18	....	....	18
5. Book-keeping, (three schools)	36	....	....	36
6. Composition	305	....	10	315
7. Constitution of the United States	264	7	1	272
8. Drawing	120	....	8	128
9. English grammar	946	116	93	1,155
10. Common geography	2,166	208	153	2,527
11. Physical geography	141	....	....	141
12. Gymnastics	2,161	....	....	2,161
13. History of the United States	489	75	11	575
14. Music, vocal	3,806	212	50	4,068
15. Natural philosophy	53	....	....	53
16. Object lessons	96	....	....	96
17. Penmanship	3,727	260	237	4,224
18. Reading	4,471	350	384	5,205
19. Rhetoric	20	....	....	20
20. Spelling	4,456	370	392	5,218
21. Mensuration, (one school)	10	....	....	10

Studies and text-books in schools for colored children.

Names of studies, &c.	Washington.	Georgetown.	County.	Total.
1. Arithmetic, mental	1,933	323	240	2,496
written	903	167	45	1,115
2. Astronomy	....	....	....	....
3. Algebra	....	....	....	....
4. Botany	....	....	....	....
5. Book-keeping	....	....	....	....
6. Composition	....	....	....	....
7. Constitution of the United States	....	....	....	....
8. Drawing	....	....	56	56
9. English grammar	313	32	16	361
10. Common geography	1,628	328	144	2,100
11. Physical geography	....	....	....	....
12. Gymnastics	432	....	....	432
13. History of the United States	216	16	....	232
14. Music, vocal	1,788	135	151	2,074
15. Natural philosophy	....	....	....	....
16. Object lessons	....	122	....	122
17. Penmanship	659	167	120	946
18. Reading	2,404	342	378	3,124
19. Rhetoric	....	....	....	....
20. Spelling	2,371	842	388	3,101

10. GENERAL RESULTS.

From the foregoing account of the several systems of schools now in operation it will be seen that there are now in operation four distinct and independent school organizations of what are called Public Schools in the District of Columbia.

In the city of Washington there are the white schools, under the direction of twelve trustees who are nominated by the mayor and confirmed by the aldermen. In the city of Georgetown the white schools are under the control of a board of guardians, seven in number, who are appointed by the joint action of the two boards of common council.

In the cities of Washington and Georgetown together there is also an organization of colored schools under the control of three trustees appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, who, by act of Congress, receive their funds for the support of these schools from the treasuries of each of said cities in proportion to the relative number of white and colored children between six and eighteen years of age. Although the city authorities furnish the money they have no control of its expenditure, nor of the officers who are charged with its expenditure. There is another organization of schools in the county under the direction of seven commissioners who are appointed by the levy court of the District of Columbia, and who are to provide schools for both the white and colored children.

In view of such a variety of systems, controlled by different and independent bodies, it cannot be reasonably expected that there could be that unity of effort and efficiency of operation which could be easily and economically obtained in a portion of territory so limited, and subject to the exclusive control of Congress.

It is proper to say, that in spite of all these disadvantages, which could all be removed by a proper consolidation of the different systems, there is a commendable degree of efficiency in each of the said organizations. In Washington, particularly, while the range of studies is limited or mostly confined to the most common branches, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and geography, it is believed that these fundamental branches are as thoroughly taught and understood by the pupils, as in any other city. It is, however, important and necessary that the range of studies should be extended so as to meet the demands of the age for that higher education which is provided in all the principal cities of the country.

In neither of the above-named systems is there any provision for a general superintendent, except by the trustees of the colored schools.

The following is the percentage of attendance and of accommodations:

1. In Washington—

White, $48\frac{5}{8}$ per cent. attend either public or private schools.
$24\frac{1}{10}$ per cent. attend public schools.
$24\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. attend private schools.
26 per cent. can be accommodated in public schools.
Colored, $31\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. attend public or private schools.
29 per cent. attend public schools.
31 per cent. can be accommodated in the public schools.

2. In Georgetown—

White, $46\frac{4}{5}$ per cent. attend either public or private schools.
$16\frac{4}{5}$ per cent. attend public schools.
30 per cent. attend private schools.
$22\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. can be accommodated in public schools.
Colored, $37\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. attend public schools.
50 per cent. can be accommodated in public schools.

3. In the county—

White, 24 per cent. attend public schools.
29 per cent. can be accommodated in public schools.
Colored, 33 per cent. attend public schools.
50 per cent. can be accommodated in public schools.

4. In the District as a whole—

White, 24 per cent. attend public schools.
23½ per cent. attend private schools.
Colored, 32 per cent. attend public schools.
2¼ per cent. attend private schools.

By comparing the returns of the late census of 1867, in relation to those under instruction, with the results of actual school visitation, an apparent discrepancy will be perceived, arising from the following considerations:

1st. The census report includes students of every grade, in every kind of school and institution; but this report, made as the result of actual visitation, aside from the census canvassers, includes only such public and private schools as may be called elementary, and not colleges nor law and medical schools.

2d. The census report includes every person who has attended any school for any portion of the year, greater or less, while the report of school visitation includes the whole amount of average attendance for the first four months of 1867; and the mode of keeping school records does not show the exact number of different persons who may have attended school for small portions of this period. No records are kept which will show how many different scholars are received into each and all of the different schools, who have not attended any other school of any kind during the year. This result could be gained by requiring each and every school to keep a record of only such scholars as have been in no other school during the year.

The cost of instructing each pupil, without including the cost of new buildings and lots, is as follows:

In Washington—

1. Public white schools, $18 67 per scholar.
2. Private white schools, $23 40 per scholar.
3. Public colored schools, $12 64 per scholar.

If the cost of improvements and new buildings is included, it will be as follows:

1. Public white schools, $23 12½ per scholar.
2. Public colored schools, $23 00 per scholar.

In Georgetown—

1. Public white schools, $13 per scholar.
2. Private white schools, $30 70 per scholar.
3. Public colored schools, $15 50 per scholar

In the county—

1. Public white schools, $21 84 per scholar.
2. Public colored schools, $16 60.

In making out the cost of private schools, the whole amount of receipts is included, without reference to expenditures.

The cost per scholar varies in different schools materially; from $100 per year, of which there are very few, down to $12; and in a few, to nothing. It will be observed that the number of teachers in private schools, in proportion to the number of scholars taught, is nearly *double* that of the public schools.

The policy of renting school buildings has proved financially unwise in Washington, as it has in other cities. In this city the amount of rents, and the cost of fitting up rented buildings, is not far from the sum of $18,000, which, at six per cent., is the interest of $300,000, which would be sufficient to build four first-class school buildings, like the Franklin school now erecting near Frank-

lin square, large enough to accommodate twelve or fourteen schools, each of sixty pupils, or about 3,300 pupils in all, instead of 2,640, which can now be accommodated, at the same cost. In addition to the economical considerations of this policy, is that of health, comfort, and convenience. Instead of repulsive, unhealthy, and badly located school-rooms, the more economical policy of building appropriate school buildings would be seen at once, in the improved health of teachers and pupils, and in a large increase of attendance, for nothing tends so much to keep the larger portion of children of school-age out of our public schools as these same uncomfortable, ill-adapted, and unhealthy school-rooms.

As having an important bearing on the ability of the District to maintain a more liberal system of public schools, the number of real estate owners, renters, families, and voters, is given from the late census returns:

1. Owners of real estate—Whites, 6,485; Colored, 1,399—7,884.
2. Renters of houses—Whites, 8,895; Colored, 4,595—13,490.
3. Number of families—Whites, 16,254; Colored, 7,241—23,495.
4. Number of houses for families, 20,023.
5. Number of voters in the District, viz: Whites, 13,294; Colored, 6,648—19,942.

It will be seen from the census returns that out of 23,495 families, or of 126,990 persons in this District, only 7,884 own any real estate; and, as ascertained from the books of the assessors, there are only 11,841 who pay any tax personal or real.

Number unable to read or write in the District, over fifteen years old:

1. Unable to read—Whites, 1,812; Colored, 11,025.
2. Unable to write—Whites, 2,150; Colored, 12,615.*

Since the above survey of the condition of the public schools in the District was in type, a more searching inquiry has been instituted into the historical development of education in all its departments and agencies, and particularly into the efforts made by the colored population for the instruction of their children under difficulties the most formidable, and with results the most creditable to themselves. These results, with those of the still wider and larger efforts of benevolent associations in behalf of this oppressed race, and the legal status of the colored population in respect to schools in the different States, will be found in a separate paper in the appendix.

The large number of persons over fifteen years of age who cannot read and write, although easily accounted for in the case of the colored adults, most of whom were born in States where to be gathered together to receive instruction was a penal offence, is a fact not creditable to the country, and points out the necessity of an extension of the means of education for illiterate adults, not only in this District, but in every State, as will be seen from the tabulated statements of illiteracy in the appendix, compiled from the censuses of 1840, 1850, and 1860. Unless more efficient measures are taken to secure the attendance of children at school, the ranks of this immense army of over one million of adults are likely to be kept full. notwithstanding the liberal appropriations in our chief cities to establish schools for the free instruction of all children and youth.

* The large number of colored people unable to read and write is chiefly owing to the large number who came into the city during and in consequence of the rebellion, directly from the slave States, where it was made a crime to teach colored people to read and write, as the following extract from *Virginia laws* of 1847 shows: "Every assemblage of negroes for the purpose of instruction in reading and writing, or in the night time for any purpose, shall be an unlawful assembly." Again: "If a white person assemble with negroes for the purpose of instructing them to read and write, or if he associate with them in an unlawful assembly, he shall be confined in jail not exceeding six months and be fined not exceeding one hundred dollars." Laws similar to the above prevailed in most of the slave States.

III.—RELATIVE EFFICIENCY OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

1. OUTLINE OF SYSTEMS AND SUMMARY OF STATISTICS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

In the following brief survey of public instruction in the principal cities of the United States we have included the capital as well as the large commercial and manufacturing centres of each State, so far as we could procure the necessary information; although, for convenience of reference, they are introduced here in their aphabetical order.

ALBANY, *New York.*

The population of the city of Albany in 1860 was 62,367; in 1865 it was 62,613. The number of children over five and under sixteen years of age in 1862 was 15,750. The average daily attendance for the whole year in the public schools was 4,463. The amount expended for the support of the public schools in 1866 was $62,034 74.

The public schools, 15 in number, are placed by law under the care and management of the board of education, appointed by the common council.

The studies pursued in the schools include orthography, reading, geography, history, physiology, mental and written arithmetic, music, grammar, composition, algebra, geometry, and natural philosophy.

The number of teachers employed in the public schools in 1866 was 103—males, 18; females, 85. The number of persons between 5 and 21 years of age was 22,500. The number of free schools was 15; the number of private schools 75. The number of pupils attending private schools was 6,500. The average daily attendance in the public schools was 4,358. The number of volumes in the district library was 5,318, valued at $8,500. The value of the school-houses and lots was $220,000. The cost of the schools per scholar, on average attendance, was $14 23.

In 1867 a committee of the board of education, appointed in 1866 to inquire into the expediency of establishing a public high school, or free academy, under the control of the board, reported in favor of such an addition to the schools, and by a vote of the people such an academy is now (1868) in operation.

ANNAPOLIS, *Maryland.*

Annapolis, the capital of Maryland, had in 1860 a population of 4,529, which in 1867 was estimated to have increased to over 6,000.

The public schools consist of two primary schools, one for boys and the other for girls, with an aggregate attendance in 1867 of 300 pupils. No details furnished.

AUGUSTA, *Georgia.*

Augusta had in 1860 a population of 12,493, of which 8,830 (8,444 white and 386 black) were free. According to the report of the superintendent of public schools in 1867, there were 986 pupils enrolled in nine schools, with an average daily attendance of 542. No details as to salaries, studies, or expense.

AUGUSTA, *Maine.*

Augusta, the capital of the State of Maine, had in 1860 a population of 7,609. There are 23 district schools, besides a graded "village school," (in the higher department of which the classics and higher English branches are taught,) with an attendance of 3,632 pupils, maintained at an aggregate expense of $11,000, of which $5,000 were raised by special tax in the "village district."

BALTIMORE, *Maryland.*

The population of Baltimore in 1860 was 212,419. The number of white persons between the ages of 5 and 20 years, in 1866, was 60,945. The colored persons between the same ages numbered 8,091. The average daily attendance of pupils in all the public schools, evening schools excepted, for the year ending December 31, 1867, was 17,499.

The schools are under the control of a board of commissioners, appointed by the city council and commissioned by the mayor, consisting of twenty members, one for each ward. The officers of the board are a president, treasurer, superintendent, and secretary.

In 1867, the number of students in the City College was 302; average attendance 283. There are nine recitation rooms. The studies are English, parsing, analysis, rhetoric, composition, elocution, history, Constitution of the United States, writing, bookkeeping, natural philosophy, moral philosophy, physiology, chemistry, geometry, algebra, mensuration, surveying, astronomy, Latin, Greek, French, and German.

There are 10 colored primary schools; 25 male primary schools, and 31 female primary schools; 16 male grammar schools, 19 female grammar schools; 2 female high schools, and the Baltimore City College.

The City College is conducted by a principal and professor of mental and moral philosophy, with a salary of $2,200; a vice-principal and professor of the Greek and Latin languages, with a salary of $2,000; a professor of mathematics and astronomy, professor of mathematics, professor of rhetoric, a professor of natural science, and a professor of the English language and literature, with salaries of $1,800 each; and three other professors of writing, French and German languages, with salaries of $1,500 each.

In the high and grammar schools there are 48 male and 457 female teachers. The course of study in the female high schools embraces arithmetic, algebra, geometry, grammar, composition, astronomy, French, Constitution of the United States, moral philosophy, elocution, natural philosophy, botany, chemistry, universal history, history of the United States, physiology, English literature, physical geography, with reading, and orthography and etymology, besides two regular weekly lessons in music. The average attendance in the eastern female high school in 1866 was 220; graduates 33. The cost of books and stationery, $2,275 48. There are 9 teachers: 1 principal, male; 1 first assistant, female; and 7 female assistants. A professor of music attends twice a week for lessons in his department. The number of rooms for the accommodation of the school is 8; number of studies 21. The daily sessions are of five hours, from nine o'clock a. m. to two o'clock p. m. Each day is divided into six periods of three-quarters of an hour each, giving half an hour for recess. Fifty recitations are conducted each day, except Wednesday and Friday, when the music lessons added make fifty-six. The average attendance in the western female high school, in 1866, was 263; graduates 36. Cost of books and stationery, $1,512 61. The number of teachers, including the principal, is 11. The number of rooms is 11. In other respects the arrangements for the schools are similar to those of the eastern high school.

In the grammar schools the course of study includes reading, spelling, intellectual and written arithmetic, English grammar, history of the United States, geography, penmanship, natural philosophy, first lessons in algebra, composition, and English literature.

In the primary schools, commencing with alphabet cards and spelling, reading, mental arithmetic, primary geography, and grammar are included in the course.

The amount paid for salaries of teachers in all the schools, in 1866, was $197,502 33; for services of janitors, $7,566 93; for books and stationery, $34,349 42; and the whole amount expended was $325,665 60. The amount

expended for day schools only was $299,703 45, giving an average cost per pupil of $24 53. In 1867 the salaries of teachers for three-fourths of the year, ending December 31, amounted to $207,617 60; and the total expenses for schools for that period were $335,945 75. The special supervision of the schools is given to the superintendent, who devotes his whole time to the work.

BANGOR, *Maine.*

The city of Bangor contained a population of 16,407 in 1860. The number of pupils attending the public schools of the city in the summer term of 1866 was 3,499; the average attendance 2,840. The number attending in the winter term of 1866–'67 was 3,659; the average attendance 2,788.

The superintending school committee consists of six members. The schools under the charge of this committee are classified as suburban schools, and these are called district schools, of which there are twelve, each under the care of female teachers, some districts employing one and some two teachers. The next in order are the primary schools, of which there are 17; the next are mixed intermediate and primary, 4 in number; intermediate, 11; grammar schools, 2 for boys and 3 for girls; select, 1 for boys and 2 for girls, and the high school. The whole number of teachers employed was 72—males, 4; females, 68; principals, 59; assistants, 13.

The number of pupils in the high school during the summer term was 99; the average number, 94. The number in the winter term, 88; average number, 78. The percentage of attendance for the year in the high school was 98.

The advance in compensation of teachers for the last five years is 27 per cent. in the aggregate; that of the primary and intermediate school teachers has advanced 40 per cent. in that period. The whole amount of compensation to teachers for the year was $17,861 75; the total cost of the schools for the year, $22,642 56. Expense per scholar, on average attendance, $8 04.

With regard to the school-houses for the accommodation of the schools, the superintendent, in his report, says: "We have sufficient school-houses for the accommodation of all the pupils attending school, but several of the older ones are quite worn out, and unsuited to school purposes. They have done good service in their day, and are worthy of reverence, as monuments of the liberality of the time when they were looked upon with pride and complacency. But in size, arrangement, and style, as well as in material, they have outlived their time, and, with suitable marks of honor and respect, should now give place to worthier representatives of the educational requirements and architecture of the present day."

BOSTON, *Massachusetts.*

The population of the city of Boston, in 1860, was 177,840. The population in 1865 was 192,324, and by the accession of Roxbury, in 1867, the number of persons in the city between five and fifteen years of age May 1, 1865, was 34,902.

The average whole number of pupils belonging to schools of all grades during the year 1866 was 27,723; the average daily attendance in all the schools was 25,809; the average per cent. of attendance of all the schools was 93.35. In order to prevent truancy, four policemen, each having a salary of $1,200, are employed to look after children who are absent from school.

The school committee of Boston consists of the mayor, the president of the common council, and six persons from each of the twelve wards, who are chosen by the people, two being chosen each year in each ward, and holding their office for three years; seventy-two in all. They may choose a secretary and such subordinate officers as they may deem expedient, and shall define their duties and fix their respective salaries. They have the care and management of the public schools, and may elect such instructors as they think proper, and

remove the same when they consider it expedient. The president, at the first meeting of the board in each year, appoints, subject to the approval of the board, the following standing committees of five members each: on elections, rules and regulations, accounts, school-houses, salaries, text books, music, and printing; and the following, of thirteen members each, one to be selected from each of the twelve wards: on the Latin school, on the English high school, and on the girls' high and normal school. At all meetings of the committee the mayor, styled president, shall preside; in his absence the president of the common council, and in the absence of both a president *pro tem.* is chosen.

For convenience in the management of the primary and grammar schools, the city is divided into as many districts as it has grammar schools, and each district takes its name from the grammar school within its boundaries. The president appoints at the first meeting of the board in each year, and subject to its approval, a standing committee on each district, whose number, in each case, shall be proportionate to the number of schools in the district. The member first named on any committee shall be the chairman, except that the committee on the Latin, English, high, and girls' high and normal schools may severally elect their own chairman.

The number of districts into which the schools were grouped for supervision in 1866 was 21; number of high schools, 3—one Latin school for boys, one English high school for boys, and one high and normal school for girls; the number of grammar schools was 21—for boys 7, for girls 7, for boys and girls 7; the number of primary schools for boys and girls was 256; whole number of schools, 280; the number of teachers in high schools, 33—males 19, females 14; the number in grammar schools was 323—males 44, females 279; the number in primary schools was 257; the whole number of teachers was 612—males 66, females 547, regular teachers 594, special teachers 18. A new grammar school was added in 1867, called the Norcross grammar school, of course adding to the number of teachers given above.

The primary schools of Boston are arranged in six classes, the order of the exercises and lessons assigned to each class being determined by the teacher, subject, however, to the direction of the committee of the school. The studies of these schools are spelling, reading, the use of the primary school tablets, and Slate's & Eaton's primary arithmetic, oral lessons, singing and physical exercises throughout the course in these classes.

The grammar schools form the second grade in the system of public instruction. In them are taught the common branches of an English education. The schools for boys are each instructed by a master, a sub-master, an usher, a head assistant, and three or more female assistants.

The schools for girls are each instructed by a master, a head assistant for each story in the building, and three or more female assistants.

The mixed schools (boys and girls) are instructed by a master, a sub-master, a head assistant for each story in the building, and three or more female assistants. Each school is allowed a teacher for every fifty-six pupils on the register, and an additional female assistant may be appointed whenever there are thirty scholars above the complement for the teachers already in the school, if the district committee deem it expedient.

No lessons are assigned to girls to be studied out of school, and in the assigning out of school lessons to boys the instructors shall not assign a longer lesson daily than a boy of good capacity can acquire by an hour's study, nor are the lessons assigned in school to be so long as to require a scholar of ordinary capacity to study out of school in order to learn them, and no out of school lesson shall be assigned on Saturday.

Each school, or department of a school, is divided into four classes. Each class shall consist of two or more divisions, each of which sections shall pursue the same studies and use the text books assigned to its class.

In teaching arithmetic every teacher may use such books as he may deem proper, for the purpose of illustration and examples; but such books shall not be used to the exclusion or neglect of the prescribed text books. One treatise on mental arithmetic and one on written arithmetic, and no more, shall be used as text books in the grammar schools. Two half hours each weeks are devoted to the study and practice of music in the grammar schools. No scholars are permitted to remain in the first class in the grammar schools who are qualified to join the English high or the girls' high and normal school.

The English high school was instituted in 1821, with the design of furnishing the young men of the city who are not intended for a collegiate course of study, and who have enjoyed the advantages of the other public schools, with the means of completing a good English education and fitting themselves for all the departments of commercial life. The prescribed course of studies is arranged for three years. Those who wish to pursue further some of the higher departments of mathematics, and other branches, have the privilege of remaining another year at school. This institution is furnished with valuable mathematical and philosophical apparatus for the purpose of experiment and illustration. In this school there is a master, two sub-masters, and as many ushers as to allow one instructor to every thirty-five pupils. It is a necessary qualification in all these instructors that they have been educated at some respectable college, and that they be competent to instruct in the French language. The school holds one session daily, commencing at 9 a. m. and closing at 2 p. m., except on Saturday, when it closes at 1 p. m.

The girls' high and normal school was instituted in 1852, with the design of furnishing to those pupils who have passed through the usual course of study at the grammar schools for girls, and at other girls' schools in the city, an opportunity for a higher and more extended education, and also to fit such of them as desire to become teachers. Candidates for admission must be over fifteen years of age. The course of study is arranged for three years. Pupils who attend for that period, and who complete the course in a satisfactory manner, are entitled to a diploma, or certificate to that effect, on leaving school.

The superintendent, in his report for 1866–'67, says of the training department in the girls' high and normal school, it "ought no longer to be considered an experiment, but an institution permanently established. Its influence on our primary and grammar schools has been in a high degree beneficial. I think I speak within the bounds of truth when I say that every one of its graduates appointed to a place in our schools is worth to the city a hundred per cent. more during the first year than the same person would have been, had she gone directly into the service without the training here afforded."

The Latin grammar school was instituted early in the seventeenth century, (1637.) The rudiments of Latin and Greek are taught, and scholars are fitted for the most respectable colleges. Instruction is also given in mathematics, geography, history, declamation, English grammar, composition, and in the French language. Candidates for admission must be ten years of age. The regular course of instruction continues six years, and no scholar can remain longer in the school, unless by written leave of the committee; but scholars may be advanced according to scholarship, and complete the course in five years. The session of the school is the same as in the English high school. A diploma or certificate is given to that effect, if the course is satisfactorily completed.

"The truant laws of the State," remark the committee in 1867, "have been enforced in Boston, as in other cities of the commonwealth, in a spirit of wise moderation and with good results. If in some respects harsh, and seemingly a departure from the principles of our free institutions, not to interfere, unless the safety and order of society require it, with individual liberty of action, public opinion has acquiesced in their necessity. In an effort to amend them in

1866 the legislature rendered them nugatory, but the mistake was corrected the present year. The statutes provide that children who have entered the schools and fail to attend, or are vagrants about the streets, shall be sent to institutions of a penal nature, punishing with fine parents who, without satisfactory reasons, neglect to have their children educated, as well as corporations employing young persons under twelve, who have not been, during the preceeding year, three months at school.

"In some places, before resorting to extreme measures, truants and absentees are relegated to intermediate schools and subjected to rigorous discipline. In Boston efforts are made to reclaim them, and, if not successful, they are sent to Deer island, where, in buildings apart from the alms house and other institutions, they are kept under rigid surveillance and compelled to learn. It is not an agreeable feature in our system of public instruction; and if the expense were no objection, the alms house at Roxbury, or accommodation on some other of the islands in the harbor, might be preferred. But the facility of communication with Deer island by boat is one argument in favor of the present arrangement; reluctance to incur the disgrace of banishment to a penal settlement, in operating as a check upon truancy, is another. Before applying to the magistrate for a warrant, the officer uses his influence with child and parents. The judges are governed by what seems best for the future welfare of the offender, who is treated with the utmost tenderness. Upon reliable indications of amendment he is permitted to return to his home."

The expenses accruing under the supervision of the board for the year 1866–'67 were, for salaries of teachers, $403,300 82; incidental, $172,520 76; school-houses and lots, $200,553 64; total, $776,375 22. The school committee, in their report, say that "within the last twelve years there has been paid by this city, salaries to teachers, $3,668,000." The cost per scholar for 1866–'67, on average attendance, was $22 69. The expense for administration was $10,912 50.

The superintendent, in his report for 1865, says: "The liberal provision which has been made in this city for public education has kept the schools up to so high a standard, both as regards accommodations and the quantity and quality of instruction imparted, that they afford the best available schooling for the children of the great bulk of the well-to-do taxpayers. It is thus that our liberal policy has proved itself economical. It has enabled us to provide tuition at $20 per pupil, as good, perhaps, as is afforded in private schools at $200, or ten times the rate. It has enabled us to make greater progress than any other large city has made toward the true ideal of a system of public education, which requires that *the schools shall be free to all, good enough for all, and attended by the children of all.*"

BROOKLYN, *New York.*

The population of Brooklyn in 1865 was 296,378. The number of registered scholars, September 30, 1867, was 25,503.

The board of education consists of forty-five members, appointed by the common council, and holding their office for three years. They have the entire charge and direction of the public schools of the city, and of the school moneys raised to support the same, and have power to appoint a city superintendent, secretary, and other necessary officers. The officers of the board are a president, vice-president, city superintendent, assistant superintendent, secretary, clerk, messenger, and superintendent of repairs. The amount of salaries paid these officers was $9,239 49 for the year ending January 31, 1867.

The schools are primary and grammar schools, with a supplementary course of instruction in the latter, and training schools for the instruction of primary teachers in the principles and methods of instruction. In the primary schools

there are six grades, and the same number in the grammar schools, the course of instruction embracing, in the highest grade of the latter, reading, spelling, penmanship, drawing, arithmetic completed, algebra, geography, grammar, formal essays, impromptu composition and declamation, astronomy, book-keeping, physiology, history, and Constitution of the United States.

Great prominence is given to oral instruction throughout the course, and in the primary schools to object-teaching. The length of an exercise in the three lowest grades is not to exceed 15 minutes; in the next three, 20 minutes; and in the grammar dapartment, from 20 to 40 minutes.

The number of teachers employed is five hundred and eighty-nine, (589)—males, 28; females, 561. There are also 5 music teachers, with an aggregate salary of $6,499 90. The salaries of the regular teachers of the day schools was $260,074 85, giving an average of $441 55 per teacher. The expense for janitor's wages and cleaning rooms was $16,859 50, and the total expense for the year was $315,079 13, making the cost per pupil $12 35.

The amount expended during the year for new school buildings was $64,310 91; for repairs and furnishing, $26,240 79.

The number of volumes in the city school libraries is 36,249.

BUFFALO, *New York.*

The population of Buffalo in 1860 was 81,129, and in 1865, 94,502.

In 1866 there were 38 school districts, 232 licensed teachers, 26,000 children between 5 and 21 years, 36 free schools with 18,105 pupils enrolled, having an average daily attendance of 8,573; 57 private schools with 8,042 pupils.

There were 14,089 volumes in the district school libraries, valued at $15,858. The schools are under the care of the city councils, which elect a superintendent of public schools with a salary of $1,200, who is allowed a clerk with a salary of $525.

The amount paid for teachers' wages was $130,393 37; for libraries, $1,607 90; school apparatus, $642 93; for colored schools, $1,116 25; for school-houses, sites, furniture, &c., $42,001 88, and for all other incidentals, $27,734 59; and the whole amount of school expenditure was $203,496 91.

The increase of expenditures for public schools has kept pace with the increase of attendance. In 1858 the attendance was 14,750, at a cost of $109,773 17; in 1867, 19,414, at a cost of $175,000. In 1866–'67 the State authorities determined to locate in Buffalo one of the six State normal schools provided for by the legislature in 1866. The county and city authorities have appropriated $90,000 for the erection of suitable buildings, and the State appropriates $12,000 annually for the current expenses of the institution.

BURLINGTON, *Vermont.*

The population of Burlington in 1860 was 7,713. In 1867 the number of children between 4 and 18 years was 2,445.

The old town system was superseded by a board of school commissioners in 1867, consisting of a superintendent who is *ex officio* a member and president of the board, and two members from each of the wards of the city, elected by the people; and they hold their offices three years, one going out and a substitute elected each year. This board is clothed with full authority over the public schools, as in other cities.

During the year 1867, only 913 children out of 2,445 between the ages of 4 and 18 were enrolled in the public schools; about 600 were in Catholic schools and a portion attended private schools, leaving a large number unaccounted for.

The superintendent receives a salary of $1,000; the principal of the high school, $1,200—to be increased to $1,500; first assistants, $600; and second

assistant, $400. The teachers of the grammar schools (ladies) receive $11 per week; of the intermediate schools, $9 to $10 per week; and for the primary, $7 50 to $9 per week.

CAMBRIDGE, *Massachusetts.*

In 1860 Cambridge had a population of 26,060, which in 1865 had increased to 29,114.

The schools are in charge of a board, of which the mayor is *ex officio* a member and chairman. This board appoints a secretary, who is superintendent with a salary of $2,500, and the following sub-committees:

1. On rules and regulations.
2. On school-houses and estimates.
3. On salaries.
4. On text-books.
5. On music.

The system embraced on the 1st of January, 1868, 1 high school, with 9 teachers and 290 pupils, in an English and a classical course; 7 grammar schools, with 58 teachers and 2,549 pupils; and 24 primary schools, with 58 teachers and 3,025 pupils, besides a teacher of music—making a total of 126 teachers and 5,864 pupils, at an aggregate salary of $82,900. The building occupied by the high school is one of the best school structures in the country, and the condition of the schools generally is excellent.

CHARLESTOWN, *Massachusetts.*

Charlestown had a population in 1860 of 25,065, and in 1865 of 26,399.

The schools consist of 33 primary schools, with 2,789 pupils; 5 grammar schools, and 2 intermediate schools with 3,021 pupils; and one high school for boys and girls, with 163 pupils—males, 51; females, 112; total, 53 schools and 60 teachers, and 5,973 pupils, with an average attendance of 5,169.

The superintendent is required to hold stated meetings of the primary and intermediate school teachers once in each quarter, for which occasion he can direct the schools to be dismissed, and he can do the same for the grammar school.

The expenses of the public schools in 1866–'67 were $66,034, of which the sum of $56,000 was paid for teachers' salaries and $10,034 for incidentals.

CHARLESTON, *South Carolina.*

Charleston had in 1860 a population of 40,522—23,376 whites, and 3,337 free blacks, and 13,909 slaves.

Prior to 1854 a system of free schools for the poor existed, which did not meet the wants of any class, and it was superseded in that year by a system of public schools. Under the lead of Hon. C. C. Memminger and Jefferson Bennett, the State made special appropriation in aid of the construction of a suitable building, and in it was organized in 1855, a graded school, with J. A. Geddings as principal, with several well-qualified female teachers. The success of this school in meeting the educational wants of the rich and the poor, led to the establishment of several other schools of the same kind, and in 1859 of a State normal and high school for girls, with a principal taken from one of the best public schools in Boston. On the breaking out of the war there was in operation a system of public schools as efficient, in reference to the white population, as existed in any city in the Union.

CHELSEA, *Massachusetts.*

The population of the city of Chelsea in 1860 was 13,325, which in 1865 had increased to 14,403.

The schools are classified into 1 high school, with 104 pupils; 3 grammar schools, with 1,497 pupils; 26 primary schools, with 1,427 pupils; total 3,028 pupils and 60 teachers, under the charge of a committee, of which the mayor and president of the common council are members, and two members from each of the four wards of the city. The committee ask for the appointment of a superintendent "to bring all teachers, all grades of schools, in all sections of the city, into one scheme of education." The cost of schools in 1866 was $46,000.

CHICAGO, *Illinois.*

The population of Chicago in 1860 was 109,260, and in October, 1866, 200,418; and the number of persons, in 1866, between *six* and *twenty-one* years, 53,100.

The number of school districts is 21. There is *one high school*, 18 district schools, and three independent primary.

Thirty-two school buildings are owned by the city, and six are rented. In the high school there are 11 school-rooms; in the district schools, 211; in the independent primary school buildings there are 18 rooms. In all the buildings there are 32 recitation rooms, and six wardrobes used for recitations.

In the high school there are 8 male and 4 female teachers; in the district schools there are 17 male and 267 female teachers; and in the independent primary schools are 21 female teachers. Besides, there are 2 male teachers of vocal music. The whole number of teachers is 319.

The whole number of pupils enrolled in the district and primary schools is, males, 13,827; females, 13,024; total, 26,851. High school, 409; total number of pupils, 27,260. The average number belonging in the district and primary schools was 16,042, and in the high school, 350. The average daily attendance in the district and primary schools was 15,074; in high school, 339. The percentage of average number belonging upon the whole number enrolled was 60.5 per cent.; the same percentage of high school, 85½ per cent. The percentage of average attendance to the average number belonging was 94 per cent.; the same percentage of high school, 96.7 per cent.

The expenditures for schools were as follows: For salaries of teachers in high school, $19,215 69; for district and primary schools, $208,309 28; for incidentals, $69,147 92; for permanent improvements, $135,354 74; total expenditures, $432,027 63.

The salaries for grades of teachers were: for principal of high school, $2,400; for principal of normal department, $2,200; for male assistants in the high school, $2,000; for male assistant teacher of French. $600; for training teacher, $1,100; for female assistants in high school, $1,100; for principals of 17 district schools, first year $1,800, second year $1,900, and third year $2,000; for principals of three district schools, $1,600; for principals of one district and of three primary schools, $1,000 each; for head assistants, $1,000; and for other female assistants in district and primary schools for 14 weeks at the rate of $450; for the first year thereafter $550, second year $650, and for the third year and subsequently, $700; for teachers of vocal music, $2,000.

The cost per scholar per annum on school census for tuition alone, $4 28; upon number enrolled for tuition alone; $8 35; upon average number belonging for tuition alone, $13 88; upon school census for incidentals, alone, $1 30; upon number enrolled for incidentals, $2 54; upon average number belonging for incidentals, $4 22; upon average number belonging, including all expenses and 6 per cent. upon school property, $21 15; upon average number belonging to high school: 1st, for tuition alone per annum, $54 90; 2d, for tuition and incidentals, $62 57; 3d, for tuition, incidentals, and 6 per cent. on property, $71 70.

The receipts from all sources were from the three-mill tax, $234,445 92; from

the State fund, $29,616 79; from rents and interests, $42,584 30; from sale of school construction bonds, $81,344; total amount of receipts, 387,991 01.

The whole number of seats provided during the year, 2,100; the number of seats for the last year, 13,992; total number of seats, 16,092. Average number of pupils belonging, 16,042; number of seats in rented buildings, 1,375.

The city owns 32 buildings, 14 of which are of brick and cost from $8,750 to $35,000 each, besides the lots; 17 of which are of wood, and cost from $500 to $13,500; and 1 stone, costing $30,000. The entire value of the school buildings is $416,850; of the school lots $434,020; total value of school buildings and lots, $850,870.

All the district and primary schools are divided into ten grades for each district, four of which are for the grammar department and six for the primary department.

Studies pursued in the high school: geography, history, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and the higher mathematics, botany, astronomy, physiology, natural philosophy, chemistry, mineralogy, rhetoric, political economy, mental philosophy, Constitution of the United States; in addition to such classical studies as will fit pupils for the best colleges.

In the grammar and primary departments of the district schools the studies are reading, spelling, history of the United States, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, and penmanship.

The board of education consists of 16 school inspectors, one from each ward of the city, elected by the common council, and it is divided in four classes; each class holding office four years; one class going out of office and another class coming in, each year.

The duties of the board are "to establish all such by-laws, rules and regulations for their own government, and for the establishment and maintenance of a proper and uniform system of discipline in the several schools, as may in their opinion be necessary."

The office of superintendent is filled by the board of education biennially, and his salary is determined also by the board, which in 1867 was $3,500. The whole expense of administration is as follows: superintendent, $3,500; secretary of the board, $2,000; clerk of superintendent, $1,000; superintendent of repairs, &c., $2,000.

CONCORD, *New Hampshire.*

The population of Concord, the capital of New Hampshire, in 1860 was 10,896. The three districts, which include territorially the city of Concord, were consolidated in 1854 into the Union school district. By special act this district is authorized to raise and expend money for school purposes under the direction of a board of education consisting of nine members, three elected each year for a term of three years. By judicious measures the public schools have been made so good as to dispense with the necessity of private schools. The schools are graded into primary, intermediate and grammar schools, and a high school. The primary and intermediate schools are scattered in small buildings in different parts of the district, while the three grammar schools gather their pupils from wider districts, and the high school from the whole city. The pupils of a grammar school are divided into four classes, the studies of each class occupying one year, and at the end of the fourth year pupils pass by examination into the high school, which has a preparatory college and a general course. "The building and school are each a model in its way."

CAMDEN, *New Jersey.*

The population of Camden, which in 1860 was 14,358, is estimated to be 27,000 in 1868. Camden has five grammar schools, two primary schools, and one school for colored children. The grammar schools are so graded as to make several schools in each. The whole number of all grades is thirty-four, three of which are for males.

The whole number of children of school age is 5,035; the number of children in school for 1867, 2,639; the average number for the whole year, 1,502.

Salaries for male teachers per month, $84; for female teachers per month, $32.

The board of education consists of three members, elected by the citizens to hold their offices three years, one of whom shall go out of office annually, and another elected to fill his place. The board is created a body corporate and politic by the name of "The Board of Education of the City of Camden." This body has the power to determine the amount of tax to be raised annually, which is not to exceed annually two mills in the dollar. When the tax is raised it is to be turned over immediately to the treasurer of the board. The board has power also, from time to time, to raise by loan such sum or sums of money as they may require, and may make provision for the payment of such loans and the interest thereon out of school moneys that come into their hands. The board have the power, from time to time, to appoint a city superintendent of public schools.

CINCINNATI, *Ohio.*

The city of Cincinnati had, in 1860, a population of 161,044, which had increased in 1867 to 225,000. The school census, taken in September, 1867, showed the number of white youth between five and twenty-one, to be 96,155; of colored youth of the same age, 4,067—total, 100,222. The number of different pupils of all ages, registered in the public schools during the year, was 24,828. The average number of pupils belonging to all the public schools was, 19,591; the average number in daily attendance in all the schools was, 18,637. Number of pupils in church schools was, 10,915; and in private schools ,2,412.

The public schools are under the control of a board, consisting of forty members, two of whom are chosen from each of the twenty wards of the city, each member holding his office for two years.

The public schools are divided into district, intermediate, high, and normal schools. For the administration of the district schools, the city is divided into nineteen districts; and for the intermediate schools, into two intermediate districts.

The classification and course of study is uniform throughout the schools; and for that purpose every district school is divided into six grades, designated by the letters A, B, C, D, E, and F. The intermediate schools are divided into two grades, designated by the letters A and B. The grades are arranged to correspond to the first seven years of attendance, and each grade—male and female—may be divided into as many sections as the number of pupils in each grade will warrant. The sections in each grade are numbered from the lowest to the highest, according to the proficiency of the pupils. No teacher has more than two sections to instruct in all their studies, unless the school is so small that it cannot be otherwise arranged.

The intermediate schools are composed of pupils received upon examination from grade A of the district schools. In 1868 they numbered in the register 1,518, while in the district schools for the same year the number was 16,746, with an average daily attendance in each school of 887.

The two high schools (Woodward and Hughes) receive pupils of both sexes, and had an average attendance of 597 pupils each school day.

The normal school, established in 1867, had 25 pupils, with an average attendance of 24.

From December to March, three months, eight night schools were maintained, one being designated the high school, in which, besides the opportunity of reviewing the elementary studies, instructions was given in algebra, natural philosophy, and book-keeping. The whole number belonging to the night schools was 2,018, and the average attendance was 1,300. The pupils represented almost every industrial occupation in the city.

Besides the instructions given in these schools, 10,000 were instructed in German, by 95 teachers; in drawing, instruction was given to 22,297; in vocal music, to 23,000; in Latin there were 691; in French, 137; and in Greek 69.

The whole number of teachers employed in 1868 was 418—males 62, females 356. Their salaries amounted to $311,435 96. There were besides the 418 regular teachers, 13 special teachers, viz: 5 in music, at $8,450; 5 in drawing, at $4,000; 1 in gymnastics, at $1,800; 2 in normal school, at $2,800

There is a public library of 27,000 volumes, supported by an annual tax, which yields $13,000, and for the accommodation of which the city is now erecting a suitable building at a cost of nearly $200,000. A committee of the board on the establishment of a city university, embracing the instruction now given in the high schools, and in other institutions of a higher grade and which possess property to the amount of nearly $2,000,000, have recommended a union of these institutions, with the following divisions or schools: *First.* Collegiate; *Second.* Law; *Third.* Medical; *Fourth.* Dental; *Fifth.* Astronomical; *Sixth.* Normal; *Seventh.* Music; *Eighth.* Fine arts; *Ninth.* Polytechnic. To be free to all citizens of Cincinnati, and open to non-residents upon the advance payment of a small tuition fee.

The total expenditure for the public schools was $680,000, of which $9,161 was for superintendence and office work; $3,000 for librarian and assistants; and $336,536 for teachers' salaries.

The cost of the public schools, for sums paid to regular teachers, on the whole number enrolled, was $12 50 per pupil; on the average number belonging to the schools, $16 66; on the average daily attendance, $17 05; to which should be added thirty-three cents for special instruction in music, eighteen cents for drawing, and six cents for gymnastics. Of the whole number registered as pupils, 12,000 are under ten years of age; about 3,000 between the ages of eleven and twelve; 1,942 between thirteen and fifteen; and only 318 were sixteen years of age.

Of the 23,106 pupils enrolled in the districts schools, only 8,940 continued through the year; 4,674 continued less than four months, and 9,128 continued less than eight months. Of the 1,807 pupils enrolled in the intermediate schools, 327 continued less than six months; 511 less than eight months, and 1,007 through the year.

The reported cases of tardiness in the district and intermediate schools for four months was 52,388, or a total of 130,000 in the year.

CLEVELAND, *Ohio.*

The population of Cleveland in 1860 was 43,417, which had increased in 1868 to 84,283. At the annual enumeration of the same year the whole number of children between the ages of five and twenty, inclusive, was 25,823.

The Board of Education consists of a member for each ward, (15 in 1868) one being chosen from each ward every second year, to hold his office for two years. The board employs four salaried officers—a secretary, at $800; a superintendent of instruction, at $4,000; a superintendent of repairs, at $1,200; and a librarian, at $900. The board is clothed with entire authority in the establishment, support, and supervision of the public schools. They must make an enumeration of all the children between five, and twenty years of age, residing in

the several districts, distinguishing in such enumeration the age of each, and ascertaining the school, public, private, or church, which each child thus enumerated attends. Besides the schools of a lower grade they are authorized to establish two high schools, evening schools for such as cannot attend during the day, one or more industrial schools for the instruction of destitute and neglected children in the industrial arts and employments, and can provide teachers of the German language for the schools of intermediate grade.

A peculiarity of the present system is in the reduced number of grammar school districts, the principal of which (four for the citiy) is superintendent of the internal work of all the schools of a lower grade, both within and without the building in which he teaches. Another peculiarity is the appointment of a board of examiners consisting of three persons, who are not members of the Board of Education, to examine teachers and grant certificates for a term not exceeding one year, which at the close may be renewed for five years if the teachers shall have exhibited practical ability and skill in the management of schools.

The following statistics of the schools for the years 1867–8 are gleaned from the report of Mr. Rickoff:

Teachers: Males, 18; females, 139; total, 157.
Pupils entered during the year: Males, 5,187; females, 4,967; total, 10,154.
Average number belonging: Males, 3,618; females, 3,442; total, 7,060.
Average daily attendance: Males, 3,401; females, 3,222: total, 6,623.
Average daily absence: Males, 217; females, 220; total, 437.

Of the 10,154 children enrolled the attendance was as follows: 1,117 less than two months; 2,116 attended two and less than four months; 3,244 attended less than four months; 907 attended four and less than six months; 4,140 attended less than six months; 1,226 attended six and less than eight months; 5,366 attended less than eight months: 2,126 attended eight and less than ten months; 7,492 attended less than ten months; 2,662 were in school for the entire year.

Great as is the amount of non-attendance, from the above statement, it appears that out of the above 10,154 pupils enrolled 105 were absent two or more days per week; 415 over one and less than two days per week; 520 more than one day per week; 1,505 one-half and less than one whole day; 2,216 absent more than one-half day per week.

Out of the whole number of children enrolled, over five and under twenty years of age, 1,809 were six years of age; 1,175 were seven; 1,257 were eight; 1,122 were nine; 1,182 were ten; 985 were eleven; 914 were twelve: 674 were thirteen; 476 were fourteen; 254 were fifteen; 189 were sixteen; 72 were seventeen; 38 were eighteen; 14 were nineteen; 2 were twenty.

The total expenditures for the years 1867–'68 were $161,292 35, besides $292,555 74 for school buildings and lots. The cost per pupil on sums paid to teachers was $14 38.

A free library has been established which numbered, in 1868, 6,000 volumes with a provision for the annual increase of not less than 2,000 volumes.

In the autumn a normal class for the training of teachers is held for one week previous to opening the schools, under the direction of the superintendent.

COLUMBUS, *Georgia.*

Columbus, Georgia, had in 1860 a population of 9,621, of which 3,547 were slaves.

In 1867 special authority was given by the legislature to the city authorities to establish and support public schools by tax, through a board of trustees elected partly by subscribers to a fund to provide suitable buildings, and partly by the city council. A suitable building was purchased and fitted up for school purposes by subscription, and a public school was opened in 1868, toward the expense of which the Peabody fund appropriates $1,000. Of the attendance and other statistics we have no return.

COLUMBUS, *Ohio.*

The population of Columbus in 1860 was 18,554, which in 1867 had increased to 30,000, at which time the school census of persons between six and twenty-one, was 8,598.

The Board of Education consists of nine members elected one from each of

the nine wards of the city, for a term of two years, from the odd-numbered wards one year, from the even-numbered the next year; one of the number is elected clerk, and receives a salary of $400 per annum. The president is not paid, but the board elect annually a superintendent, whose salary is $2,000.

There are 23 primary schools, 22 secondary, 11 intermediate, 7 grammar schools, and 1 high school; in all there are 64 schools.

The whole number of pupils enrolled, 4,500, and the average number belonging, 3,708.

The whole number of teachers was 82; in the primary, 23 female teachers; in the secondary, 1 male and 22 female teachers; in the intermediate, 11 female teachers; in the grammar, 7 male and 11 female teachers; and in the high school, 3 male and 3 female teachers. There is one music teacher, male.

There are two grades in each of the primary, secondary, and intermediate; three in the grammar schools, and four in the high school.

The course of study in the lower grades is nearly the same as in all similar grades elsewhere. In the high school there are three courses of study, each running through four years: First, the English course, including no language but English; second, the Latin; and third, classical or college preparatory.

In the lower grades full one-third of the school hours are devoted to oral instruction and object teaching.

During the last year two good buildings for schools have been erected large enough to accomodate 1,000 pupils, at a cost of $32,000 each, and another will be finished this year worth $40,000. The high school has a spacious and elegant structure.

Primary schools are taught 4¾ hours, and the other grades 5¼; but the high school is in session 6 hours.

There are no private schools of any account, as the best class of citizens patronize the public schools.

The whole amount paid teachers during the year: common, $29,721; high, $4,550; German, $5,100; colored, $2,200; total $41,571. Expended for sites, buildings and repairs, $40,181 37; expended for fuel and other expenses, $8,521 05. Total expenditures, $90,373 42.

The whole value of school-houses and grounds is about $282,000. Value of apparatus, $1,200. School library of 2,000 volumes. The schools are carefully graded.

DAYTON, *Ohio*.

The population in 1860 was 20,081.

The number of children of school age in 1867 was as follows: white males, 4,325, females, 4,738, total 9,063; colored males, 87, females, 64, total 151. Totals, white and colored males, 4,412, females, 4,802; together, 9,114.

The city is divided into five districts. There is one high school for boys and girls, to which properly qualified pupils are admitted from each of the district schools.

There are five district schools, over each of which a male principal presides, and in two of them male assistants—seven in all. There is one German and English school, and one school for colored children, each having one male teacher. There are in all 17 male teachers and 48 female teachers, 65 in all, and a general superintendent.

Each district has a senior, junior, first and second intermediate, first and second secondary, and first, second, and third primary schools or classes, if they are required.

The schools of each district are, as far as practicable, kept in the same building, so as to be under the immediate care of the principal.

The general superintendent, Mr. Caleb Parker, devotes his time and talents to the supervision of the schools without any pecuniary compensation.

The principal of the high school receives, first year, $1,600; second year, $1,760; third year, $1,900.

The male assistants in high school and principals in district schools, first year, $1,248; second year, $1,375; third year, $1,500.

The female assistants receive in high school, $900; first assistants in district school, $560; first grade teachers, $448; second grade, $420; third grade, $400; fourth grade, $380; fifth, $340; music teacher, $800; teacher of penmanship, $800; senior German teacher, $900; secondary German teachers, $800; colored teacher, $700; librarian, $500.

The city council appoints two qualified electors from each ward, who are to be judicious and competent persons, and who shall constitute the "board of education;" who have power to adopt "such by-laws and regulations as in their opinion shall be best calculated to promote the prompt and efficient discharge of the duties required of them by the laws of the State, and ordinances of said city council."

The receipts were as follows:

From State tax	$12,103 30
From irreducible school fund	208 44
From local tax for schools and school-houses	47,597 90
From tuition on non-resident pupils	421 00
Total	60,330 64

The expenditures were—

For teachers' salaries in common schools	$31,055 90
For teachers' salaries in high school	5,796 00
For teachers' salaries in German school	790 00
For teacher's salary in colored school	537 50
For sites, buildings, and repairs	9,000 00
For fuel and other contingent expenses	10,592 31
Total annual expenditure	57,771 71

Amount overdrawn, $1,827 37; and balance on hand, $731 56; total, $2,558 93.

The city has a public school library of over ten thousand volumes. During the year fifteen thousand volumes were drawn from the library.

A course of studies has been fixed upon for nine years, which can be gone over generally in seven years, to fit pupils for the high school, in which there is a four years' course for the higher English branches and classics.

DETROIT, *Michigan*.

The population of Detroit in 1860 was 45,619.

In 1866 the school census gave 20,353 children between four and eighteen years of age; and at the same time 10,215 of that number not in any school. The average daily attendance was 5,840. Per centum of attendance on school census, 28.6.

The board of education consists of twenty members, two being chosen from each ward of the city. The officers are a president, superintendent and secretary, and a treasurer. The board has standing committees on teachers, schools, library, claims and accounts, ways and means, school-houses, and real estate and building. The board also employs a messenger.

The public schools occupy 20 buildings, and are 78 in number, as follows: 1 high school, 4 senior schools, 20 junior schools, 22 second grade schools, 28

primary schools, and 3 mixed grade schools. Irregularity of attendance is regarded by the superintendent as the most serious evil connected with the system of free schools. He says that one-half the absences and tardiness, as nearly as can be ascertained, is confined to one-fifth of the pupils; and is occasioned, not by any real necessity, but by the neglect and carelessness of parents.

The president of the board of education says of the high school: "Its existence is no longer a questionable matter, subject to the whims and caprices of any one man or set of men, but it has a foundation well laid in the affections of the patrons and supporters of our public schools. To reach this school may yet be the height of ambition with every child in our city schools, and thus be promotive of great benefit to our public schools generally. Its graduates rank high in point of proficiency, as has been seen by the stand they take in the colleges and universities which many have entered."

The principal of the high school has a salary of $1,400; the first assistant, male, $1,200; second assistant, female, $600. In the ward schools the salary of the male principals is $1,200. The whole amount paid as salaries of teachers was $43,118,98. The corps of teachers was composed of 10 males and 90 females. The average salary paid the male teachers was $1,000, to females $399.

The cost of tuition per scholar, on average attendance, was $7 35. The total expenditures for the year were $63,755 89, making the expenses per scholar $10 35.

DUBUQUE, *Iowa.*

The population of Dubuque in 1860 was 13,000 and in 1865, 21,133. The number of pupils in the public schools of the city, in 1867, was 2,996; the average attendance, 2,527. The number of persons between five and twenty-one years of age was 5,755.

The city of Dubuque is an independent school district, and the schools are under the control of a board of directors, 7 in number. The number of schools is 9, known as the high school, 1st, 3d, 4th and 5th ward schools, west Dubuque, south Dodge street, Dodge street, and colored schools. In the grammar schools are taught reading, writing, spelling, object lessons, intellectual and written arithmetic, algebra through equations of the first degree, English grammar, history of the United States, general history, political and physical geography, science of common things or oral instruction in the more obvious parts of natural philosophy and astronomy, singing and declamation, and moral lessons throughout the course. The course in the high school embraces higher algebra, natural philosophy, rhetoric, geometry, trigonometry, physiology, chemistry, geology, Latin, Greek, German and French, with general exercises in composition, declamation, reading, &c.

The amount paid for salaries of teachers was $21,778 50. The number of teachers employed was 55, 7 males and 48 females. The average compensation per week of males was $23 93, of females $8 44; average cost of tuition per week for each pupil, 27 cents. The whole current expense for the year was $40,124 21, making the whole cost per pupil, on average attendance, $15 48.

Of the school buildings, the material of six is brick, and of three wood. The report of the secretary indicates a crowded state of these buildings and an urgent necessity for more and better. The value of the houses now owned is estimated to be $161,500

The teachers are paid according to the grade of their certificates and time of service, regardless of the position they hold, and in the appointments (all other things being equal) a preference is given to those holding the highest certificate. The qualifications considered as prerequisite are scholarship and moral character.

The first school law enacted in the Territory of Iowa was in 1844. In the spring of 1844 Dubuque was made a school district.

ERIE, *Pennsylvania.*

The population of Erie in 1860 was 9,419.

The city forms but one district, divided into two wards or local boards, of six members each, elected annually, making twelve members, who are called the "board of controllers."

The duties of the board of controllers are, 1st. The raising and disbursing the school tax for school purposes; 2d. The establishment, organization and classification of schools; 3d. The employment of teachers, the furnishing of fuel, school supplies, apparatus, &c.

The departments of the schools are as follows: One high school, two grammar schools, five intermediate schools, seven primary schools, one German intermediate, two German primaries, and one colored ungraded.

There have been employed during the year four male and forty-three female teachers, or 47 in all. Average number employed 33¾.

The number of pupils enrolled in the high school was 58 boys and 86 girls, or 144 in all. The percentage of attendance was 90½.

The whole number of pupils enrolled during the year is 2,316—1,196 males and 1,120 females. The percentage of attendance was 80.3. Total expenditure was $17,839 20. There is a superintendent. Special salaries not given.

FALL RIVER, *Massachusetts.*

The population of Fall River in 1860 was 14,026, and in 1865 it was 17,525.

The number of children between five and fifteen years was 4,164 in 1865, and 4,330 in 1866.

The board of the school committee is appointed by the municipal authorities, in accordance with the charter of the city. It consists of nine members elected annually.

The office of superintendent was created by the city councils and filled by the school committee.

The schools are graded into high, grammar, intermediate, and primary schools.

There is one high school, four grammar schools, eight intermediate, eighteen primary, and six mixed schools in the city, besides six suburban schools.

There are fifty-eight teachers in the city and six in the suburban districts; in all sixty-four.

The whole number of pupils in April, 1867, was 2,911. Average attendance 2,073.

The amount of money raised for the support of public schools for 1866 was $30.500.

The valuation of all property in 1865 was $12,632,419.

The salaries for teachers are: For principal of high school, $1,200 to $1, 400, assistants, $500; principals of grammar schools from $1,125 to $1,325; assistants from $385 to $425; principals of intermediate and primary, each, from $385 to $425, and their assistants from $370 to $400. In the suburban schools the teachers are paid from $21 to $45 per month.

There was raised for evening schools $1,100.

Most of the schools were in session thirty-five weeks last year.

FOND DU LAC, *Wisconsin.*

The population of Fond du Lac in 1860 was 5,450.

Fond du Lac has a high school, one grammar school, three intermediate, and seventeen primary schools. The primary schools have three grades, called the first, second, and third.

The whole number of children between four and twenty in 1866 was 5,109.

The whole number of pupils enrolled is 3,239; the average number belonging 1,763; the average number attending, 1,563.

The whole number of teachers is 32, as follows: In the high school, 3; grammar school, 6; in the intermediate, 6; and in the primary of all grades, 19.

The salary of superintendent and principal, $1,700; two teachers, at $50 per month, seven teachers, at $40 per month, and 24, at $30 per month. Teacher's salaries, $12,700; janitor's pay, $1.045, and all other expenses, $14,857 35; total, $28,602 35. For teachers' salaries, $10,961 13; incidentals, $1,166 68; for janitor, $474 03; clerk's salary, $100; and for all other expenses, $11,251 70; total expenses, $23,954 44.

There are fourteen school buildings, capable of seating 1,746 pupils, and two now in process of erection, which will increase the accommodations to 2,002.

The whole school property is valued at $69,208 13.

The board of education consists of two commissioners from each ward, ten in all, appointed by the common council upon recommendation of the chairman of the board of aldermen of each ward.

The first board came into office in June, 1867.

The principal of the high school is made superintendent of all the schools.

Fort Wayne, *Indiana*.

The population of Fort Wayne in 1860 was 10,388.

In 1867 the number of children between six and twenty-one years was 7,255, which would show that the population in 1867 is not far from 30,000.

There are a high school, two grammar schools, two intermediate schools, six secondary, and ten primary schools, one of which is a training school; twenty-one in all.

One principal of high school and two assistants, one female principal and one male principal of grammar schools and two assistants, two intermediate principals and two assistants, six secondary teachers, and ten primary school teachers, and eight pupil teachers, or thirty-three in all.

Whole number enrolled for the year is 1,676; average attendance per cent., 93.6.

The whole expense of the public schools for the year ending June 30, 1866, was $16,402 29. The average salaries of teachers was $263. The average cost per scholar on all expenses, $9 62. Non-resident pupils are charged from $3 to $6 per term.

Harrisburg, *Pennsylvania*.

The population of Harrisburg in 1860 was 13,405.

The schools are under a board of control of 18 members, three from each ward, who have jurisdiction of all matters relating to the schools.

The schools are classified under the designation of departments, viz: primary, first and second grade; secondary, first and second grade; and high school, admission and promotion being determined by examination, and the whole course of instruction is consecutive from the alphabet to the classics and higher mathematics.

In 1867 there were 47 different schools and the same number of teachers, 14 males and 33 females.

The salaries range from $1,000 to $350. The average salaries of male teachers per month was $57, and of female teachers, $35 60.

The whole number of male pupils was 1,623, and of female, 1,798—in all 3,421. The average attendance was 2,100.

The whole amount of taxes levied for school purposes for 1867 was $44,523. Amount received from collectors, lands, &c., $23,089 04; from State appropria-

tion, $1,326 86; amount expended for instruction, $23,059 04; for fuel, contingencies, &c., $4,227 45; for school-houses, &c., $31,500, making a total expense of $58,786 49.

An institute or professional gathering of all the teachers is held every Monday evening for lectures and discussions on educational topics.

HARTFORD, *Connecticut.*

The population of the city of Hartford in 1860 was 29,154. For the year ending September 1, 1866, there were 7,294 children of school age, (4 to 16,) with 3,409 pupils in school and an average attendance of 2,771.

The schools are under the general supervision of a committee of nine members, called a board of visitors. The officers of the board are a chairman, secretary and acting visitor, chosen from the members of the committee, the latter performing duties corresponding in part to those of a superintendent. The direct management of the schools (except the high school) in each district is with a committee elected annually by the voters of the district.

There are ten district schools and the high school, which is also united with the Hartford grammar school, and one colored school. The principal district schools are the Centre, North, and South schools. The Centre school has a grammar department, an intermediate, secondary, boys' primary, girls' primary, and the Pearl and Front street primary departments, with one male principal and a writing master, and seventeen female teachers. The North school has a male principal and a writing master, and ten departments, with thirteen female teachers. The South school has also a male principal and a writing master, with a grammar, intermediate, and primary departments, and 17 female teachers. The whole number of teachers is 78.

The average attendance in the high school was 179 out of 283 belonging to the school during the year, the males and females being very nearly equal. The classical department of the high school (Hartford Grammar School) was founded in 1664, incorporated in 1798. Candidates for admission to the Hartford Grammar School are required to present satisfactory testimonials of good character, and to pass an examination in the primary rules of arithmetic and in other elementary studies. The number of scholars is limited to 35. Scholars may be received from any section of the country, and no tuition is charged in either classical or English branches. It is strictly a classical school, designed to fit young men for college, but its pupils have access to all the privileges of the English department, and in classification are united with those members of the high school who intend to prepare for college.

Candidates for admission to the high school must be 12 years old and members of the first class of the first department of a district school, and pass a satisfactory examination in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, grammar, and history of the United States, and must also furnish satisfactory evidence of good moral character.

The acting visitor says: "All the larger cities of the country have a similar school of high grade, but we do not find any of them reporting a more thorough system of instruction or greater prosperity. It is a flattering testimony to the excellence of our high school that officers of our largest colleges say they find no students better prepared for admission than those coming from the Hartford High School." There are seven male instructors besides the principal in this school, and two female instructors.

The average salary of the female teachers in the public schools was $377. The amount paid for teachers' wages in the same schools was $35,217 52, and the whole expense was $47,722 20, exclusive of new buildings. The cost of new house in the centre district will exceed $100,000.

INDIANAPOLIS, *Indiana.*

The city of Indianapolis had a population in 1860 of 18,611. For the year ending June 30, 1866, there was an average daily attendance of scholars in the public schools of 1,753. The whole number of different pupils enrolled was 3,634.

The board of trustees of the public schools consists of three members. The secretary of the board of trustees is the superintendent of city schools.

The board of visitors is 18 in number, there being 2 from each of the 9 wards of the city.

Previous to 1853 the schools were managed by trustees in each of the school districts into which the city was divided. April 25, 1853, the first free schools were opened for a period of two months. At this time a code of rules and regulations was prepared by Mr. Calvin Fletcher, which constitute the basis of the present rules. May 14, 1853, occurs the first record of the payment of salaries to teachers. A superintendent was appointed early in 1855, with instructions to visit and spend a day in each school every month, and to meet the teachers every Saturday to review the work done.

The public schools are divided into three departments; primary, intermediate and high school. For each department is prescribed a four years' course of study, making from the time of entering the primary to the time of entering the high school eight years. In each grade there are classes in which the pupils are kept exactly together in all their studies; each grade requires a year to complete the prescribed course, and no pupil is first admitted under the age of six years. In each of the first-named departments there are four grades. Under this arrangement, at the close of the year, one class graduates from each department and one class comes in at the beginning of the year.

The high school was opened in 1864, and the report of the superintendent states that it meets a long-felt want.

The number of school buildings is 9. The number of teachers, including teachers of gymnastics and German, at the close of the school year, June 15, 1856, was 34; males 3, females 31. The average number of pupils to each teacher was 53.

The superintendent, in his report for 1867, says: "There are within the city limits over 6 and under 15, boys 3,341, girls 3,379; over 15 and under 21, boys 1,059, girls 1,398; total, 9,177. The total enrolment in the private or subscription schools of the city, as reported to this office, was 3,030."

The expenses for the salaries of teachers and other officers for the supervision of the schools, for the year ending September 1, 1866, was $15,909 52; for other current expenses, $16,226 95; total, $32,166 47; making the cost per pupil, on average attendance, $18 33.

JERSEY CITY, *New Jersey.*

Jersey City had, in 1860, a population of 29,226, and in 1867 there were 6,142 children between the ages of 5 and 18 years. The board of education is composed of twelve persons, two from each ward, appointed by the common council, one each year to serve for two years. The superintennent is also appointed by the same council, and is *ex-officio* a member of the board. In 1867 an assistant superintendent was appointed by the board of education with the approval of the council.

The system in 1867 embraced four public schools, each with a primary and a male and female grammar department; a normal school held every Saturday forenoon; and a school for colored children—in all, 46 schools, with 3 male and 43 female teachers, and an average attendance of about 3,041 pupils.

Evening schools are maintained in the winter. The total amount expended for school purposes in 1867 was $50,454.

KEENE, *New Hampshire.*

Population, 4,320 in 1860.

Keene has one high school, one grammar school, one intermediate school, and eleven or twelve primary schools.

There are 19 teachers in all. The principal of the grammar school is the only male teacher, except in the winter, when four male teachers were employed in the primary schools.

Whole number of scholars, 1,389. Average attendance, 1,315.

The salaries are paid by the month, and will amount to an average of from $240 to $620 per annum of 12 months.

The principal of the high school and his wife receive $1,250 per year.

The whole amount paid for the support of the schools for the year 1867 was $7,521 60.

KINGSTON, *New York.*

The population of Kingston in 1860 was 16,640, and in 1865, 17,296.

The board of education consists of nine trustees, who, with a clerk of primary districts, are to be elected by the people and hold their office three years, one going out every year. They receive no compensation for services. The board have power and it is made their duty to levy and collect such taxes as may be necessary to carry on the schools; and also to raise $5,000 each year for school buildings. Children of non-residents are charged tuition. The title to all school property is vested in the board of education, and not subject to taxation.

The board have the power also to choose a superintendent, who is to be secretary to the board.

The schools are divided into the academic, the senior, the junior, and primary departments. The academic department is similar to the high school in other cities. The full number of pupils was 70; average number per term 59.

The whole number of pupils in the other departments was as follows: senior, 165; junior, 452; primary, 523; total, 1,140, which, added to the academic, makes the whole number 1,210.

The amount paid out for salaries of teachers and superintendent was $12,527 97, and for all other expenses $10,631 23; total $23,159 20. The salary of the principal of the academic department is $1,400, and that of the superintendent, $1,200. The highest sum paid to any male $700, or female teacher was $650; lowest salary for females, $400.

The school libraries number 1,258 volumes. The income received as tuition for non-resident pupils amounts to $966 75.

LAWRENCE, *Massachusetts.*

The population of the city of Lawrence was, in 1860, 17,639, and in 1865, 21,700. Number of children between 5 and 15 on the 1st of May, 1867, was 4,462.

The school board consists of fifteen members, chosen annually, the secretary of which is *ex officio* superintendent of schools.

The whole number of teachers employed for 1867 was 65—4 males and 61 females. One of the male teachers is a teacher of music. The principals of the two grammar and one high school are males.

There is one high school with 3 teachers, and two grammar schools, one of which has 19 teachers, and the other 4 teachers.

There are 13 middle schools, with one teacher for each, and 25 primary schools, with one teacher for each.

The whole number of pupils belonging was 3,062; the average number belonging was 2,560; and the average number attending was 2,281.

The expenditures for 1867 were as follows:

For tuition, $30,733 21; for janitors, $1,191 63; for fuel, $2,149 16; for repairs of school-houses, $3,214 03; for all other incidentals, $2,294 73. Total expenses, $39,582 76.

The salaries vary from $2,000, $1,600, $1,200 for males, and from $700 to $350 for females.

LEAVENWORTH, *Kansas*.

The population of Leavenworth in 1860 was 7,177. Number of children in 1867 between 5 and 21 was 5,173—white, 4,249, and colored, 924.

The board of education consists of 12 members—three from each ward of the city.

The schools are graded into high, grammar, intermediate, secondary, and primary.

The whole number of public schools of all grades is 23, four of which are for colored children.

The whole number of teachers is 33, and one music teacher. One of the three male teachers has charge of an evening school.

The whole number of different pupils was 2,904; the average number belonging, 1,332; and the average daily attendance was 1,111.

The whole cost of the schools for the year was $23,097 55. Teachers' salaries, $14,106. There is a city superintendent, at $1,200 salary. During the year a fine school building has been erected at an expense of about $50,000.

LEWISTON, *Maine*.

The population in 1860 was 7,424. The number of children of school age—4 to 21—was 3,598 in 1867.

In that portion of the city where the schools are graded there were 12 primary schools, with 12 teachers; 5 intermediate schools, with 5 teachers; one grammar school, with a principal and three assistants; and one high school, with a principal and one assistant; in all, 32 schools and 36 teachers, besides 13 ungraded schools, with 13 teachers, in the rural districts.

The whole number of pupils in attendance during the year was 1,961, with an average attendance of 1,430.

The high school building has two large class-rooms and a hall for the whole school, and the grammar school building has ten spacious rooms and a large assembly hall, erected at an expense of $40,000.

No account of expenses or salaries given.

LOUISVILLE, *Kentucky*.

The city of Louisville contained a population of 68,033 in 1860.

The number of pupils enrolled during the year 1866-'67 was 12,271; the average daily attendance was 7,071.

The public schools are under the management of a board of trustees, twenty-four in number, two being chosen from each of the twelve wards of the city. The officers of the board are a president, vice-president, chosen from the members, and a secretary and superintendent, not belonging to the board. There are sixteen standing committees for the special duties assigned to them.

Besides the male and female high schools, the public schools are classified as grammar, intermediate, and primary schools. There are four grammar, eight intermediate, and three primary schools. The grammar department includes the 1st, 2d, and 3d grades; the intermediate department, the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades; and the primary, the 7th, 8th, 9th, and 10th grades. The average number of pupils for each teacher in the grammar department is fixed at 30; in the intermediate, at 40; and in the primary, at 50.

In each grammar school there is one principal, a male teacher, also one head assistant in the male department, and one in the female department. In each intermediate school, also, there is a male principal, and in each primary school, where the average daily attendance is over 400, there is a male principal.

Instruction in the German language is limited to six schools.

The course of study in the female high school includes a term of four years. The board of instruction consists of a principal and other professors and teachers, as designated and elected by the board of trustees of the male high school, female high school, and public schools of the city.

Candidates for admission to this school must be twelve years of age, and pass a satisfactory examination in the branches taught in the first grade of the female department of the grammar schools.

The faculty of the male high school consists of a principal and such other professors and tutors as shall be designated and elected by the board of trustees of the public schools. The course of study extends through four years. The qualifications for admission are the same as for admission to the female high school.

The branches of study in both the high schools embrace the higher mathematics, the natural sciences, history, rhetoric, and the modern languages. Latin is also one of the branches in the female high school, and Latin and Greek and bookkeeping are among those of the male high school.

The number of teachers employed was 177, including music and German teachers. The amount paid for salaries was $110,847 12; for the ward schools, excluding the high schools, and the salaries of the special teachers, $85,506 95. The total current expenses for the year were $142,149 81; for the ward schools alone, $99,158 12. The cost per scholar, on the average attendance, was $20 10.

LOWELL, *Massachusetts.*

The population of Lowell in 1860 was 36,827, and in 1865 30,090. The number of school children from five to fifteen years of age in May, 1867, was 6,052.

There are 48 primary schools, with 50 female teachers; 8 grammar schools, with 7 male and 37 female teachers; 1 high school, with 4 male and 3 female teachers; 1 vocal music teacher, male, and one (male) of penmanship; total, 57 schools and 103 teachers.

The average number belonging to all the schools, 5,234; the average attendance, 4,642.

The amount paid for salaries or tuition was $56,943 99; the amount paid for incidentals, $18,286 08; total current expenses, $75,230 07; expenditures for school-houses, $31,322 85; total expenditures for the year, $106,552 92.

Cost per scholar per annum for tuition on total number of scholars, $10 88; for tuition on average attendance, $12 27; for tuition and incidentals on average number belonging, $14 37½; for tuition and incidentals on average attendance, $16 20; for tuition, incidentals, and 6 per cent. on property on average attendance, $18 53; property valuation of city about $21,000,000.

The mayor and president of the common council, *ex-officio*, together with twelve persons elected for the term of two years, (one annually from each ward,) constitute the school committee. Vacancies are filled by a joint vote of the school committee and the board of aldermen in convention.

The superintendent of public schools is elected by ballot at the first meeting of the board.

No scholar under five years can be admitted into the primary schools. Scholars shall be instructed in reading, spelling, arithmetic, (mental,) primary geography, writing, drawing on slate and blackboard, and singing. In the

grammar schools the same studies are pursued, and in addition history and book keeping.

In the high school there is an English and a classical course. In the English course the studies are algebra, physical geography, physiology, general history, natural philosophy, chemistry, geometry, higher arithmetic, English grammar, astronomy, and rhetoric. These are indispensable for a full course. Other studies are allowed by special permission. The study of Latin and Greek is pursued in the classical course.

Salary of the principal of high school, $2,000; for three male assistants, each $1,500; two female assistants, each $550; for seven male principals of grammar schools, each $1,500; for one female assistant, $800 50; for first assistants each $450; for other assistants, first year, $400, second, $425, third, $450; for teacher in penmanship, $1,500; for teacher in vocal music, $1,500; for teachers in primary schools, each $400, for first year; $425 second year; and $450 third year. For temporary service, male teachers $3 per day; for female teachers in high school $1 25 per day; for female teachers in other schools $1 per day.

The children of non-residents, according to the rules of the board, are charged tuition as follows: for those who enter the high school $10 per term, prepaid; in the grammar school $5 per term; and in the primary schools $3 per term.

MADISON, *Wisconsin.*

The population of Madison in 1860 was 6,511, and in 1865 about 12,000. In 1866 there were 3,366 children entitled by law to attend the schools. The number of pupils attending school was 1,347; for 1867 there were 1,626.

The board of education consists of eight members, the mayor being one, ex-officio. The officers of the board are a president, clerk, treasurer and superintendent of schools. Committees are appointed on finance, text-books, examination of teachers, building, and fuel. There is also a visiting committee for the high school and for the schools in each ward.

The schools are classified as primary, intermediate, grammar, senior grammar, and high schools. In the primary department the pupils commence with the alphabet, and two years are occupied in this department, there being three terms in each year. In the intermediate, grammar, and senior grammar departments, there are also two years occupied, and each year is divided in the same way into three terms.

The course of study in the high school occupies two years, also of three terms each, embracing the following branches: higher arithmetic and algebra, history, physiology and hygiene, geometry, natural philosophy, rhetoric, Constitution of the United States, mental philosophy, astronomy, geology, botany, ancient history, and moral philosophy. Latin, French, and German may be pursued by those who wish in place of some of the other branches, and Greek may be studied during the second year.

The supervision of the schools is given specially to a superintendent, who acts under the advice of the board of education, and is required to visit each school as often as once in each week, to assist teachers in the classification and promotion of pupils, and cause the course of study prescribed by the board to be strictly followed. His salary is $1,500. The principal of the senior grammar school has a salary of $1,000. Female principals of ward schools receive $440; female teachers who have been in the employ of the board more than two terms receive $400, and for the first two terms, $320. The whole expenses of the boards for the year ending December 31, 1866, were $9,436 58. The cost per pupil, estimated on the average attendance for the fall term, (the average attendance for the year not being given,) was $9 75 per annum. The number of teachers employed in all the schools was seventeen.

With regard to the school accommodations, while they are represented by

the superintendent as inadequate, the hope is expressed that the want may be soon supplied, and in the account of the new fourth ward school-house he finds cause for praising the liberality of the people in providing it, while he at the same time deems it a pledge of better things to come. He says it is pronounced by the State superintendent to be "the best arranged school building in the State."

MANCHESTER, *New Hampshire.*

The population of Manchester in 1860 was 20,109.

The board of education consists of eight members, one from each ward of the city, under the name of "school committee."

In 1867 there were 55 schools of all grades, consisting of 1 high school for boys and girls; 6 grammar schools; 1 intermediate; 12 middle schools; 26 primary; and 9 mixed schools in rural districts.

In the high school there is a master and 2 assistants; in the six grammar schools are 6 masters and 9 assistants; in the middle schools are 12 teachers; in the primary, 26 teachers; in the rural districts there are 10 teachers; making in all 67, besides 2 music teachers.

The whole number of pupils enrolled in all the schools was 2,281 males and 2,247 females, or 4,528 in all; in the high school, 50 males and 80 females. The average yearly attendance was 2,628; in the high school, 103; the average daily attendance was 4,070, and in the high school 99.

The amount paid for salaries was $24,472 34; for other expenses, $8,204 21; total, $32,676 55.

MEMPHIS, *Tennessee.*

The Memphis city schools are under the exclusive management and control of a board of visitors, consisting of as many members as there are wards in the city. Each member is chosen by ballot by such voters as are entitled to vote for mayor and aldermen. The officers of the board are a president, a secretary, a treasurer, and a superintendent of schools.

In 1860 the number of pupils admitted to the public schools was 1,682. The length of the school year is 40 weeks. In 1860 the amount expended for salaries of teachers and superintendent was $17,398 75; total expense, $23,896 35.

The schools are divided into three departments, primary, junior, and senior. In the senior department are taught algebra, geometry, moral, mental and natural philosophy, physiology, chemistry, astronomy, Latin and Greek.

The number of teachers employed in 1860 was 23, 5 male and 18 female. The salary of the principal of the senior male school was $1,200, and that of the female principal of the female senior school, $900. The salary of each of the female teachers in the other schools was $600, with the exception of two who received $700.

MILWAUKEE, *Wisconsin.*

The population of Milwaukee in 1860 was 45,246. On the 31st of August, 1867, there were 22,135 children of school age residing in the city. The teachers' reports show 9,424 enrolled in the public schools during the year. The average daily attendance was 4,908. There were reported 6,429 as attending private schools, leaving 6,282 not reported as attending any school.

The first board of school commissioners was appointed in 1846, and the first schools organized by the board were opened in June, 1846. The board consists of eighteen members, two from each of the nine wards of the city, with a superintendent and a clerk. The superintendent has a salary of $2,000; the clerk, $600.

The schools are classified as primary, intermediate, and grammar schools;

besides which there are established what are called branch schools. The number of pupils to each teacher in the primary schools is an average of 90. The smallest primary school averages 65 pupils to a teacher; the largest, 103. The superintendent in his annual report remarks that "this is about 50 per cent. more than should be assigned to a teacher. Children are promoted to the intermediate department as soon as they can read readily in the Second Reader. Before being promoted to the grammar school they are required to have a thorough knowledge of the fundamental rules of arithmetic, and to pass an examination in the primary geography. Reading and spelling receive more attention than any other branches, spelling being taught principally by written exercises. Melodeons are in nearly all the schools, and singing receives a due share of attention. By an act of the legislature it became the duty of the board to open a high school on or before the 1st day of January, 1868."

The amount paid for salaries in 1866-'67 was $49,654 61. The total expenses of the schools were $60,836 52, making the cost per scholar, on average attendance, $14 05. The number of teachers employed was 151. The salary paid the principals of grammar schools was $1,200. The largest salary paid to any female assistant was $450. The female teachers of the branch schools received salaries of from $360 to $600.

MOBILE, *Alabama*.

The public schools of the city and county of Mobile were made independent of the general school system of the State by a special act of January 10, 1826, creating the "Mobile school commissioners," with full power "to establish and regulate schools within the county, and to devise and put in force such plans for the increase of knowledge, for the educating of youth and promoting the cause of learning as to them may appear expedient." All national or State land grants appropriated to the county for school purposes, the revenue from auction sales, licenses for theatres, shows, &c., fines, penalties for certain offences, and a tax fee of $2 on every suit brought within the county, and 25 per cent. on the ordinary county tax, were set apart as a school fund. Under this act schools were established in the county district and in the city, and by the report of the commissioner for 1859, it appears that the system for the city of Mobile embraced a central high school for boys, and a similar school for girls, together with grammar, intermediate, and primary schools. Out of the school population more than one-half were in the public schools, and the system is not less efficient than the admirable provision of Boston. Pupils in the primary and intermediate departments are instructed free of charge. In the grammar and high school tuition is $2 50 or $4 per month respectively. More than one-half of the cost of the high school was borne by the income from tuition. The whole cost of the city schools was $9,497 for a total attendance of 1,422 pupils.

The population of the city of Mobile in 1860 was 29,258, of whom 20,854 were free whites, 817 free blacks, and 7,587 slaves. The following statistics of the city public schools are gathered from a report of the Mobile school commissioners to the State superintendent, dated March, 1866.

Average daily attendance for the term ending April, 1865: girls' high school, 59; girls' senior grammar school, 157; girls' junior grammar school, 111; boys' senior grammar school, 89; boys' junior grammar school, 88; girls' intermediate school, 105; boys' intermediate school, 85; girls' primary school, 114; boys' primary school, 122; Washington district school, boys and girls, 130; Bay district school, boys and girls, 23; Orange Grove district school, boys 78, girls 98; Franklin district school, boys 87, girls 98; first ward district school, boys and girls, 62; Creole school, (colored,) 21; total attendance in all the public schools, 1,531.

NASHVILLE, *Tennessee.*

The public school system in the city of Nashville originated in an address of Professor J. H. Ingraham, in 1848, on the importance of universal free education for the city. This address was founded on arguments drawn from the success of such schools in Boston, New Orleans, and Natchez. In 1852 Mr. Alfred Hume, an eminent classical teacher in Nashville, visited the principal cities where public schools existed, and on his return submitted a report to the city authorities and people of Nashville, in consequence of which a system of schools was organized, a board of education being instituted, and the first school-house commenced the same year.

In 1861 the board of education consisted of eight members, having as officers a president, secretary, treasurer, and a superintendent of schools.

The system embraces high, grammar, and primary schools. The primary schools receive children from 4 to 10 years of age. The high school has male and female departments; candidates for admission must be 12 years of age. The course of study extends through four years, and embraces studies necessary to fit its graduates for business or for college.

In 1857 the number of teachers employed was 25. The average number of pupils belonging to the schools was 1,263; the average daily attendance, 1,080; per cent. of daily attendance, 85.5.

In the year 1857 a high school was organized, including a classical and English course for boys, and a female high school.

NATCHEZ, *Mississippi.*

The city of Natchez, in 1860, had a population of 6,612.

The public schools originated with Dr. A. P. Merrill, on a suggestion of Mr. Barnard, of Connecticut, made during an educational tour through the south in 1842–'43. In furtherance of Dr. Merrill's efforts, a spacious lot and building was donated to the city, in 1844, by Alvarez Fick, a northern resident; and an ordinance, accepting the same for the purpose of a public school, was passed instituting a board of visitors, with authority to enlarge and improve the premises and building, and to employ teachers. In February, 1845, the first public school opened under Joshua Peal, a graduate of Yale college, with seventy pupils, and the number was increased, before the close of the year, to nearly four hundred, distributed into primary, junior, and senior departments; the boys and girls in separate rooms, and the higher classes pursuing the most advanced studies of the best private schools. The pupils were from all classes, rich and poor, and the course of instruction such that, at the end of the third year, fifteen had been prepared for college, and a large number were specially fitted for business. The influence of the public school designated the Natchez Institute is thus stated in a published report: "Many families have moved into the city to enjoy its benefits; there is an increased demand for dwellings at enhanced rent, and visible improvement in the deportment of our youth, and an assurance to all our citizens, the merchant, the mechanic, and laborer, that their children will have the advantage of the best education, and that not a single child will be brought up in ignorance, vice, and want." We have no recent statistics.

NEW BRUNSWICK, *New Jersey.*

The population of New Brunswick is about 15,000.

The number of children between 5 and 18, in 1867, was 3,664. The number enrolled in the public schools, 1,912; in private and denominational schools, 1,206; not in any school, 556.

By special charter granted in 1855 the public schools are under the control

of a board of education, consisting of 12 members, who hold their office for two years. They are elected by the people.

The schools are graded, consisting of primary, grammar, and high school departments. There are four grades in the primary and grammar departments, each grade occupying a year. In the high school there is a three years' course. The principal of the high schools is also the superintendent of schools. There is also one male vice-principal of the high school. All the other teachers in the schools, of every grade, are females, of whom there are 25.

The public schools are free, for the support of which the board of education is allowed to raise by tax $4 for each child within the city limits between 5 and 18 years of age. About 50 cents per child is also received from the State appropriation.

The expenses for salaries during the year 1867 were $9,783 12; for all school purposes, $14,370 79.

Rutger's College is situated in the city, which has a preparatory department. The State Agricultural School is a department of Rutger's College. There is also a theological seminary of the Reformed Dutch church located in the city.

NEWBURYPORT, *Massachusetts.*

The population of Newburyport in 1860 was 13,401. The number of children between the ages of 5 and 15 years, in 1867, was 2,994.

The board of education consists of what is called a committee of *twelve members*, two from each ward, elected annually by the people.

The city has 16 primary schools, 1 mixed grammar and primary; 4 male and 5 female grammar schools; and 1 male and 1 female high school; 28 schools of every grade; and the number of teachers, 7 males and 42 females.

The whole number of different scholars during the year was 3,198; the average number belonging was 2,222, and the average attendance was 1,854; the whole number of seats provided was 2,332.

The whole amount of expenditure for the year was $25,592 01.

The amount paid for salaries, in 1867, $21,870; and incidental expenses, $3,722.

Two of the male principals receive $1,200 each; four male principals and one assistant, each $900. The female teachers receive from $325 to $450 per year.

In addition to the high schools above named there is an endowed school of the same grade called the Putnam Free Academy, which maintains a high character.

NEWARK, *New Jersey.*

The population of Newark in 1860 was 71,941. The whole number of pupils in all the public schools, excluding the evening schools, was 11,041. The average daily attendance was 5,722.

The board of education, having charge of the public schools, consists of 26 members, two being residents of each of the thirteen wards of the city. There is also a secretary and city superintendent. His salary is $2,000. The standing committees of the board are on finance, accounts, school-houses, heating, cleaning, &c., teachers, normal school, high school, evening schools, industrial schools, colored schools, supplies, school-books, printing. There is also a committee of the common council on public schools, of three members.

The schools are classified, in respect to the course of studies, as primary, grammar, high, and normal schools. There is 1 high school and 1 normal school. There are 11 ward grammar schools and 11 ward primary schools. There are also 3 ward primary industrial schools, 1 colored school, and 4 evening schools, 1 for females and 3 for males.

The age for admission to primary schools is not less than six years. The

primary schools have three classes, each class occupying one year. The grammar schools are arranged in the same way, and occupy three years. The course of study in the high school occupies four years, embracing the higher mathematics, the natural sciences, modern and ancient languages, history, English literature, and, in the female department, botany in place of Greek. For admission to the normal school applicants are required to pass a satisfactory examination in all the branches of study necessary to enter the lowest class, and sign a written declaration of their intention to teach in the schools of the city. The pupils of the colored school use the same text-books as the primary and grammar schools, and the course of study is such as the acquisitions of the pupils demand.

The primary industrial schools are established for poor and destitute children, of both sexes, of such ages as may be thought advisable to admit for instruction in such studies and pursuits as may be deemed expedient. The number of pupils in the three primary industrial schools in average daily attendance was 214. The total cost of these schools for 1866 was $2,996 83. The cost per pupil, on average attendance, was $14.

The salary of the principal of the high school is, for the first year, $1,800; second, $1,900; third, $2,000. The vice-principal, female, receives a salary of $800 the first year, and $900 the third. The principals of the grammar schools receive $1,300 the first year, and $1,500 the third. In the primary schools the highest salary for female principals is $500; the lowest for assistants or teachers, $300.

The amount expended for teachers in the day schools was $57,145 43. The whole number of teachers employed in the day schools was 128; males 18, females 110. The average amount paid to each teacher was $446 45. The total expense of the schools for the year was $84,182 77, making the cost per pupil, on average attendance in the day-schools, $14 71.

New Haven, *Connecticut.*

New Haven was organized as a town in 1638-'39; a portion of its territory and people were incorporated as a city in 1784, and a still smaller portion, as a city school district, in 1853, embracing in 1860 a population of 39,267, which had amounted in 1867 to 45,000. The school affairs of the city are managed by a board of education consisting of twelve members, three of whom are chosen annually, together with a clerk, collector, and treasurer. The members serve without pay, but they elect a superintendent, who receives a salary of $2,000 a year. These officers administer the rules and regulations of the board, under the supervision of three standing committees—a committee on schools, a committee on buildings, and a committee on finance.

The public school dates back to the first year of the establishment of the town. In 1639 there is a record of a public school, and the appointment of a committee to consider "what yearly allowance is meet to be given to it out of the common stock of the town." From that day to this, common schools have been maintained in New Haven as fundamental to the prosperity and virtue of the Commonwealth. A native of New Haven—of Connecticut parentage—of mature age, unable to read the English tongue, would be looked upon as a prodigy.

The schools are organized on the graded system. From 50 to 60 scholars usually are grouped in one room. In the largest buildings there are 12 rooms, and about 600 scholars, under the supervision of a principal, with 12 assistants. For the accommodation of all the schools there are 91 rooms. There are seats for 4,715 pupils. The number of scholars registered in 1867 was 5,361; the

average daily attendance was 4,136; the per cent. of attendance for all schools, .882.

The course of study before reaching the high school extends through seven years, and the average age of the pupils at the close of this course is from 12 to 13 years. The studies of the last year are reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history, book-keeping, and composition.

The course of study in the high school embraces the higher mathematics, the natural sciences, and the Latin, Greek, French, and German languages. Both sexes are taught together, and the number of each is nearly equal. There is also the old Hopkins grammar school, which stands on its own basis, and is not connected with the town high school.

The expenses for maintaining the schools for the year ending September 1, 1867, not including extraordinary outlays for new buildings, were nearly $80,000, making the cost per scholar upon average attendance $19 34, and $14 94 on the registered attendance.

Besides the ordinary expenses, the sum of $50,000 was applied chiefly for new buildings.

In accordance with Connecticut laws and usages, New Haven has a threefold political incorporation. In the first place, it is a town, electing annually a board of "selectmen" to administer its affairs; second, a portion of territory, with its inhabitants, is set apart and incorporated as a city, electing a mayor, aldermen, and common council, who superintend the municipal affairs. The city limits are the same as those of the largest of the three school districts into which the town is divided, and the inhabitants in this third district elect a board of education. The present boundaries of the school district were established in 1853.

NEW ORLEANS, *Louisiana.*

With a population of 168,675 in 1860, the average attendance of pupils in the public schools of New Orleans for the year ending December 31, 1866, was 11,920; for the quarter ending March 31, 1867, 13,362.

Agreeably to an ordinance by the common council of the city of New Orleans, approved July 11, 1866, the general administration of the public schools of the city is intrusted to a board of directors composed of 24 members, six from each district, elected by the common council, with authority to choose a president, vice-president, secretary, superintendent, and such other officers as the board may deem proper, all of whom shall hold office during the pleasure of the board. Nine members constitute a quorum.

The board has under its control the annual appropriation for the support of public schools, not more than one-twelfth of which can be drawn monthly from the treasury. On the monthly pay-rolls a detailed statement is required of salaries of the superintendent, teachers, and other employés, and other expenses incurred by the board. The board is required also to make quarterly reports to the common council on the condition of the schools, showing the number of pupils admitted into each school, the number left, the average daily attendance for the quarter, with a detailed statement of receipts and expenditures. They are also required to make, at the close of the annual session, an annual report, giving full information concerning the schools.

The employés of the board are a superintendent, secretary, sergeant-at-arms, and custodian of depository and a librarian.

Organization.—1. "The schools shall be known as primary schools, grammar schools, and high schools, for the instruction and education of all white children of the city of New Orleans.

2. "As many primary schools shall be established throughout the city as may be found necessary for instruction in the rudiments of reading, writing, spelling

and arithmetic. They shall have two departments, known as primary divisions A and B.

3. "The grammar schools shall be for the instruction of children between 6 and 16 years of age, residing in the local school districts, created by the board of directors, and shall have four distinct departments, the subdivisions of which shall depend upon the numbers of the pupils and the general prosperity of the schools.

4. "In the fourth department there shall be taught the studies prescribed for the primary schools.

5. "In the third department the pupils shall be advanced in spelling, reading, and writing, and instructed in the elements of geography and intellectual arithmetic.

6. "In the second department—first assistant's—the following branches shall be taught: reading, with orthography, definitions, and the principles of punctuation, writing, modern geography, elementary grammar, and arithmetic.

7. "In the first department—principal's—the pupils shall pursue and complete their studies in arithmetic and grammar, review modern geography, be familiarized with the history of the United States, and exercised weekly in dictation, elocution, and original composition.

8. "The high schools shall be for the education of all white children of the city over 13 years of age who are competent to pursue the branches taught in said high schools. Such branches shall be taught in said high schools as may from time to time be prescribed by the board."

In April, 1867, the boys' high schools of the city were consolidated, and now form the New Orleans Central High School, the faculty of which consists of the principal, who has charge of the English department, and a professor in each of the following branches: mathematics and engineering, natural sciences, commercial science, and drawing, ancient languages and modern languages. The full course of instruction occupies four years. Students may, however, pursue a partial course by omitting the study of the ancient languages. A gymnasium has been constructed for the benefit of the school, being the first attempt to provide for systematic physical training in the public schools of the city.

There are two girls' high schools, having female principals with a salary of $1,200 each. The course of study occupies four years, and embracing the branches usually taught in schools of the same class.

There are employed in the schools of all grades 253 teachers—29 males and 224 females. The amount paid for salaries of teachers in the high schools was $22,952 65, and the total expense was $27,485 89, making the cost of instruction per pupil, $88 45. The amount paid for salaries of the teachers of the district schools was $173,387 83. Total expenditures for schools, $253,542 49, making an average cost of instruction per pupil, $21 19. School-books, stationery, &c., are furnished to pupils of all the public schools free.

School-houses.—The public school-houses and grounds are dedicated *exclusively* to the use of the schools organized by authority of the board for the *gratuitous education* of all white youths of the city over six years of age, and of such other white persons as are regularly admitted to the high, the normal, and the night schools. It shall be the duty of the superintendent and of the teachers of the several schools to maintain this dedication inviolate.

Public-school Library.—There is a public-school library open for visitors and readers every day in the week, (Sundays excepted,) from 8 a. m. to 9 p. m., the free use of which is given only to the teachers and supernumeraries of all the public schools of the city, the directors of the public schools, and to the mayor and members of the common council of the city. Pupils of the public

schools become subscribers by the purchase of monthly tickets at twenty-five cents each, to be obtained from the librarian only; but when a pupil has purchased thirty-six tickets he becomes a life member.

Clergymen, editors of newspapers, employés of the city government. and officers of the army and navy have free access to the library, without the privilege of removing books therefrom.

NEWPORT, *Rhode Island.*

The population of Newport in 1860 was 10,508; in 1865 it was 12,688. In 1865 the school population between 5 and 16 years of age was 2,578; the number attending public schools during the year was 1,248.

The school committee consists of twelve members, having as officers a chairman, treasurer, and a superintendent of schools, with a salary of $1,800.

The schools are classified as ungraded, primary, intermediate, grammar, and high schools, of which there are ungraded: primary, 9; intermediate, 7; grammar, 3, and 1 high school. The schools, with two exceptions, are mixed schools—boys and girls—and the superintendent in his report says that, as they were a novelty, he had been surprised to hear scarcely a criticism expressed upon the system, which seemed to indicate that it worked well. There are evening schools continued through the year. The number of pupils attending private and denominational schools was 859; not attending any school, 469.

All promotions in the public schools are based upon thorough, written examinations. The superintendent says that, whereas expulsion from school was formerly a matter of daily occurrence, there had been made so great a reform that the expulsion of a pupil is now very rare. Meetings of teachers are held once in two weeks.

The chairman of the committee, in his report, after referring to the successful labors of the superintendent for the year, says: "It is the firm opinion of the committee that a great work has been inaugurated for the schools of Newport within the last two years. The whole system has been raised and improved." He says further: "Before the improvements in our school system can be carried much further, the problem of a central school-house must be met and solved. The insufficiency of accommodations, in this respect, has become too great for endurance. There is but one building in the city—that on Willow street—which any patriotic citizen can show to a stranger with pride, and even that requires internal alterations, to adapt it to the school system now generally adopted."

The expenditures for the public schools during the year 1867 were $25,508 45; for salaries, $12,859 73.

NEW YORK CITY.

The population of the city of New York in 1860 was 805,658, and in 1865, 724,386, a diminution attributable to the disturbed condition of business, and the immense draft on the population by the war, and the number who left the city to escape the national conscription. The city is divided for school purposes into seven districts, and each district, at the charter election, elects one commissioner of common schools, who holds his office three years—one-third going out every year—making twenty-one commissioners, who constitute a board of education for the city and county of New York. At the same election there is also elected one trustee for each of the 22 wards, who holds his office for five years, making 110 trustees, or 22 ward boards of trustees. In

addition to the board of education for the city, and the board of trustees for each ward, there is a school inspector for each district, nominated every year by the mayor, and approved by the board of education, who holds his office three years, making 21 inspectors for the city, or three school inspectors for each district.

The board of education has the general management of the whole system of common schools, and other educational institutes authorized by law to receive any portion of money appropriated or raised by tax for common schools, with power to receive and hold property, both real and personal; to make all needful rules and regulations for the government of the schools; to appoint a city superintendent of schools, with one or more assistants, and a superintendent of school buildings; to estimate and make requisitions on the board of supervisors for the city and county of New York, in November of each year, for such amount of money as they deem necessary for the expenses of public instruction, which sum the supervisors are required to raise and collect by tax, with this restriction: that the sum to be raised shall at least be equal to one-twentieth of one per cent. of the value of the real and personal property of the city, and that the aggregate asked for by the board of education shall not exceed the sum of ten dollars for each pupil who shall have actually attended and been taught the preceding year in the school entitled to participate in the apportionment. The attendance is ascertained by a report of the principal of each school, in which is returned the number on the register at the commencement of each year, and the number admitted during the year. Judging from the difference between the average attendance in 1867, (90,220,) and the registered attendance, or the whole number taught, (209,620,) it would seem that many pupils, members of different schools in the same year, are registered twice.

It is the duty of the school inspectors to examine and audit every expense certified as correct by a majority of the trustees of any ward; to examine any school in the district at least once in a quarter, and report to the board of education and the board of trustees annually.

The trustees have the custody of all the property used for or belonging to the schools of their ward; they can employ teachers who hold the authorized certificates; furnish needful supplies, and make all needful repairs on school premises, and perform such other duties as the board of education may prescribe.

The city and assistant superintendents shall visit every school under the charge of the board as often as once a year; inquire into all matters relating to the government, instruction, books, studies, and conduct of such schools; advise with the trustee; examine into qualifications of persons proposed as teachers in presence of two inspectors, and grant licenses to those found qualified, and revoke the same for cause; make annually a report to the State superintendent, and, in every way practicable, to promote sound education, elevate the qualifications of teachers, and advance the interests of the school.

For the administration of the schools, there are employed the following officers, at the salaries annexed, as follows:

One clerk and a treasurer, at a salary of $5,000; one auditor, $4,000; one assistant clerk, $2,500; three assistant clerks, at $2,000 each; one, at $1,750, and two assistant clerks, at $1,000 each; one superintendent of schools, $4,500; one assistant superintendent, at $4,000, one at $3,500, two at $3,000, and one at $1,000; one clerk to city superintendent, $900; one superintendent of buildings and repairs, $4,000; one assistant superintendent of buildings and repairs, $3,500; one engineer, $3,000; one inspector of fuel, $1,500; one porter, $1,250; and one messenger, $1,200; making a total expense for supervision and care of $55,600.

The public schools of New York have a general classification into primary and grammar schools, the free academy and normal school.

The primary department has six grades, and the grammar school department

has seven grades, with a supplementary course, for special instruction to such students as may be found qualified, who may desire to acquire a more thorough acquaintance with the higher branches of arithmetic, the essential principles of algebra and geometry; a more advanced knowledge of elementary astronomy; the most important outlines of ancient and modern history; the principles of natural philosophy, chemistry, physiology and hygiene, English literature in its varied departments; and in the male departments, the principles of trigonometry and surveying, a knowledge of constitutional law, and the science of government, with the outlines of political economy.

The free academy, or now designated the city college, is designed to furnish, by a four-years' course, all the privileges and advantages of the best colleges of the country, free to all boys of 14 years of age, who have attended the common schools for twelve months, and shall have passed the requisite examinations.

There is a normal school for the instruction of female teachers, which holds its sessions from 9 o'clock a. m. to 1 o'clock p. m. every Saturday in the year, except the prescribed holidays.

Besides the public schools named above there are colored schools, under the care of a special committee, and primary schools, under special arrangements of the board.

There are twelve "corporate schools" connected with the various asylums, and other incorporated charitable associations, which are required to report to the board of education, as they are entitled by law to participate in the apportionment of the public money for school purposes.

The last report of the city superintendent for the year ending December 31, 1867, says: "The whole number of school buildings under the charge of the board of education is 94. Of these, 35 contain three separate departments, male, female, and primary; 8, two departments, male and primary; 5, female and primary; 5, both sexes and primary; 1, male and female; 2, two female departments and primaries; 2, with one department only for both sexes; and 36 separate primary schools; making in all 187 separate and distinct departments or schools, viz: 44 grammar schools for boys, including colored schools; 45 grammar schools for girls, including colored schools; 7 grammar schools for both sexes, including colored schools; 55 primary departments for both sexes, including colored schools; 36 primary schools for both sexes, including colored schools; making 187 in all."

The whole number of pupils, in grammar schools and primary departments, averaged for the year 65,139, and the whole number taught was 147,986; the average number in primary schools was 16,459, and the whole number taught was 42,068; the average number in the colored schools was 737, and the whole number taught, 2,056; in the evening schools the average number was 7,479, and the whole number taught was 16,510; in the normal schools the average attendance was 406, and the whole number taught, 1,000; in the corporate schools the average attendance was 6,074, and the whole number taught was 16,567.

The whole average attendance was 96,294, and the whole number returned as taught was 226,187, which includes probably many pupils transferred from other schools where they were before registered and are thus returned twice, and in some instances three and four times.

The whole amount of expenses for the city ward schools of New York for 1866 was as follows:

For salaries of teachers of all kinds		$1,307,363 64
For salaries of janitors		70,098 71
For incidental expenses		157,978 82
For free academy, 1st salaries faculty	$28,956 48	
2d incidentals	7,706 17	
		36,662 65

For support of evening schools, viz:		
For salaries of teachers and janitors..........	$70, 142 73	
For repairs, supplies and sundries............	747 88	
		$86, 890 61
For rents of school premises		24, 280 80
For superintendents, &c., of board of education..............		50, 209 33
For apportionments to corporate schools		37, 673 74
For supplies through depository, maps, books, &c		166, 590 84
For gas for ward and evening schools		18, 896 16
For repairs of buildings through shop		5, 484 93
For incidental expenses board of education		9, 325 10
For payments on special appropriations		
For normal schools, 1st salaries teachers	$5, 737 46	
2d incidental, &c.........	2, 293 73	
		8, 031 [illegible]
For pianos, payments for, &c.............................		3, 600 00
For colored schools, salaries	$19, 916 02	
incidentals, &c..........	6, 821 03	
		26, 737 05
For over-draft on city for 1865.............		78, 715 75
Total expenses for 1866.........................		2, 372, 833 76

To this amount has been added for 1868 the item of $50,000 for another building for colored children; and of $552,000 for sites, constructing, furnishing buildings, and other items not before provided for.

NILES, *Michigan*.

The population of Niles in 1860 was 2,896; in 1867, 6,000. The territorial extent of the city is four square miles.

The system of public instruction is that of free schools, consisting of a union (central) school and branch (ward) schools. There are eight members of the board of education. In the union school there is a primary department, with three teachers; a second primary department, with two teachers; an intermediate and a grammar department, with two teachers each; and a high school in which are taught Latin, Greek, the natural sciences, French, German, English, and mathematics, astronomy, belles lettres, mental and moral science, and drawing, having a principal and four female teachers. The schools are all mixed for boys and girls.

The number of scholars between 5 and 20 years of age in 1865 was 1,356; enrolled in the public schools, 1,023; in 1866 the whole number was 1,416; enrolled in the public schools, 1,033; in 1867 the whole number was 1,527; enrolled, 1,052. The number of teachers in 1867 was 18, and the amount paid for salaries was $6,626 25.

There are belonging to the system of instruction two libraries of reference and circulation.

NORWICH, *Connecticut*.

The population of Norwich in 1860 was 14,048. The number of scholars registered in 1867 was 1,366. The average daily attendance through the year was 762.

The schools of the city of Norwich are not under the same board of control as those of the town of Norwich, outside of the city limits; but they are distinguished as belonging to the central school district. This central district

corresponding to the city in its limits, is divided into sections corresponding to the number of school-houses. Of these there are five, viz: for the Broadway, School street, Broad street, Providence street, and Roath avenue schools.

The board of education consists of nine members, who serve for a term of three years, one-third being chosen annually on the third Monday in September by the citizens of the district. The officers of the board are a chairman, secretary, and treasurer. There are committees for visiting, on finance, on supplies, and on examination of teachers.

There are in the Broadway school six departments, viz: alphabet, primary, secondary, intermediate, junior and senior. In each of the other schools the scholars are classified in four departments.

In addition to the schools of the central district, which are controlled by the board of education of the district, and independent of that board, is a school of the highest grade called the Norwich Free Academy, instituted by a few individuals, who erected the buildings and endowed it with a fund of $100,000, to which a recent addition of $30,000 has been made. Instruction is free to all within the limits of the town of Norwich who pass the requisite examination. This academy has a principal and five assistants. The number of pupils in 1866-'67 was 91; boys 44, girls 47. The income from the funds was $8,000; from library fund, $500.

There are 26 teachers in the schools of the central district, whose salaries are as follows: principal, first year, $1,600; second year, $1,700; third year and afterwards, $1,800; first assistant, $600; second assistant, $550. Juniors and intermediates, first year, $450; second year, $500; third year and afterwards, $550. In the other schools, first year, $400; second year, $450; third year and afterwards, $500. Assistants in the lower grades, $360.

The expenses for 1866-'67 were $21,219 51, of which $12,569 18 was for salaries of teachers. The cost per pupil, on average attendance for the year, was $27 84.

OSWEGO, *New York*.

The population of Oswego in 1860 was 16,816. The whole number of children in the city between the ages 5 and 21 in 1865 was 7,774, and the whole population was 19,288.

The 23 schools are under the direction and management of a board elected by the people. One-half of the board are elected annually and hold their office two years. The secretary holds his office during the pleasure of the board, and is practically the superintendent of the city schools, although he has no powers except as he receives them from the board.

The schools are divided into four distinct grades: primary, junior, senior, and high school. There are 12 primary schools, with locations convenient to the homes of the children. The junior schools are located one in each of the four wards of the city, four in all. There are two senior schools, one on each side of the river, and one high school, for the whole city. For each grade is prescribed a three years' course of study, making, from the time of entering the primary school to the time of graduating at the high school, 12 years. In each grade there are three classes, each class being exactly together in all their studies, with one teacher to every 50 pupils. Each class requires a year to complete the prescribed course. Pupils are admitted in the spring at five years of age and over; but not entering at that time, they are not admitted during the year unless six years of age and over, and prepared to enter some class already organized. The effect of this arrangement is to prevent the confusion and inconvenience arising from the formation of new classes during the year, so that at the close of the year one class graduates from each school, and at the beginning of the year a new class comes in, and all the intermediate classes are advanced one year. By this arrangement the classification is kept perfect, each

teacher having from 40 to 50 pupils exactly together in all their studies. Aside from these thoroughly graded schools there are two or three schools of a somewhat peculiar character essential to any system of closely graded schools.

For the first five years the instruction is strictly oral, except the use of the spelling-book the fourth and fifth years, and the introduction of a book in arithmetic the fifth year. The oral instruction is based upon what is familiarly known as the "object method," and in conformity to Pestalozzian principles.

The whole number of pupils registered was 5,124; the average daily attendance, 2,932. The number of permanent teachers was 61. The number of scholars in private schools was 309. The amount paid for teachers' wages was $23,950 97; for libraries, $480 82; for apparatus, $205 15; for school-houses, &c., $1,619 10; for all other expenses, $10,523 27; making a total of $36,779 31.

The number of volumes in the school libraries was 2,632, valued at $2,100. There are seven wooden, four brick and one stone school buildings. The whole value of school buildings and lots is estimated at $105,700.

PHILADELPHIA, *Pennsylvania.*

The population of Philadelphia in 1860 was 565,529, and in 1867 was estimated at 800,000. The number of persons between 6 and 18 years of age in 1867 is returned 115,000.

The board of control, heretofore elected by the people, is now appointed by the judges of the court of common pleas, for the city and county of Philadelphia, and by the judges of the district court of said city and county, and hold their office for three years.

For school purposes the city is divided into twenty-seven sections, with a controller for each section, appointed as above stated.

The local boards consist of 12 members from each section, who are chosen annually by the people, and are called school directors. Each of the 27 controllers is, by law, *ex-officio* a member of the board of school directors, making the whole number of members of the board three hundred and fifty-one, (351.)

The number of school sittings in school buildings owned by the board of education is 62,100; the number in rented buildings and rooms is 17,900. The value of school property is $3,500,000. In 1865 the city councils authorized a loan of $1,000,000, to be expended in building school-houses in place of rented rooms.

The whole number of pupils belonging to the schools December 31, 1866, was 77,164, of which a fraction over one-half are males.

The number of schools under the control of the board was, at the last-named date, as follows: 1 high school for boys; 1 high and normal school for girls; 60 grammar schools, 30 of which are for boys and 30 for girls; 69 secondary schools; 187 primary schools, and 56 unclassified schools; making in all 374 schools.

These schools are under the direction of 79 male teachers and 1,235 female teachers; and managed by 27 controllers, 27 sectional boards, and 351 school directors.

The annual expenditure for the year ending December 31, 1866, was as follows:

Salaries of teachers	$545, 552 77
Rents of school-houses	42, 486 45
Ground rents	19, 173 96
Books and stationery	74, 999 92
Repairs and additions to school-houses	36, 140 25
Fuel	41, 482 53
Furnaces and stoves	10, 764 05

Janitors' wages	$47,406 33
Furniture	21,570 66
Printing and petty expenses	7,530 16
Clerk-hire	2,649 99
New school-house	13,481 67
General expenses	15,519 19
Total expenses for the year	878,757 93

There is no general superintendent of public schools, and the only officers, except the board of directors and controllers, are a president of the board of controllers, Mr. Edward Shippen; secretary, Mr. Henry W. Halliwell, and an assistant secretary.

The Central High School, established in 1839, is authorized to confer degrees of master of arts and bachelor of arts upon such as pass through the prescribed course of study successfully, and it has all the powers and privileges of other colleges in the State; and the course of studies adopted is similar to that of other colleges. A few of the students pursue a partial course, and receive certificates of proficiency upon completing it. The number receiving the degree of bachelor of arts for 1866 was 13; those in the partial course, 10.

The course of study in the girls' high school embraces, first, a general review of the studies required by regulation of teachers in the first school district of Pennsylvania. Second, a thorough course of advanced studies, designed for mental discipline and superior scholarship. Third, special instruction in moral science, (with reference to the art of teaching,) school organization, and discipline. Fourth, lectures on natural science, theory and practice of teaching. Fifth, practice in teaching, combined with observation in every department of the school.

The course of studies comprises not less than three years. The studies continued during the whole course are rhetoric, elocution, penmanship, American history, mensuration, local geography, Constitution of the United States, algebra, grammar, composition, analysis of language and of words, drawing, etymology, and vocal music.

English history, French history, physical geography, mental arithmetic, and moral science are taught the first half of the course; and when these are discontinued, physiology, geometry, ancient history, English and American literature, and geology are substituted.

The courses of studies in the other lower schools are similar to those of the same in other cities, where the schools are generally graded. The studies pursued are not given in their last annual report.

The following additional statements are obtained from the results of a census taken by the police force, under an order of Mayor McMichael, in accordance with a request of Mr. Shippen, president of the board of school controllers, sanctioned by said controllers:

Whole number, between 6 and 18 years,	in public schools	76,419
	in private schools	12,799
	in parochial schools	11,863
	at regular employment	20,902
	unemployed and not in schools	20,534
Total number between 6 and 18 years		142,517

The census report of pupils in public schools is 745 less than the school report, which probably arises from the imperfect registration of pupils, as the report does not apparently show the exact number of different pupils who have been registered.

The cost per scholar per annum for 1866 was as follows:

Upon school census for tuition alone	$3 76
Upon number enrolled	4 22
Upon average number belonging	8 22
Upon school census for tuition and incidentals	6 05
Upon number enrolled for tuition and incidentals	6 79
Upon average number belonging for tuition and incidentals	13 23
Upon average number belonging for tuition, incidental, and 6 per cent. on property	16 40

Same for high schools:

1st. For tuition alone	51 70
2d. For tuition and incidentals	68 47
3d. For tuition, incidentals, and 6 per cent. on buildings, &c	77 90

In 1867, on the petition of the teachers, an act was passed by the legislature incorporating the teachers of the public schools of the city and county of Philadelphia by the name of the Teacher's Institute, having for its object the professional improvement of its members by means of lectures, essays and discussions upon educational subjects, by practical illustration of modes of teaching, by the formation of a teachers' library, and such other modes as the corporation may determine; to create and keep alive a deeper public interest in education, to elevate the teacher's profession, and provide and dispose of funds for the relief of its members.

The institute was organized with Professor Riche, principal of the Central High School, as president, and already numbers upwards of 800 members.

PORTLAND, *Maine*.

The population of Portland in 1860 was 26,341.

There is 1 high school, with a boys' department and a girls' department, under 1 principal and 10 assistants.

There are 4 grammar schools for boys and 3 grammar schools for girls, with 1 male principal for each, and 22 female assistants.

There is 1 intermediate school for boys, with a principal and 3 assistants.

There are 14 primary schools, with 42 female teachers, one of whom at each school is the principal.

Under the supervision of the city there is 1 school on Peak's island, with 3 teachers, and 1 on Long island, with 2 teachers. Besides these there is 1 school in the almshouse and 1 in the orphan asylum.

The whole number of teachers of all grades is 93.

Expenditures for the year ending April, 1867: For salaries of teachers, $39,950; for incidental expenses, $14,000; total expenses, $53,950.

For the term ending in February, 1867, the attendance was: 1st, whole number belonging, 4,715; 2d, average attendance, 3,400.

Cost per pupil per annum, taking the term reported as a basis of attendance for the year: 1st, for whole number belonging, for tuition alone, $8 47; for tuition and incidentals, $11 44; 2d, for average number, for tuition alone, $11 75; for tuition and incidentals, $15 87½.

During the late disastrous fire in Portland, four commodious school buildings, which accommodated 2 grammar and 4 primary schools, were burned, so that about 1,200 pupils were deprived of their usual places of school instruction. Temporary buildings were provided to supply the deficiency in part.

During the past year the city authorities have erected a large and elegant school-house for a grammar school, at an expense of over $100,000.

PORTSMOUTH, *New Hampshire.*

In 1860 the city of Portsmouth had a population of 9,335. The average number in attendance in all the public schools for the year ending March 31, 1867, was 1,439. The number of children in the schools between 4 and 16 years of age was 2,252.

The city is divided into three districts for school purposes, each district having an independent committee; the first district having a committee of six members, and the other two a committee of seven each. These committees report to the mayor and aldermen of the city. In the first district there are 3 grammar schools, 2 intermediate, 3 primary, and 1 mixed. In the other districts the schools are classified in the same way. There is also a high school for males and females, having a course of study extending through four years. The number of teachers employed in all these schools was 29—males, 7; females, 23.

The salaries of the two principal teachers in the high school are $1,500 each; of one female assistant, $650. The amount expended for salaries in the high school was $4,600; in the first district, $3,801; in the second, $3,967; in the third, $2,875 40. The total annual expense for public schools was $18,043 46, making the cost per pupil, on average attendance, $12 54.

PROVIDENCE, *Rhode Island.*

The population of Providence in 1860 was 50,666, and in 1865 was 54,595. The attendance of pupils in all the public schools, exclusive of evening schools, as reported by the superintendent, in February, 1867, was 7,367.

The general management of the schools is under the direction of a committee elected annually, there being two members in each ward elected by the citizens. The mayor, the president of the common council, and the chairman of the committee on education of the city council, for the time being, are *ex-officio* members of the committee. This committee have power to appoint sub-committees and a superintendent. The superintendent devotes his whole time to the supervision of the schools, and has an annual salary of $2,250.

The department of public instruction embraces 51 schools, under the charge of 146 regular teachers, of whom 10 are males, and 136 females.

Of the 51 schools there are 24 primary schools, and 31 assistants; 20 intermediate schools, with 20 principals and 18 assistants; 6 grammar schools, with 6 principals and 39 assistants; 1 high school, having an English and scientific, a girls' and a classical department, with 8 regular teachers.

The course of study in the primary and intermediate schools is arranged for five years—two years and a half in each. The full course in the grammar schools is four years; in the high school, four years, except in the classical department, where pupils remain but three years.

In addition to the above-named schools, there were in 1867 six evening schools kept for three months, to which more than 1,200 scholars were admitted, at an expense of $4,450. The number of those who cannot read or write has been diminished more than 40 per cent. since the establishment of evening schools in 1852.

The course of instruction in the primary schools, commencing with the alphabet and reading from cards in the first and second terms, embraces reading and spelling in the next grade; then addition of small numbers and the multiplication table begun; next, the continuation of the same exercises, till in the last grade of the school the addition of small numbers and the multiplication table are completed, and the subtraction and division of small numbers begun.

In the intermediate schools the course of instruction includes reading and spelling, intellectual and written arithmetic—the latter through the fundamental rules and fractions—and the geography of North America and the United States.

In the grammar school course, consisting of eight grades, the branches studied in the lower schools are reviewed; arithmetic and geography are continued, with reading and spelling; grammar, history of the United States, analysis and parsing, composition, declamation, and algebra are begun.

In the high school the range of studies is quite full and thorough, embracing, in the English and scientific department, geology, English literature, intellectual philosophy, Constitution of the United States and of Rhode Island, natural philosophy, astronomy, chemistry, trigonometry, rhetoric, algebra, physiology, history of Rome, of Greece, of France, and of England. The girls' department of the high school embraces geology, moral science, history of the English language, intellectual philosophy, astronomy, Latin, chemistry, geometry, botany, natural philosophy, rhetoric, physical geography, Grecian, Roman, French, and English history, and algebra.

In the classical department the course of instruction necessary to prepare for entering any of the best colleges of the country is pursued, in connection with more or less of the branches of the English and scientific department.

The salaries paid to teachers in the high school in 1867 amounted to $9,675; in the grammar schools, $36,162 50; in the intermediate and primary schools, $34,967 40.

In addition to the salary of the superintendent, the expenses for administration were: For salary of secretary of the committee, $200, and for the care of school-houses and fires, $3,406 20. The whole of the current expense for the year, including repairs, was $107,487 32.

The expense of tuition per scholar was $14 59.

ROCHESTER, *New York.*

The population of the city of Rochester in 1865 was 50,940. The number of scholars registered but once during the year 1866 was 9,034; and the average attendance was 5,317.

The board of education consists of 14 members, styled commissioners, who choose a president from their own number, and the board may also elect a messenger and a "city superintendent of common schools."

The common schools are divided into four departments—primary, intermediate, grammar, and free academy. The primary department embraces the 7th and 6th grades; the intermediate, the 5th and 4th grades; and the grammar, the 3d, 2d, and 1st grades.

No pupil is admitted to the free academy who is not 12 years of age, and who has not passed a satisfactory examination in spelling, penmanship, geography, grammar, arithmetic, and elementary algebra. And no pupil can be graduated without having been a regular attendant and completed the course of study, with an average scholarship of at least 85 per cent. The academic course requires four years for its completion; and students having passed through the course to the satisfaction of the faculty receive suitable diplomas signed by the principal, the president of the board of education, and the superintendent of schools.

The academic course embraces algebra, geometry, history of the United States, natural philosophy, chemistry, botany, laws of thought, rhetoric, astronomy, science of government, physical geography, geology, moral science, physiology, the theory and practice of teaching, and the Latin, French and German languages.

The number of teachers employed in all the schools is 119—males 12, females 107. The amount paid for salaries of teachers was $41,622 50, or an average of $349 77 for each teacher of all grades. The amount expended for school-houses, repairs, &c., was $17,428 36; for all other incidental expenses,

$10,434 59; and for all expenses, $70,416 52; making the average cost per scholar, on average attendance, $13 24.

The special oversight of the schools is given to a city superintendent with a salary of $1,300.

The number of volumes in the district library is 5,050, valued at $6,000.

The president of the board of education, in his address to the board, April, 1867, says that the board, "in the construction and alteration of buildings, has been careful so to arrange them as to provide for and promote the good health and comfort of those who were to occupy them. There is still much room for improvement." He says, "The principal new feature in management adopted by the board this year (1867) was the establishment of the 'Teachers' training school,' by which means the board at regular intervals are enabled to meet all the teachers they employ, assembled together and engaged in the business for which they are employed."

SACRAMENTO CITY, *California.*

The population of Sacramento City in 1860 was 13,785. The school census for 1865 gave the following result: white children between 4 and 18, 2,264; under 4, 1,118; colored, 92; Indian, 18; Chinese, 45; total under 18, 3,537; between 18 and 21, 134.

In 1867 there were children under 15 years of age: white, 3,782; colored, 102; Indian, 14; Chinese, 45; total, 3,943.

The average number of pupils attending the public schools has been as follows: 1866, on the roll 1,622—average attendance, 1,200; in 1867, on the roll 1,700—average attendance, 1,300.

There are 15 schools in the city, viz: 1 high school, under the charge of a principal and assistant; 1 grammar, under a principal and four assistants; 4 intermediate, under a principal and assistant each; 1 colored, with a principal and assistant; and an ungraded with a principal only. The last named and the colored are not graded.

The course of study in primaries and intermediates occupies two years each; and in the grammar and high school, three years each. All the schools are thus equal to ten grades of one year each.

The board of education now employs 32 teachers and assistants. The cost per pupil in 1866 (a fair average) was $16 95 per annum in the primary; $16 40 in the intermediate; $29 60 in the grammar; $36 80 in the ungraded; $27 50 in the colored; and $61 10 in the high school.

The schools of Sacramento are under the exclusive charge of a board of education, which, as reconstructed by law passed in 1862, consists of a city superintendent and a board of eight directors, elected for two years. There are two directors from each ward; one of whom is elected annually.

SAN FRANCISCO, *California.*

The population of San Francisco in 1860 was 56,802. The population in 1867 was 132,000. The whole number of white children between 5 and 15 years of age was 20,088; negro children, 165; Mongolian, 179; total, 20,432. There were enrolled in the public schools 13,517. The average daily attendance, 10,177, exclusive of evening schools. The average per cent. of attendance in all the schools, on the average number belonging, was .937.

The board of education consists of twelve members, with a superintendent and a secretary to the board, who is also clerk of the superintendent. All the school officers are elected by popular vote at the general elections annually. The committees of the board are on examination of teachers, rules and regulations, classification, text-books, evening schools, high school, school-houses and

sites, furniture and supplies, salaries and judiciary, finance and auditing, and on the normal school. The first named committee is composed of five members, including the president and superintendent, and the rest of three members each.

The public schools of the city are known as ungraded, primary, grammar, and high schools, and special schools. The special schools include evening schools, colored schools, training and cosmopolitan schools. The age for admission to the primary schools is six years; to the Latin high school, ten; and to the other high schools, twelve. The public schools of the city began in 1849 with three pupils. There are now (1867) 36 public schools; 3 high, (one English for boys, one English for girls, and one Latin for boys fitting for college;) 9 grammar, (two for girls exclusively, one for boys exclusively, and six for boys and girls;) 24 primaries for both girls and boys. There is one normal training school, and one city training school. The city training school is taught by the pupils of the State normal school and is under the control of the board. The colored school has two departments, primary and grammar.

There are five grades in the primary schools, ending in the first with reading, spelling, arithmetic—Colburn's—geography, grammar, writing, drawing, and general exercises in common things, moral lessons, and calisthenics.

In the grammar department there are also five grades, the first of which, in addition to the preceding studies, includes history, natural philosophy, physiology, and bookkeeping. The rudiments of natural philosophy during the last year are taught orally by the principal, with such lessons as they may direct, one hour each week. Object lessons are given in each class daily for at least fifteen minutes. Singing, calisthenic and gymnastic exercises are to be practiced daily, and moral lessons from the text-books orally each Monday evening (afternoon.)

The training school for teachers is in connection with the girls' high school. It has six classes of 40 pupils each. It has a principal and one assistant, the other teachers being draughted weekly from the normal class of the girls' high school.

The cosmopolitan schools are designed to afford facilities for acquiring the modern languages, German, French and Spanish, in connection with the ordinary English course. Among the advantages of these schools is this, that there are more benefited by them whose native language is English. There are about 50 per cent. of Americans, 30 of Germans, and 20 French. By the association of these children in the same schools, those, who might otherwise remain essentially alien, become Americanized.

There are 179 Chinese children under fifteen years of age, of whom only 37 attend school. None are in the public schools, being excluded from any but the colored school, which they will not attend. They have no school for their special accommodation. Here is an instance of taxation without representation.

It is estimated that the Chinese in San Francisco pay one-twentieth of the total taxation, amounting this year (1867) to $120,000, and of this amount $14,000 goes to the school fund. The superintendent recommends a special school for them.

Among the rules of the school board for the government of the schools it is prescribed that "the number of studies taught each day shall not exceed two besides reading, writing, spelling, and the general exercises, unless by special permission of the superintendent." No lesson is to be given to be studied out of school hours for the upper classes in the grammar schools which will require more than an hour and a half of study by a child of good capacity, or which will require more than an hour by the lower classes; and none shall be given to the pupils of the primary schools. Sixty pupils may be registered for each teacher of a primary school, 50 for each teacher in the first, second and third classes of the grammar schools, and 56 in the others.

The number of teachers employed in the public schools September 30, 1867, was 253; males 33, females 220; in the high schools 11, grammar schools 97, primary 135, evening schools 6, and four special teachers (male.)

The amount paid for teachers' salaries was $209,736 92. The aggregate expenses for the year were $320,058 88. The average cost of each scholar for tuition was $19 34; in the high schools, $82 49. The average cost per scholar, on average attendance, was $31 44. Salary of superintendent, $4,000.

There were expended for the erection of school buildings and purchase of school lots for the year ending July 1, 1867, $95,966 55. The total valuation of school property is $1,057,000.

There was an increase of 57 classes in the schools during the year. The number of pupils attending private schools in 1864 was 4,823; in 1867 it was 4,165. The per cent. of pupils attending private schools on the number attending public schools, in 1864, was $53\frac{1}{10}$; in 1867 it was $31\frac{1}{10}$, showing that the proportion of those who attend the private schools is constantly diminishing, even more rapidly than the actual numbers diminish, and thus demonstrating the growing appreciation of the public schools.

SAVANNAH, *Georgia*.

The population of Savannah in 1860 was 13,875 whites, 705 free blacks, and 7,712 slaves; total, 22,292.

In 1866 the board of public education consisted of 12 members, under an act of incorporation approved March 21, 1866, whose design and purpose shall be the direction, management, and superintendence of the public education of white children in the said city between the ages of six and eighteen years.

There is a superintendent who is also principal of the girls' grammar school. There are two male grammar schools with male principals; eleven female teachers; one male teacher of music, and a female teacher of penmanship.

The schools are designated by grades, as grammar, intermediate and primary.

SPRINGFIELD, *Massachusetts*.

The population of Springfield in 1860 was 15,199; and in 1865, 22,035.

The board of education consists of one member from each ward, now eight members, besides one member at large.

The board are empowered to choose by ballot a superintendent of schools annually. The law of the State, which authorized the appointment of superintendents, provides that "they shall have the care and supervision of the schools under the direction of the school committee," and the city law requires him to perform also the duties of "school-house agent and prudential committee."

There are in all 27 schools, including one high school and one Latin preparatory school. The number of teachers employed is 85, nine of whom are males, including a teacher of music and of penmanship.

The salaries are as follows: Superintendent, $2,100; principal of high school, $2,000; classical assistant, $1,500; 4 principals of grammar schools, each, $1,500; principal of ungraded school, $900; teacher of music, $1,100; of penmanship, $800; 11, from $450 to $550 each; 56, at $400 each. None are paid less than $300, and only nine are paid less than $400 each.

The whole number of pupils in attendance for the year 1867 was 3,345, and the whole number of children between five and fifteen years in 1866 was 3,846.

The amount paid for teachers' salaries, $36,573 90; and for repairs, contingencies, &c., for same time, was $17,697 28, making the aggregate expenses $54,271 18. The cost per scholar, on all attending, is $16 23. This does not include cost on new buildings nor any interest or property invested for school purposes.

Two large school buildings have been finished and dedicated during the year; one at a cost of $40,253 69, and the other at $40,228 81.

SPRINGFIELD, *Illinois*.

The population of Springfield in 1860 was 9,320. The whole number of pupils enrolled for 1866–'67 was 2,870. The average number attending school was 1,914.

A board of school inspectors takes the general charge of the public schools. A superintendent is also chosen, who has the special supervision of all the schools, under the direction of the board of inspectors. Each of the wards of the city constitutes a school district. The board of inspectors is chosen by the city council annually, but no member of the city council, or any person holding office under the city, can be a member of the board. The salaries of the superintendent and teachers are fixed by the city council; but the board of inspectors makes recommendations as to the amount to the council. The superintendent is *ex-officio* secretary of the board, and is required to devote himself exclusively to the duties of his office. The salary of the superintendent is $1,500.

The schools are classified as primary, secondary, intermediate, grammar, and high schools. In the course of study in the ward schools there are ten grades, the lowest being the tenth, and the first being the highest of the grammar school course, embracing in the branches taught reading, spelling, intellectual and written arithmetic, penmanship, geography, map-drawing, grammar, history, drawing, physical geography, physiology, music, physical culture, declamation and composition, and lessons on morals and manners.

The high school has an English and a classical course, each of three years. The age for admission is 12 years. The salary of the principal of the high school is $1,500; that of the female assistants is $700. The salary of the principals of the ward schools is $1,250; that of the assistants is, for the first year, $350; for the second, $400; and for the third and each year thereafter, $500. The principal of the colored school receives a salary of $600, and the assistant, $450. The whole number of teachers employed was 57—6 males and 51 females. The total expense for salaries was $30,184 27; for all school purposes, $42,814 41; and the cost per pupil on average attendance was $22 37.

ST. LOUIS, *Missouri*.

The population of St. Louis in 1860 was 160,773, and in 1866, 204,000; and the number of persons between 5 and 21, 66,880.

There is 1 normal school, with 1 female principal, and 2 female assistants; 1 high school, with a principal, 5 male assistants, and 3 female assistants, besides a male teacher of vocal music.

In the 27 district schools there are employed 215 teachers, according to the report of 1866.

School-houses owned by the board, all brick, 24; school-houses rented by the board, 10; heated with stoves, 26; heated by furnaces, 8; number of school-rooms, 240. The total value of school property is $600,000.

Number in the normal school for girls, enrolled	76
Number in the high school, boys, enrolled	115
girls, enrolled	171
Number in district schools, boys, enrolled	7,141
girls, enrolled	7,053
Total number of pupils in all schools, enrolled	14,556

The average number belonging	9, 593
The average daily attendance	8, 846
Percentage of attendance	.91
Total number of seats provided	9, 857

Receipts for 1865–'66.

Cash on hand	$7, 693 06
From real estate sold	11, 075 00
From bills receivable	10, 826 70
From rents	43, 788 71
From interest account	1, 391 04
From city mill tax	163, 923 28
From delinquent tax	10, 441 70
From county school fund	5, 463 79
From tuition fund	3, 725 95
From bills payable as per discount	63, 043 08
From book account	18, 677 30
From sundry sources	720 40
Total receipts	340, 770 01

Expenditures for 1865–'66.

For teachers' salaries	$153, 232 80	
For janitors' salaries	12, 093 50	
For officers' salaries	11, 707 87	
		$177, 034 17
For real estate for school purposes	66, 979 60	
For improvements and repairs	11, 937 82	
For rent for offices and school-houses	3, 228 00	
For furniture account	3, 659 70	
		85, 805 12
For St. Louis Masonic Hall Association		4, 000 00
For supplies account	2, 384 48	
For real estate for revenue	1, 172 00	
For bills payable, fuel, interest, &c.	33, 778 23	
		37, 334 71
For book account and general expenses		27, 520 36
		331, 694 56

Salaries for different grades of teachers.

For the female principal of normal schools	$2, 000
For one assistant, female, $1,100, and one $850	1, 950
For male principal of high school	2, 750
For male assistant	2, 000
For three male assistants, at $1,700	5, 100
For one female assistant	1, 200
For two female assistants at $1,000, and one at $700	2, 700
For nine male principals of district schools, $1,700	15, 300
For three male assistants of district schools, $1,500	4, 500
For one male assistant	1, 500
For three female principals, at $1,000	3, 000
For eight female principals, at $900	7, 200
For four female principals, at $800	3, 200

For three female principals, at $700	$2,100
For three female head assistants, at $1,000	3,000
For 35 female assistants, at $650; 82, at $600	71,950
For 25, at $550, and 24, at $500	25,750
For six German assistants, at $700; two, at $650	5,500
For two German assistants, at $600	1,200
For two music teachers, at $1,500	3,000
Aggregate amount for teachers' salaries	164,900

Salaried officers of the board of public schools.—Superintendent, $3,500; assistant superintendent, $2,500; secretary, $2,500; bailiff, $2,000; assistant superintendent for German department, $2,000; superintendent of buildings, from $300 to $400 per building; attorney of the board, $2,000; and janitor, $400. The total amount of pay for officers about $27,000.

Cost per scholar per annum.

Upon school census for tuition alone:	
Upon number enrolled, for tuition alone	$9 52
Upon average number belonging, for tuition alone	15 15
Upon school census for incidentals:	
Upon number enrolled, for incidentals	2 37½
Upon average number belonging, for incidentals	3 98¾
Upon average number belonging, including all expenses and six per cent. on school property	38 33
Upon average number belonging to high school—	
1st. For tuition alone	56 31¼
2d. For tuition and incidentals	69 81¼
3d. For tuition, incidentals, and six per cent. on property, &c.	89 02

Studies pursued.—1st. In the high school, four years' general course. Algebra, French, German, Latin, English analysis, drawing, physical geography, natural philosophy, book-keeping, geometry, ancient geography, chemistry, trigonometry, botany, physiology, navigation, zoology, astronomy, civil engineering, history, intellectual philosophy, calculus, geology, moral philosophy, and Constitution of the United States.

Four years' classical course. In the classical course are included most of the studies of the general course, besides a full collegiate course in Latin and Greek.

2d. The normal school has a two years' course. The studies are the common English, physical geography, drawing, composition, anatomy and physiology, Constitution of the United States, history, geometry, mental philosophy, natural philosophy, English literature, theory and art of teaching, with a continuous practical application of the modes of teaching.

3d. In the district schools the studies are those usually called the "common English branches," viz: Reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, English grammar, and history, including, also, such auxiliary exercises as are deemed necessary in the moral, mental, and physical education of youth.

The board of education and officers.—By an act of the general assembly of Missouri, "all free white persons residing within the limits of the city of St. Louis, as the same now are or hereafter may be established by law, are hereby constituted a body politic and corporate by name and style of 'The Board of President and Directors of the St. Louis Public Schools,' to have perpetual succession, &c. Said president and directors shall be free white males at least twenty-one years of age, and have resided at least twelve months previous to their election in the said city, and who shall be citizens of the United States,

and have paid a city tax; and there shall be two members from each ward of said city. They are to be elected for a term of three years, and until their successors shall be duly elected and qualified, one-third going out every year.

"The board is to appoint a treasurer and secretary, and such other servants and agents as to them shall seem necessary to accomplish the great objects of the corporation, and prescribe their powers, duties, obligations, and compensation."

Under these powers it is presumed, in the absence of any special information contained in the report and rules of the board, that they are authorized to appoint their superintendent, fix his term of office and compensation.

Evening schools.—Eight evening schools were in operation during the year ending June, 1866:

Total number of teachers	36
Average number of teachers	32
Salary of principals per session of 16 weeks, or 64 nights each	$200 00
Salary of assistants per session	125 00
Total amount of teachers' salaries	4,695 90
For janitors' salaries	422 00
For fuel and gas	261 60
For supplies	70 90
Total expenses	5,450 49
Cost per scholar on average number	6 56

German-English classes.—The German language is regularly taught in seven schools to, on an average, 710 scholars. Instruction is given by using the German language invariably to both German and English children.

Schools for colored children.—Special provisions are made for educating colored children. The constitution of Missouri provides that "the general assembly shall establish and maintain free schools for the gratuitous instruction of all persons in this State between the ages of five and twenty-one years;" and that "separate schools may be established for children of African descent."

The board say in their report: "It is to be regretted that the efforts of the board to establish schools for colored children have not as yet been successful."

Public school library.—The St. Louis public school library contains a collection of 6,000 volumes of carefully selected works, at an expense of $12,000.

This library has been gathered through the influence of the St. Louis Public School Library Society, to become a member of which requires an annual fee of $3. Several prominent citizens and friends have contributed liberally towards founding this library, which promises to be one of the best school libraries in the country.

The whole cost of supervision, aside from teachers' salaries, was $14,900.

St. Paul, *Minnesota.*

The city of St. Paul contained a population of 10,401 in 1860, and in 1866 was estimated at 20,000. The whole number of pupils enrolled in the public schools for the year ending April 1, 1867, was 2,042. The average daily attendance was 1,021. The whole number of persons residing in the city between the ages of five and twenty-one on the 1st of October, 1866, was 4,267.

The public schools are controlled by a board of education, of which the mayor of the city is *ex-officio* president, having fifteen members, three for each of the five wards of the city. The other officers of the board are a vice-president, secretary and superintendent, and a treasurer. There are seven standing committees.

The schools are classified as alphabetical department, lower primary, upper

primary, intermediate, grammar and high schools. All the teachers, except in the grammar and high schools, are females. The government of the schools is lodged with the secretary (who is *ex officio* superintendent) and the committee on schools.

There is 1 high school, 3 grammar schools, 3 intermediate, 4 upper primary, 4 lower primary, and 3 alphabetical. There is also a German and English school and a school for colored children.

In the high school the course of study embraces natural sciences, civil history, physical geography, mathematics, and the Latin language.

The salary of the secretary and superintendent is $600; that of the teacher of the high school, $1,100; teachers of grammar schools, $1,000; of the intermediate department, $450; of the upper primary, $400; of the lower primary, $375.

The number of teachers employed for the year ending April 1, 1867, was 22, with 9 assistants, 5 males and 26 females. The whole amount paid for teachers' salaries was $12,936 26. The total current expenses for the year were $20,184 60, making the average cost of instruction per scholar, as enrolled, $9 85; on average attendance, $19 96.

SYRACUSE, *New York.*

Syracuse had a population of 31,784 in 1865. The number of children in daily attendance at school for the year ending March 6 was 4,368.

The board of education consists of eight commissioners, one for each ward of the city, a majority of whom constitute a quorum. The officers of the board are a president, chosen from their own number, a clerk who shall also be superintendent of schools, a librarian, and a general repairer.

The public schools of the city are divided into four departments: primary, junior, senior, and high school departments. No pupil can be received into any school under six years of age, except at the opening of the spring term, when they may be admitted at the age of five years. Pupils from abroad may be admitted to any school which they are qualified to enter, when there are vacant seats not needed by pupils in the city, by payment in advance of certain prescribed rates of tuition.

The course of instruction extends through three years in each department, each year being divided into three terms. The high school course embraces an English and a classical department.

During the third term of the third year of the course in the high school department a normal class is formed for the purpose of affording professional instruction to those intending to teach. The attention of this class is given to the primary course of instruction: Page's Theory and Practice of Teaching, Philosophy of Education—Herbert Spencer—Alcott's Record of a School, Phonetics, Hill's Geometry, Eye and Hand, and moral and object lessons, &c.

The clerk and superintendent performs the usual duties of a clerk in calling meetings of the board and keeping a record of its proceedings and the financial accounts of the school department; and as superintendent he has the general supervision of all the schools and school property, and discharges the usual duties of that office in visiting the schools to observe the character of the instruction given and modes of discipline, and to advise or direct as to the details of the work of the schools.

The expense for teachers' salaries for the year ending March 5, 1867, was $42,835 05; for janitors' wages, $2,683 55; and the total expense for the year was $57,741 88, giving as the annual expense per pupil, in daily attendance, $13 22. The average number of teachers was 121, and the average wages $354 each.

The public school library contains 5,227 volumes. The number of volumes

drawn during the year was 32,007. There were added to the library during the year 367 volumes, 360 of which were purchased at a cost of $591, an average of $1 65 per volume.

TRENTON, *New Jersey*.

The population in the city of Trenton in 1860 was 17,221; in 1865, it was 20,508. In the year 1850 there were in the public schools 335 white and 20 colored children, under the charge of 6 teachers.

In 1855 there were 912 scholars under the charge of 17 teachers. There were in the city at this time 3,807 children between the ages of five and eighteen years, which entitled the city to $1,713 of the State appropriation for the support of public schools.

At the present time there are 5,603 children in the city between the ages of five and eighteen years, of whom 1,676 attend the public schools. There is one school organized for the exclusive use of colored children, under the charge of a special teacher, which has an average attendance of thirty pupils.

The amount appropriated by the city this year for the support of public schools is $16,000. The State appropriation is $100,000 annually, of which sum the city this year receives $2,368 41, making the total expenditure of $18,368 41 for the support of public education.

The schools are under the control of a board created by a special act of the legislature, styled "the superintendent and trustees of public schools of the city of Trenton." It is composed of a superintendent and fourteen trustees, two from each ward, all of whom are elected annually by the people. They are constituted a board of examiners and are authorized to examine and grant licenses to teachers. They have in their employ at the present time 29 teachers, 5 of whom are male and 24 female.

This board is divided into four standing committees: one on finance, one on discipline, one on books and salaries, and one on school-houses. They hold regular monthly meetings.

The estimated value of the school property now under their control is $50,000.

The schools are entirely free, and are kept open the entire year except the usual vacations.

TERRE HAUTE, *Indiana*.

The population of Terre Haute in 1860 was 8,594, and in 1866 was estimated to be 16,000. The whole number of pupils enrolled in 1866–'67 was 3,071; the average daily attendance was 1,656.

The schools are managed by a board of trustees. The schools are classified as ward, grammar, and high schools. The ward schools are divided into three departments: primary, intermediate, and grammar departments. The age for admission to the primary department is six years, and the pupils are in classes B and A, grade C for six months; in grade B, six months. The next two grades each extend over a period of one year, making three years in the primary department. Two years are occupied in the intermediate department, and three in the grammar department. Four years are spent in the high school, in which the branches pursued are those common to the high schools of the country, including the Latin, German, and French languages. There are five ward schools, one grammar school, and one high school, besides a German department. The number of teachers employed in all the schools is 32—males, 7; females, 25. The salaries of the male principals in the ward schools are from $80 to $90 per month; those of the female teachers, $45 per month; in the grammar school, $60; and in the high school, $70 per month. The whole expense for tuition for the year 1866–'67 was $14,478 75; making the cost of tuition per scholar, on average attendance, $8 74.

In regard to accommodations for the schools, the superintendent says that, though two new buildings were opened in October, 1866, they were at once filled to overflowing with pupils, and another room was opened, leaving still insufficient accommodations.

TOLEDO, *Ohio*.

The population of Toledo in 1860 was 13,768. The number of children enrolled in the schools in 1865–'66 was 3,567; in 1866–'67 it was 4,063. The average attendance in 1866–'67 was 2,398; in 1867–'68 there are enrolled 4,052.

The schools are graded as primary, secondary, intermediate, grammar, and high schools. They are under the special supervision of a superintendent, appointed by the board of education.

The course of study in the public schools extends through eleven years—two years in each of the four lower grades, and three in the high school. In the high school are taught the natural sciences, history, mathematics, rhetoric, intellectual and moral philosophy, and the Latin, Greek, and German languages. In connection with the schools is a gymnasium, for which classes are formed at the beginning of each term of the high, grammar, and intermediate schools; but no pupil is included in such class who, by direction of parent or guardian, does not choose to join it. Pupils of opposite sex are not admitted to the same class, nor do they exercise at the same time. The superintendent directs as to the time for each class to exercise in the gymnasium, from week to week, giving each class two hours in a week.

There is a public school library, open for drawing and returning books on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday of each week, one-half hour after the closing of school.

There are in the public schools 65 teachers. In Catholic schools there are 1,300 children, and no other private schools in the city.

TROY, *New York*.

The population of the city of Troy in 1865 was 39,293. The average daily attendance in the schools for the year ending September 30, 1866, was 3,285.

The schools of the city are under the general management of a board of education of twenty members, styled commissioners, two being residents of each ward of the city. The officers are a president, chosen from their own number, and a clerk, and superintendent, who is not one of the commissioners.

The schools are classified as high school, grammar schools, intermediate, and primary schools, and one colored school. In the primary department there are three grades, each grade occupying the period of two terms, the course of instruction commencing with reading from cards and primer, drawing on slate, counting, singing, oral instruction, and physical exercises, and ending in the third year with reading, spelling, phonic exercises, drawing, mental arithmetic, oral instruction in geography, with globe, outline map, and blackboard exercises.

The intermediate department embraces three grades also, continuing three years, and ending in the last term with physical exercises, singing, oral instruction, drawing, penmanship, reading, history, number, geography, and grammar.

The course in the grammar school also occupies three years, continuing the same studies and reviewing those of the lower grades, and embracing also declamation, composition, with written reviews and examinations, with thorough drills in geography, grammar, and arithmetic throughout the course. Special attention is given also to gymnastic exercises.

The high school course occupies four years in the English department and three in the classical, embracing mathematics, history, the natural sciences, rhetoric, and the Latin and Greek languages, and other higher branches commonly pursued in the more advanced high schools of the country.

The number of teachers employed for the year ending September 30, 1866, was 121—male, 13; female, 108. The amount paid for salaries of teachers was $37,267 52, giving to each teacher, as an average, a salary of $308, very nearly. For school-houses and repairs, &c., $13,213 91 were expended, and the total expenditures were $48,268 24, making the average expense per scholar, for all the schools, $14 70. The number of children in private, parochial, charitable, and incorporated schools was 3,278. The whole number between the ages of 5 and 21 was 13,683.

For the year ending February 28, 1866, the cost for instruction per pupil in average attendance in the high school was $32 08; grammar schools, $17 83; intermediate schools, $11; primary schools, $6 72; colored school, $26 34.

The special supervision of the schools is given to the superintendent, who is also clerk of the board of education.

The school library contains 1,741 volumes, valued at $1,200.

WASHINGTON, *District of Columbia.*

***Condensed statement of the present population and condition of public schools in the District of Columbia in* 1867.**

Population, &c.	Washington.	Georgetown.	County.	Total.
1. White population	74,115	8,509	5,703	88,327
2. Colored population	31,937	3,284	3,442	38,663
Total white and colored	....	....	....	126,990
3. White population between 6 and 18 years	19,223	2,152	1,494	22,869
4. Colored population between 6 and 18 years	8,401	894	951	10,246
5. Number of schools in buildings owned by the people	67	16	16	99
6. Number of schools in buildings not owned by the people	70	....	....	70
7. Average attendance of white pupils	4,631	362	356	5,349
8. Average attendance of colored pupils	2,415	333	323	3,071
9. No. of teachers of white schools	89	8	8	105
10. No. of teachers of colored schools	49	8	7	64
11. Cost of supporting white schools	$107,212	$5,093	$8,777	$121,082
12. Cost of supporting colored schools	55,496	5,160	9,360	70,016
13. Am't of public school property	189,000	16,000	18,944	223,944
14. Amount of taxable property	44,032,592	5,641,936	5,666,351	55,340,879

In Washington there are 4 male and 4 female grammar schools, 4 male and 7 female intermediate schools, 14 male and 15 female secondary schools, 20 male and 20 female primary schools. The city is divided into four districts, with three trustees to each district, making twelve in all, who are nominated by the mayor and confirmed by the board of aldermen.

There are also 49 colored schools, of which 10 are grammar schools, 8 intermediate, 9 secondary, 20 primary, and 2 mixed schools.

In Georgetown there is 1 male and 1 female grammar school, and 3 male and 3 female primary schools, which are controlled by 7 guardians appointed by the councils. Here there are also 1 grammar, 2 intermediate, 2 secondary, and 3 primary schools for colored children. The colored schools of Washington and Georgetown are under the direction of three trustees, appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, and 31 of these schools are supported now by funds

provided by the two cities, and 26 are supported chiefly by charitable associations at the north; but they are all under the special superintendence of Mr. A. E. Newton.

In the county there are 8 ungraded and mixed white schools, and 7 similar colored schools, under the control of 7 commissioners who are appointed by the levy court.

WHEELING, *Virginia.*

The population of Wheeling in 1860 was 14,083. The number of children between six and twenty-one years of age is, males, 2,882; females, 3,091; total, 5,973.

The board of education is established in accordance with an act of the State legislature.

The schools are divided into grammar and primary, with such grades in each as may be necessary; 6 grammar and 10 primary.

The number of pupils belonging was: males, 1,089; females, 1,003; total, 2,092. The average daily attendance was: males, 973; females, 871; total, 1,844. The number of teachers employed was 45; males 7 and females 38.

The amount paid for salaries was $20,824. City superintendent, $1,350, and secretary of the board, $435; incidentals, $3,637; and for buildings, &c., $6,945, making the total expenses $33,191.

The whole value of school property is, for school-houses, $54,000; furniture, $6,225; apparatus, $525; land, $12,700; total, $73,450.

WILMINGTON, *Delaware.*

The population of Wilmington in 1860 was 21,508.

The board of public education consists of three members from each war elected by the ballots of a majority of the legal voters annually. The term office is three years, one going out each year.

There are ten grades of schools, and the first eight grades have studies similar to those usually in the primary, secondary and intermediate, and the ninth and tenth grades have studies similar to the usual grammar schools. The studies in the tenth grade include, besides the common studies, algebra, natural philosophy, astronomy, anatomy, and physiology, designed for girls.

There are fifty teachers, all females. One female teacher gets $1,000 per annum, and the others vary from $465 to $320 each. There are school accommodations for about 3,000 pupils, and the attendance is very regular, so that the average attendance is about 3,000.

WORCESTER, *Massachusetts.*

The population of the city of Worcester in 1867 was 36,000. The whole number of pupils registered in the schools during the year 1867 was 7,725. The average number for the whole year was 5,496.

The school committee consists of twenty four members, and is presided over by the mayor of the city, and has a clerk and a superintendent. The board holds regular meetings monthly and special meetings at the call of the mayor. For the transaction of ordinary business seven members constitute a quorum; for the election of a superintendent and secretary, the election and dismissal of teachers, and the appropriation of money the quorum is thirteen. The superintendent is elected annually in October by ballot He is the executive officer of the board, and has the supervision of all the schools, reporting quarterly to the board in writing as to the condition of the schools and any plans for their improvement which he may have to communicate, and also preparing the annual report of the school committee.

The schools under the care of the board are suburban, ungraded, sub-primary, primary, intermediate-primary, secondary, grammar schools of the third, second, and first grade, and a high school, classical and English. There is also what is called a young men's school. There are three grammar schools of the first grade with male principals, four of the second grade having female principals, and ten of the third grade having female principals. In the high school, besides the principal, there are five female assistants. The whole number of teachers aside from the teachers of the young men's school is 97, 4 males and 93 females. In 1867 it was 115, 7 males and 108 females. The amount paid for salaries of teachers in 1867 was $61,711 44, or an average for each teacher of $536 62. The average cost of tuition only per scholar was $11 23. The total ordinary expenses for the year were $88,970, and the average cost per scholar was $11 55.

The whole taxable property of the city is valued at $23,936,900.

The whole number of seats in all schools of all kinds is 5,960.

In passing in review this summary of the condition of the public schools in the capitals and chief cities of the several States, it will appear that these cities, in respect to the efficiency of their schools and school systems, may be grouped into three classes:

First. Those which have no system, or schools which can be regarded in any light as public; and if schools exist under that name, they are either avowedly or practically for the poor.

Second. Those cities which have nominally a system of public schools, but the schools are so imperfectly organized, so limited in their range, and so inefficiently administered, that they possess few of the conditions of success, and fail to realize even the first purpose for which public schools are instituted—the elementary education of children of all classes of the community.

Third. Those cities which have a broad and liberal system of public instruction, with all the conditions of success, and all the agencies of progress, although none of them yet realize fully the ideal of American public instruction—that is, instruction free, or so cheap as to be within the reach of the poor, and at the same time good enough to meet the wants of the rich and the educated, and practically shared by all the children of the recognized school age.

I. Those of the first class are generally found in cities in which there is no State system of public instruction, and in which the reliance of parents is mainly upon incorporated or denominational institutions, and private schools and tutors, for the education of their children. Some of these institutions have been and are highly useful, and meet the wants of the rich in certain localities passably well; but the great majority in such communities is scarcely touched, either directly or indirectly, by their influence. And in these cities are found large numbers of absolutely illiterate persons, and no encouraging manifestation of public interest in the subject of popular education. To this class belong more than two-thirds of all the cities and large boroughs and villages of the country, which, from the number and concentration of the inhabitants, have all the conditions of a graded system of public schools.

II. In the second class will be found cities where the system, so far as it extends, is good, but which is deficient in the conditions of uniformity, and provision for inspection and progress, and in that extension of the means of education which meet, on the one hand, the wants of the poor, and on the other the larger demands of the wealthy and educated; and thus fails to interest all classes of the community in its administration and success. To this class belongs the system of the District of Columbia.

III. In the third class will be found cities where the best features of the American system exist, in which public schools are regarded with the same favor and are fostered with the same liberality that is manifested in supplying the city with water, light, and well-paved streets, and in which all the conditions of success—the houses, teachers, books, and supervision—are regarded, while, at the same time, the direct interest of parents in the work of instruction is secured. In none of these cities can the system be said to have reached its fullest development, either in the quality or universality of the instruction imparted; but in all, the most encouraging results have been attained, and every year chronicles additional progress in securing the general, continuous, and punctual attendance, and in extending and perfecting the subjects and details of instruction.

These cities are not always found in States where a State system is in vigorous operation. As good public schools are to be found in Charleston, New Orleans, St. Louis, or Louisville, as in any other cities of the country, simply because they possess those conditions of success without which public schools in cities cannot be made good. Neither are these cities confined to States where the system itself, either of the city or State, has been long in operation, although in this class come the older cities of Boston, New Haven, etc. In nearly all of them the excellences of the system have been attained within the last quarter of a century, and in most the systems themselves have been originated within that period. Looking to the history of the schools in the great cities of Chicago, San Francisco, and many of the smaller cities, and even villages of the Western States, it would seem as if any city in the land might, in five years, place its schools in a condition of vigorous prosperity—that is, it could have schools good enough for the rich, cheap enough for the poor, and numerous enough for all, maintained at less cost per scholar than is now paid in the best private schools.

Comparing the system of public schools in the District of Columbia with the systems just named, we find here a lack of simplicity in organization, uniform vigor, and efficiency of administration and instruction; there is one system for Georgetown, another for Washington, and another for the county; and still different arrangements in all for the colored population. A child moving from one portion of the District to another, either could not at once find admission into the public school, or fall readily into that grade or class of school which he had left; and in some he might find no convenient public school, or any public school open to him, all the places in existing schools being full.

From the want of an intelligent, vigilant, and omnipresent administration and inspection, the schools in different localities are unequally developed, the system is administered with unequal efficiency, and some of the schools suffer in respect to houses, equipment, instruction, and discipline; the degree of intelligence, school interest, and fidelity in different members of the School Board manifesting itself in these results.

Judged by the standard of spacious, attractive, convenient, and healthy school houses, every part of the District, with two exceptions, will suffer in comparison with every other great city in the country. But such as they are, there are not enough, and the District is paying a large tax for the rent of houses, in every way inadequate and insufficient for the children of the District. A million dollars might be wisely and judiciously expended in this direction and still leave the District behind a majority of cities of the same population in other parts of the country.

In the vital point of attendance in public schools, or other institutions (adventure and denominational) which is attracting the attention of those who are entrusted with the affairs of public instruction in our cities, the City of Washington, as well as the whole District, ranks exceedingly low, both in respect

to public schools, or schools of any kind. Out of a school population of 33,115, between the ages of six and eighteen, but 8,422 are returned as, in average daily attendance in all the public schools of the District. And if to these be added the number of 5,584 (many of whom are under six) in attendance on incorporated asylums and private schools of all kinds, it will still give only a little more than one-third of the children of the teachable age in attendance in any school, public or private.

The most remarkable fact in connection with the public schools, as compared with the extended course of instruction in the other large cities of the country, is the limitation of the pupils to the merest elementary branches—spelling, reading, writing, mental and written arithmetic, and rudimentary geography—there being, in all the public schools in the District, only forty-two pupils returned in algebra, nineteen in astronomy, eighteen in botany, and two hundred and seventy-two in the Constitution of the United States. Although, if properly mastered, the subjects actually pursued lie at the foundation of all sound instruction; yet parents who wish to secure thorough and liberal culture to their children, will not be content with schools in which these branches only are taught. While there is some ground of apprehension that the range of subjects is two extended in elementary schools in some of our cities, there can be no question that a limitation of public school instruction, to these few studies, now included in the schools of this District, will inevitably be to exclude, not simply the children of the educated and wealthy, but those of all parents who desire to give a thorough education to their children. Hence it is that we find so many private schools and denominational institutions of every grade in the District, attended by nearly as many scholars, and maintained at the same annual expense as the public schools.

In respect to teachers, the number and compensation of male teachers, and the compensation of female teachers, Washington compares favorably with other cities; but the absence of schools of the highest order necessarily implies the absence of a class of teachers which such schools always require. As compared with the very best systems there is an absence of special institutions and agencies for the training of pupils of the right character for the work of instruction. And no continuous, efficient agency is at work, in monthly or quarterly meetings, for the professional improvement of the whole corps of teachers.

In respect to supervision, the best indication of the real vitality of a school system, the District is behind almost all the large cities of the country. Out of forty of the largest cities, in respect to population and pecuniary resources, Washington, and the whole District considered as a single city, is one of the few which has not one or more persons whose whole time is devoted to the work of administration and supervision. The success of this branch of the system will depend, however, on the intelligence, fidelity, and discretion of the officer, and on such a specification of duties as will relieve the faithful and intelligent teacher from untimely and vexatious interference.

In the support of schools, with the limited range of instruction given, the amount appropriated is large, being at the rate of twenty dollars ($20) per pupil, and yet, by a small addition to the cost of education per child, instruction equal to that given in the best academic and collegiate institutions in the country could have been secured in a public high school.

As a source of all improvement, and an indication of the successful working of the public schools, there is not to be found in the District, as compared with the principal cities of the country, a lively parental and public interest; at least such an interest is not manifested in frequent visits to schools, in the respect paid to teachers, and in the frequent public and home discussion of

matters relating to the daily work of the school room and the prosperity of the system.

The system of public schools in Washington stops at what would be regarded as the second grade of schools in other cities. All that is usually included in a public high school is entirely wanting, as has been before indicated; and those supplementary, special, and superior agencies, which give effect to the acquisitions of the elementary school, and carry on the work of instruction into practical life, are also wanting. Here there are no infant schools and Kindergarten, either under public, private, or associated auspices, by which the manners and school habits of very young children are formed. While, for purposes of school instruction, as we ordinarily understand the term, the attendance of children at school would better be deferred to the age of six, as is done in Washington; yet, as the great formative period of the human being's life precedes this, it is necessary that either in the family, or in some other formal arrangement, instruction in regard to the speech, the manners, the habits of observation, and all that constitutes the early development of the human being, should be begun. And I know of no agency so philosophical and attractive for these purposes as that of the Kindergarten of Fröbel.

There is not only an absence of special instruction, already noted, in the high school, but there are none of the supplementary agencies encouraged by the system, such as libraries of reference and circulation, courses of scientific lectures, etc., which at once stimulate and give facilities for the work of self education, after that of the school closes. In this respect the District is deficient in those specially organized schools, for instruction in the various industrial arts, as will be seen, which give such a marked character to the educational systems in the cities of Europe, and with which some of the principal cities of this country are now being supplied.

As the seat of the National Government, as the capital of the great republic of the world, it is impossible that some comparison should not be instituted between the system of public schools, and institutions of art, science, and literature, in operation here and those to be found in the great capitals of European monarchies. We shall in the Appendix and in a Special Report on Technical Education describe in detail several of these institutions; but in this place shall notice only certain peculiar features in their systems of public instructions.

2.—SYSTEMS AND INSTITUTIONS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN EUROPEAN CITIES.

1. The system of elementary instruction in most European cities differs from those in this country in this respect, that the system is complete within itself, and in most cases was originally instituted avowedly for the poor; but by degrees the schools of this grade have been expanded, until now they form part of a system which terminates in one direction in the new polytechnic schools, and in another in the highest universities of the oldest type.

The ordinances which regulate elementary instruction in most German cities distinguish two grades of schools—the *primary* and *burgher* schools, besides the following supplementary schools and classes., viz., *evening* and *Sunday* classes, which young persons who have completed their fourteenth year, and the studies of the primary school, and do not proceed to the *burgher* or the *real school*, are required to attend for two years; *industrial classes* for girls, in which instruction is given in needle-work of every kind; *factory schools*, for children, withdrawn on written permission before the completion of their fourteenth year; *technical* or trade schools, established by the local authorities, but aided by the State, on which attendance is voluntary, but

which the employer cannot prevent his apprentice from attending. The studies of *primary* schools are the same as in the public schools of this District, except that drawing, singing, and gymnastics are universally taught, as well as the elements of natural history, geometry, and mensuration in the higher classes. These primary studies are distributed into four equal periods of two years each, corresponding to the several grades into which our city schools are generally classified. In nearly every city of Germany every pupil has an opportunity in a *burgher* or *real* school, to acquire two or more modern languages, physics, natural history, &c.; and in all the large towns of Switzerland some practical knowledge bearing on the future occupation of the pupil is imparted.

In addition to the elementary schools, in many of these cities some system of infant asylums, or infant schools exists, not simply for the accommodation of parents whose daily avocations are facilitated by securing the proper nursery and infant instruction of their children, but even for families of education and wealth, who would thus secure a more systematic development of the earliest period of a child's life than can be given at home.

A striking feature of these schools is the regular attendance of the scholars for the period of time required by law. To be a pupil in an elementary school in Germany implies that the child is in the school every day during the entire period, from five or six years of age until the close of the fourteenth year In many instances every day's absence from the aggregate is made up before he has discharged his school obligation, or is permitted to become an apprentice, or in any way take part in the ordinary vocations of society. In most if not all of the German States even the labor of children, under the age of fourteen, is either absolutely prohibited or else tolerated only where there is a school connected with the establishment, in which the child can attend school during certain portions of the year, or of each day, and the employer must give evidence that the child has and actually improves the opportunity of receiving elementary school instruction.

Another characteristic feature is the special preparation which every teacher, principal, or assistant, brings to his work—a preparation made in reference to teaching being the business of his life, by which his social and pecuniary position is to be determined, and in which he is sure of a residence for himself and family, in sickness as well as in health, and an allowance for his widow, and the education of his children, in case of his death.

The elementary schools, as well as public schools of other grades in Europe are not free, being supported partly by the municipality, partly by the State, and partly by a small tuition paid by the parents in all but a few exceptional cases. This mode of support does not diminish the allowance.

As compared with the best European city systems, nearly all our city systems are deficient in provisions, (1) for children under six years of age, (2) for children who have no proper home culture, and (3) for pupils who leave school at the age of thirteen or fourteen years, and who are likely to forget the rudimentary knowledge acquired at school, unless it is reviewed and extended in regular evening and Sunday classes, or other supplementary agencies, such as are found in Germany and Switzerland. On the other hand, we have in many of our cities (not always the largest) public schools belonging strictly to the elementary grade, which, in respect to school houses, and their equipment, intelligent, energetic, and versatile teachers, and bright, eager, well-behaved boys and girls from every social condition—never exclusively from the poor or the rich, but representing both, as well as every learned profession, and every form of commercial and mechanical industry, which are at once the admiration of the intelligent stranger, and the pride and blessing of the community where they exist. Schools as good, and in some respects better in the range of instruction, the order and relation of subjects, and in the methods

and motives resorted to by the teacher, may be found abroad; but none so good in reference to our own social law, and to the work which the public school can do. But these schools are not found in all our cities, and in none where the aim is not to meet the wants of the educated and the wealthy, as well as of families content with a lower standard of culture. If the public schools of this District are ever to be ranked with such, they must be made the best, as well as the cheapest, in each grade.

2. But it is in the field of secondary instruction that the superiority of European systems is seen. The number of children in attendance upon these schools is greater than with us; and they pass through a course of instruction more systematic and more complete than is to be found in our best public schools of this grade. Not only are these public schools more numerous, but if parents prefer private instruction of this grade for their children they can have some guaranty of its character. The whole matter of opening and conducting private schools is regulated by law, so far least as the qualifications and worth of the teacher is concerned. No private school can sink below the standard of the public school and retain the confidence of parents.

Nor is the instruction given in the public schools of this grade any longer limited to one course; parents have a choice of courses and schools, according to the career which they wish their children to follow—some with more of the sciences and less of language, and others the reverse; but all, with teachers thoroughly trained, frequently inspected, and closed with a searching examination, which, if passed successfully, is the first step in public employment, or in a professional career.

Tested by the standard of secondary schools, or the requisitions for entering the public service of Prussia, the public schools of this District are lamentably deficient. The best scholar of the best grammar school of this city could not, from any preparation got in any such school, enter the lowest class of a real school, or of a gymnasium of Berlin, or be admitted to even a preliminary examination as a candidate for the lowest clerkship. And yet the poorest scholar from any of these grammar schools could enter his name as a student of law or medicine in the professional schools of this District.

3. If we enter the domain of superior instruction—the range of studies covered by the theory of the American college, a broad, generous culture for any profession or occupation in which the intellectual faculties are to come in play, or the other class of subjects, which the advocates of a more direct scientific technical education would introduce, or the university in the European sense—we pass at once, not only out of the limits, but out of sight of the public schools of the District. These schools, good, as many of them are in their elementary studies, neither furnish this instruction nor the preparation to receive it. Instead of a national university, which Washington recommended, and hoped to endow, and for which a site was set apart in the original plan of the city; instead of a polytechnic school, like that of France, or one of a different type, like that of Zurich, we have numerous incorporated institutions established, endowed, and managed in the interests of a religious sect, or of a class, or a single profession; each with a crowded course of studies, an over-tasked body of teachers, and pupils poorly prepared for their work. No comparison can be instituted in respect to public institutions of this grade between this District and the great capitals of Europe.

4. In the whole field of scientific technical instruction, of special preparation in the knowledge, theoretical and practical, required for the skillful performance of a trade or profession, the District possesses no institutions strictly public. The schools of law, medicine, and commerce are run in the interests of their professors and managers, and there are no such requisition, for admission—no such final examination by competent and responsible authorities—as

to give the proper guaranty to the public that their work is efficiently done. There is no industrial, trade, technic, or polytechnic school in the District where almost every mechanical industry exists—no place where drawing, the alphabet and key of all technical instruction, and the first acquisition of an artistic career, is systematically taught. The smallest village of Germany, in which any special trade is developed to the extent of sending its products into the markets of the world, has a school or institution of this sort; and every great capital, besides its literary university, has at least one regularly organized institution, with a full corps of professors, and every facility of illustration and manipulation, for scientific industrial instruction. A glance at the brief outline and statistical summary of the educational institutions in the capitals and chief cities of Europe, contained in the appendix, especially at the list of superior and technical schools, will show the relative weakness of our systems of public instruction. We have nothing to learn from Europe in the organization of elementary schools beyond the expansion and methods of the primary grade; but we have much to do to equal the range and thoroughness of their secondarary, superior, and special instruction.

5. In the field of supplementary schools, at once charitable and educational, for the deaf-mute, orphan, and neglected children, the District has numerous and excellent examples, which should be brought under more systematic supervision, and which, properly adjusted and supplemented to meet existing wants in other directions, might become models for the whole country.

6. In societies, associations, and agencies for the increase and diffusion of knowledge in literature, science, and art, the District is not deficient, although in no direction have the libraries, museums, collections, laboratories, and other agencies, which the Government has established for different branches of the public service, reached that stage of development as to challenge comparison with similar institutions and agencies in European capitals. Nor have the munificent benefactions of Smithson and Corcoran been so fostered by the sympathy and aid of the Government as to grow rapidly into the libraries, cabinets, and art galleries which the much smaller bequests and gifts of Sloane, Beaumont, and Angerstein have founded in the British Museum, and National Gallery of Great Britian. But in the National Observatory, the Libraries of Congress and the different departments, the models and mechanism of all sorts of the Patent Office, the Minerological Cabinet, the Medical Museum, the natural history and other collections of the Smithsonian Institution, the collections, gardens, and laboratory of the Agricultural Department, and the Corcoran Art Gallery, we see not simply the germs, but the near capabilities of such great national institutions as the British Museum, the National Gallery, the Kew Gardens, the South Kensington Museum, the Science and Art Department with all its associated provincial schools and museums, the Conservatoire of Arts and Trades, the Museum of Natural History, and other great schools, libraries, and collections of Paris and other European capitals,* provided the sums now appropriated for these and similar objects are expended on a well devised plan, conceived in reference to existing deficiencies, and a constant although moderate accessions of permanent value from year to year.

For a fuller development of several topics, discussed in this hasty review of the relative efficiency of the systems of public instruction in operation in this District, reference is made to the documents in the Appendix.

*These great national museums, schools and institutions of arts and sciences are described in the Special Reports of the Commissioner of Education on Scientific Industrial Schools, and on National Education in different countries.

IV.—NEW ORGANIZATION RECOMMENDED.

In view of the facts set forth in the report and the accompanying documents respecting the population and its distribution; the condition of public schools of every grade, and other institutions and means of education; the fragmentary, dissociated, and to some extent antagonistic school organizations within the District, and the experience of communities similarly situated with this as to population and resources in our own and other countries, my belief is that a more efficient system should be instituted by Congress, as the only legislative authority competent to deal with this subject, for the whole District, and that in such a system the following features, or others equally efficient, should be secured.

I.—DISTRICT CONTROL.

First. The public schools at present in operation in any portion of the District, and all asylums for the care and education of children, and all institutions of learning, science, and art which owe their establishment or annual support to the legislation or appropriation of Congress, or to the avails of any public tax or special endowment, should be placed under the supervision of a *District Board*, (to be entitled the Board of Education, or the Controllers of Public Schools and Charities,) with power to organize and administer such system as may be authorized by Congress, and manage or supervise such schools as may be placed by law under their charge; employ such officers, teachers, and inspectors as the system and schools may require; provide the structures and equipment, and make all rules and regulations necessary for the classification, management, instruction, and discipline of the pupils; and submit an annual report to Congress on the condition and improvement of the system and the institutions which may be placed under their administration or supervision.

Second. This Board of Control should be constituted so as to represent—

1. The National Government by at least one-fifth of its members appointed by the President and Senate.

2. The voters and tax-payers in the District by one-fifth of the members to be elected at the regular annual elections for other District officers.

3. Any municipal corporation within the District by the Mayor or Treasurer of each, *ex officio.*

4. The teachers of the District by one or more delegates elected by an association composed of all resident teachers who hold certificates of qualification from any State or city normal school.

5. The Board of Health by the president of such board, or the president of the Medical Society, or a delegate designated by them.

6. The parents and guardians of the pupils who attend the schools by one or more members of their appointment.

7. The special institutions of science, art, and literature in the District by members elected as may be provided. The whole number (18) should be elected or appointed for three years in such way that only one third shall retire each year, allowing six new members to come in, and at least one-half familiar with the condition of the schools and policy of the board for the previous two years to remain.

II.—GRADES OF SCHOOLS AND SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.

The course of instruction should be distributed into five great divisions:

FIRST. The *Primary Schools*, (including the institutions now known as *Kindergartens*,) and embracing generally children from three to eight years of age, and covering not only institutions strictly public, but others which may place all their arrangements as to school premises and teachers under the

supervision and requirements of the Board of Control; so that schools of this grade shall be sufficiently numerous and conveniently located to provide for all children capable of receiving systematic training appropriate to their years, thereby giving assurance that the rudimentary education of the community is properly provided for and begun. This step alone would, in a short time, extinguish the home supply of illiteracy, which is now the disgrace and danger of our free institutions.

SECOND. *Intermediate Schools*; embracing generally children from eight to fourteen years of age, including in their curriculum all that is now taught well in the public schools of the District, and so far complete in itself, that a pupil who has been in regular attendance up to this age and is obliged to leave school will possess the foundation of a good elementary education, which he can afterwards continue and complete in evening or other supplementary schools and agencies of the District.

THIRD. *Secondary Schools*, including generally all between the period of twelve and sixteen years of age, should give something like completeness to what is generally understood to be a common school education, or all that is now attempted in the most advanced classes of the schools of the District, and attained in the best English High School, or Union School in our large cities, including at least one living language beside the English.

FOURTH. *Superior and Special Schools*, embracing a continuation of the studies of the Secondary School, and while giving the facilities of general literary and scientific culture as far as is now reached in the second year of our best colleges, shall offer special instruction (in classes or divisions instituted for the purpose, after the plan of the best Polytechnic Schools,) preparatory: (1,) for the teaching profession; (2,) for commercial pursuits; (3,) for mechanical trades, as well as for the arts of design; and, (4,) for admission to any national special school, (including every department of the public service,) and particularly the languages of countries with which we have close commercial and diplomatic relations.

FIFTH. *Supplementary Schools and Agencies*, to provide (1,) an opportunity to supply deficiencies in elementary education to any adult who has been denied or neglected opportunities of the same; (2,) a regular review and continuation of the studies of the second and third grade of schools; (3,) for special classes of children and youth who cannot be gathered into any of the other grades of schools, and for these purposes, any existing asylums, schools or classes, under certain general regulations, can be recognized; and, (4,) literary and scientific lectures, and class instruction, in which the various public libraries, scientific collections, and laboratories of the District shall be utilized for illustration and for original research.

The aim of the studies and training in the public schools and other educational institutions should be, (1,) the health and physical development, as well as the good manners, sound morals, and correct habits generally of all the pupils; (2,) a knowledge of the English language and its literature to the extent of being able to speak and write the same with accuracy, facility and force; (3,) begun early, and continued through the entire course, at least one language beside the English (the Latin, German, Spanish, or French;) (4,) mathematics and the natural sciences so far as may be required to enter the second year of our national schools at West Point and Annapolis, or of our best American colleges; (5,) moral, mental, political and geographical studies, to include a thorough knowledge of the human mind, the duties of every member of society to himself, his neighbor, and to God, and his legal relations to the State and to other countries; (6,) drawing and music from the earliest class to the latest, with opportunities in the superior and special schools to such as desire and show an aptitude to extend the former into the highest principles of design and its many applications to industrial occupations, and the latter to the prac-

tical ability to teach the same; and (7,) the increase and diffusion of knowledge among all citizens of the United States who have their residence in this District, or may resort here for such opportunities of high culture and original research as the Public Libraries, the Smithsonian Institution, the Medical, Agricultural, Mining, Mechanical and other museums and scientific collections even now present, and which, in a quarter of a century, under a moderate but steady and judicious system of augmentation, will surpass all others in the country, and be surpassed by few only in Europe.

To realize these high aims, so far as public schools are relied on, the Board of Control must be clothed with sufficient authority to provide all necessary buildings and material aids of illustration, and to secure well qualified instructors, vigilant, intelligent, and constant supervision, and the hearty good-will and co-operation of parents and the public generally. The schools must be good enough, cheap enough, and numerous enough for all, with entire liberty of instruction to parents and teachers, but no toleration of an illiterate child over eight years of age in any family. No power will be required by the Board which is not now given to the legislative and administrative school authorities of some other city, with the right of appeal from its action to the Secretary of the Interior; or, acting under his supervision, to the Commissioner of Education.

III.—BOARD OF INSTRUCTION.

The Board of Instruction shall be composed of all the permanently employed teachers in the public schools of the city. In the first instance, all teachers shall be appointed provisionally, and only on the recommendation of the Board of Inspection, after being satisfied from (1) written testimonials, and (2) the results of a written and oral examination, which shall be filed and preserved until a permanent appointment is made; and *permanently* only on the additional evidence of actual success in teaching and discipline in the District. Every teacher thus permanently employed shall be a member of the Board of Instruction, and no member shall be dismissed from the service of the public schools except on the written recommendation of the Inspector General. The Board of Instruction shall be authorized to designate one of their number as member of the Board of Control. To secure permanence, and, at the same time, to provide against disability by sickness, a system of special compensation, increasing with every five years of continued service, and of life assurance, should be adopted.

IV.—BOARD OF INSPECTION.

The executive duties of the Board of Control shall be provided for by a Board of Inspection, to consist (1) of the secretary of the board; (2,) an inspector general, whose duties of supervision shall embrace the whole field of the operations of the board; (3,) special inspectors, appointed from time to time, or permanently, to have charge severally of the construction, repairs, and equipment of buildings, and the inspection of the schools of each grade; and, (4,) such special assignments and appointments as may be required for special duties. This board for consultation shall be represented in the Board of Control by the Inspector General.

V.—SCHOOL VISITORS.

Two visitors (each a parent or guardian) shall be elected for each school, after the summer vacation, by the parents and guardians of the children in actual attendance as pupils, at a meeting notified to be held on the school premises by the president of the board. These visitors shall visit the schools once a month during the year, and note such matters relating to the ventilation

and sanitary condition of the school building and premises, the cleanliness, manners, and conduct generally of the pupils in and out of school hours, as well as their class and other exercises, and communicate the results of their inspection, orally or in writing, to the General Inspector; and the special visitors of all the schools may, in general meeting called for that purpose, designate one of their number each year to be a member of the Board of Control.

VI.—SUPPORT OF THE SCHOOLS AND OPERATIONS OF THE BOARD.

The Board of Control should have subject to their draft such sums as Congress may authorize every year to be collected on presentation of an account in detail of the expenditure for the year previous, and an estimate in detail for the year ensuing, which sum shall be adequate to furnish the requisite buildings and material equipment, instruction, inspection, and other objects authorized by law. The board should be further authorized to receive all donations of any kind, all grants of lands, and other appropriations for educational purposes, and administer the same according to the terms and conditions thereof, and for the advancement of schools and education in the District.

I need barely remind the committee of the liberality of the Government towards the several States in the disposition of the public lands. Out of more than 80,000,000 acres of these lands appropriated expressly for educational purposes to States and Territories already constituted, as shown in the appendix, and $37,000,000 of the surplus revenue deposited with the several States in 1836, which could have been so devoted by the States receiving the same, this District received no portion. Originating in these appropriations of land and deposits of money, there now exist school funds in the several States amounting in the aggregate to over $60,000,000, and which will probably be increased, by the wiser management of land yet unsold in States and Territories which have not yet acted finally in respect to them, to upwards of $100,000,000. In this magnificent endowment the District has had no share. A similar appropriation in land or money to this District, at this time, would greatly aid in providing the necessary school accommodations, and meeting the expenses of an enlarged course of public instruction worthy of the capital of the country.

VII.—ART AND SCIENCE.

Until the scope of its operation and the facilities of accomplishing thoroughly the work now prescribed by this Office are enlarged, or until a special bureau or Commissioner is charged with the conservation of all national works of art, and monuments and memorials of eminent public service, these functions, so far as this District is concerned, might be attached to the board above suggested (in proposition I); and of this board might also be required the consideration of all applications and propositions for these and similar purposes, with a view of bringing such appropriations into a large and uniform plan of expenditure. Such a plan, matured after a study of the situation, and of the experience of other governments in the same field, and sustained by a moderate appropriation from year to year since the first vote for works of art in 1817, would ere this have secured for the country collections like those in the National Galleries in London, Munich, and Berlin, the most valuable portions of which have been gathered within the same period of time and for sums not largely exceeding the aggregate appropriations made by Congress for works of art and art ornamentation in the Capitol.

To this board should also be assigned the establishment of one or more Schools of Design, and the introduction of a system of drawing into all the public schools of the District as a regular branch of instruction, and the management for the whole country of a repository of specimens, models, copies, and implements required for such instruction, especially in its bearing on the mechanical

and manufacturing industries of the nation. For a full development of such a scheme, reference is here made to the account given of instruction in drawing in the public and special schools of Wurtemberg. of art instruction in Belgium, and of the South Kensington Museum, in London, in the Special Report on Technical Schools.

To this board should also be assigned for the present such extension and improvement of the system of instruction in vocal and instrumental music which shall not only make its attainment universal in the public schools, but at the same time, in co-operation with local societies, the inspiration of social, patriotic and religious sentiment throughout the District.

To this board, until a special commission is charged with the same, might also be assigned the duty of including in their annual report to Congress a summary of the progress of the public and department libraries, all scientific collections, all laboratories, and other facilities for original research and scientific investigations carried on in this District in connection with any department of the public service, with a view (1) of showing the present relations of the government to science and arts; (2) of economizing the very large expenditures of the government for these objects by concentrating in some cases the same work and purchases, and in others carrying it further by better appliances and more means; (3) of utilizing all such libraries, collections, laboratories, and investigations, as far as may be found consistent with the special purposes for which they are instituted, for the advancement of general and higher education in the District, and particularly in the field of physical science; and (4) of maturing a plan of government aid to systematic, scientific instruction for the whole country, which must form the basis of its future industrial development.

To this board, as a test of the value of a competitive examination as the basis of appointments and promotions in every department of the public service, might be referred such examination of all candidates who claim a residence in this District, and of such others as the heads of Departments or the appointing power might refer to it for that purpose. No greater boon can be conferred on the public schools of this country by its National Legislature; no amount of pecuniary endowment could so directly operate on the homes and the schools of every State, to influence school attendance, and stimulate the efforts of teachers and pupils, as the formal announcement and consistent practice of making all appointments to the national schools, and to the different departments of the public service, on the results of an open competitive examination as to the bodily vigor, moral character, intellectual aptitude, and special knowledge (varied according to the service) of all candidates, conducted under such general regulations and in such way as to command public confidence, in each State.

Whatever consideration may be given to the foregoing suggestions and outline of a District System, I cannot conclude without reiterating my opinion of the utter inefficiency and insufficiency of the present fragmentary, imperfect, and antagonistic legislation in respect to public schools, and of the pressing necessity of a uniform system throughout the whole District, in which the following provisions should be embraced:

1. There must be legal authority in some responsible board to establish and maintain a sufficient number of schools, of different grades as to the age and studies of their pupils, of uniform excellence in each grade, and at convenient locations; and to provide for their intelligent supervision and progressive improvement, so as to interest the whole community—those with ample as well as those with small or no means but their daily labor; the educated as well as those who are unfortunately without the advantages of culture—in their administration and condition.

2. There must be a sufficient number of structures or apartments to accom-

modate all persons who are entitled or are desirous to attend school. These premises may be hired or owned, large or small, attractive or otherwise; but they must be conveniently located, so as to facilitate and secure the attendance of children, and fitted up and equipped for the purpose of a school (a place of study and discipline)—the health, manners, morals, and intellectual growth of the pupils.

3. There must be the practice of school attendance, the felt or enforced obligation on the part of parents and guardians of children and youth to secure their regular, punctual, and constant attendance on some school, public or private, family or denominational. The problem to be solved under a republican government—the government of all for all—is not the education of the few, or even the many, but of all. And any system of public schools must be considered defective and insufficient which does not provide, induce, and secure the universal education of the entire juvenile population of the community for which it is instituted. There may be a difference of opinion and practice as to the precise age in which school attendance should begin or end, and there may be entire liberty of choice as to place, grade, or method, both to parents and teachers; but every child must be under instruction, and any child whose home or street surroundings are such that the work of demoralization has commenced, should be gathered by the hand of benevolence or law into some school or asylum; and no child under the age of twelve, or even fourteen, should be seen in the streets during the ordinary sessions of school, except for cause which the regulations by the proper authorities recognize as valid for non-attendance.

This non-attendance at school, and irregular, intermittent attendance of children of the teachable age, is the fatal weakness of American popular education; the growing cancer of our social and political life. Notwithstanding the liberal and even prodigal expenditure of money raised by voluntary taxation for school-houses or their equipment, and for the salaries of teachers, janitors, and superintendents in many of our largest cities, there are in these cities a larger number of children not under instruction, and in all the cities of the land a fearfully large number of idle, vagrant, vicious children and youth, who do not come under the restraining influence of good homes or schools, and will, in due time, recruit that great army of ignorant adults which is now our calamity and danger, and unless we do all in our power to diminish and prevent its growth, will prove our disgrace and punishment. In this matter, so vital, so fundamental to the safe working of a system of almost universal suffrage and eligibility to office, the country has a right to look to its Supreme Legislature, in the District over which it has exclusive jurisdiction, and under such conditions as to area, population, and means as to make the solution of the problem comparatively easy—for a demonstration of universal school attendance of all children of teachable age and in good health, in some school, public or private.

4. To make their attendance at school in the highest degree profitable, children must go through a regular course of instruction; and for this purpose full power to grade the schools and classify the pupils must be given to the board or authorities charged with the administration of the system. This gradation of schools and classification of pupils must be left in its details to the board; but my deep conviction is that the lowest grade of schools should cover the play period of the child's life, beginning three years earlier than is now the practice in this District. The second grade should have special reference to the fact that until a radical change can be wrought in the views and habits of parents, the course of instruction should be designed for those who will leave school at the age of thirteen years, and should be complete in itself. No excuse for absence from a school of this grade, public or private, should be allowed. Better for the community to pay any expense, even to clothing and

feeding children of this age, than to allow them to be withdrawn from school on the plea of their labor being wanted to the support of themselves or their families. It is the teachable period of life; and, if lost, it is lost forever to most of this class. The grades beyond these two are essential to interesting a large and influential class of the community in the public schools, and, unless they are interested by having children in the schools, no modifications of the system will make the schools truly common. There must be facilities of education such as only the best private schools, academies, or colleges now furnish, or which parents secure by sending their children out of the District.

5. Whatever may be the number of grades into which the children may be classified, the teachers must be selected in reference to each grade, and to secure a home supply, in part at least, a normal course should at once be opened, in connection with a girls' high school, for those pupils who show the natural aptitude for instruction and discipline; and a similar course in a high school for boys, for young men who desire to become teachers.

6. To secure regularity and uniformity in the operation of the whole system, the classes and schools must be subject to intelligent supervision; and for the internal work of a group of schools of different grades which have a common head in the highest class or school of certain sections of the District, the teacher of that class or school should be made the inspector; and authority so to group the schools and employ the teacher should be lodged with the board. To this form of inspection should be added one or more persons whose sole business should be that of inspection and school advancement.

7. Neither suitable buildings and their equipment for instructional purposes can be provided, or teachers properly trained and working with a feeling of security in their position, can be permanently employed, unless there are adequate means at the disposal of the board which cannot be withheld, or diverted for any other branch of the public service. The public schools of this District are now suffering from want of healthy and convenient school-rooms, and the teachers are subjected every year to great inconvenience, anxiety, and even distress, by having their regular payments withheld, in consequence of insufficient or unavailable appropriations. The Board of Education is the only authority competent to estimate the appropriations necessary for the year, and that once allowed, the sum should be at their sole control.

8. To obviate a disastrous tendency in all systems of public instruction to weaken the sense of parental responsibility, and to bring the home and the school into more uniform and vigorous co-operation in the realization of a great public and individual advantage—the right education of children, the parents and guardians as such, and not as citizens only, should be recognized in the administration of the schools. They should be authorized not simply as individuals, but as representatives of the families to which the children belong, to visit the schools, and to report to the proper authorities the views which such visits might suggest.

9. To give due importance to the completed work of the system, a diploma should be issued in the name of the highest school authorities, which, founded on the record of the school life of the pupil and a final examination, should be evidence of the holder's educational qualification for citizenship, and for the first stage of public employment.

The provisions above suggested might be incorporated as amendments into the systems now in operation, but any legislation which does not reach the consolidation and reorganization of existing systems and institutions, in which the best features of our American public schools shall be embraced, and the following features which have not yet been thoroughly developed in any of our American cities, will not meet the exigencies of this District.

10. To the regular schools should be added a system of supplementary institutions and special school agencies, not necessarily originating with the

board but aided by its appropriations and visited by its officers; and at the same time enlisting the contributions and personal attention of benevolent individuals and religious societies. Much has been done in this direction already (see Appendix B), but there are many adults as well as children whose school attendance has been prematurely abridged or entirely neglected, and who cannot be gathered into the regular day school, and whose vagrant habits are chafed by the restraints of school discipline, and whose ability to read the language should be facilitated by text-books and methods different from those in general use, like those of Dr. Leigh. For children of this class everywhere, and particularly for all the States where the old system of labor is broken up, and where a diversity of new occupations is a social necessity, the technical element should at once be incorporated and made permanent in the organization and instruction of special schools. One model and normal school (for similar schools further South), at once for pupil and pupil-teachers, like the *Industrial Schools* of Switzerland, the *St. Nicholas Institution* in Paris, and the *La Martiniere* at Lyons, described in the *Special Report on Scientific and Industrial Schools,* would be a blessing not only to this District, but to all the States in which there is a pressing necessity for elementary schools, and new industrial views and habits are to be formed. One such school is needed in every city and village of the land. In this school drawing should be a prominent study, and its introduction through teachers properly trained could be greatly facilitated by a Normal Drawing School in connection with the Corcoran Art Gallery.

11. The crowning feature of the District system should be a National Polytechnic School or University, like that of Zurich, Stuttgardt, or Carlsruhe, or the Polytechnic School and Central School of Arts in Paris combined, which might be established and supported out of the savings that could easily be effected by a reorganization of our two National Military Schools, made in reference to the present ability of our State public schools to furnish a higher preparation. By such reorganization the course of instruction in both these institutions could be reduced to two years; and if the candidates could be selected on a test which should give to the national service the most meritorious youth in each Congressional district a stimulus of the most powerful character would be imparted to the public schools of the whole country.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner of Education.

DOCUMENTS ACCOMPANYING SPECIAL REPORT

OF THE

COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

IN THE

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

A.

HISTORY OF PROCEEDINGS IN THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A PERMANENT SEAT OF GOVERNMENT FOR THE UNITED STATES.

ESTABLISHMENT OF A PERMANENT SEAT OF GOVERNMENT.

HISTORY OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A PERMANENT SEAT OF GOVERNMENT FOR THE UNITED STATES.

I. MEETINGS OF CONGRESS PRIOR TO NOVEMBER, 1800.

The first American Congress for united opposition to those measures of the British Parliament which the colonies considered oppressive, met at New York on the 7th of October, 1765. In consequence of the stamp act, and other grievances, committees from Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and South Carolina assembled "to consult together on the present circumstances of the colonies and the difficulties to which they are, and must be, reduced by the operation of the acts of Parliament for levying duties and taxes on the colonies; and to consider of a general and united, dutiful, loyal, and humble representation of their condition to his Majesty, and the Parliament, and to implore relief."

1765

The stamp act was repealed, but causes of dissatisfaction continued, and a second Congress met in Philadelphia on the 5th of September, 1774, and sat until October 26. Delegates were present from New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina. By the rules adopted, each colony was entitled to one vote, "the Congress not being possessed of, or at present able to procure, proper materials for ascertaining the importance of each colony;" no question was to be determined the day on which it "was agitated and debated," if any colony desired a postponement; and the doors were to be kept shut during the time of business, and the members "to consider themselves under the strongest obligations of honor to keep the proceedings secret" until a majority directed them to be made public. Before dissolving it was

1774

"*Resolved*, as the opinion of this Congress, That it will be necessary that another Congress should be held on the 10th day of May next, unless the redress of grievances which we have desired be obtained before that time. And we recommend that the same be held in Philadelphia, and that all the colonies in North America choose deputies as soon as possible to attend such Congress."

The King and his advisers endeavored to prevent another meeting, and in January, 1775, the Secretary of State for the colonies sent the following circular letter to all the governors:

1775

"Certain persons, styling themselves delegates of his Majesty's colonies in America, having presumed, without his Majesty's authority or consent, to assemble together at Philadelphia in the months of September and October last; and having thought fit, among other unwarrantable proceedings, to resolve that it will be necessary that another Congress should be held in the same place on the 10th of May next, unless redress for certain pretended grievances be obtained before that time, and to recommend that all the colonies in North America should choose deputies to attend such Congress; I am commanded by the King to signify to you his Majesty's pleasure that you do use your utmost endeavors to prevent any such appointment of deputies within the colony under your government, and that you do exhort all persons to desist from such unwarrantable proceedings, which cannot but be highly displeasing to the King."

Notwithstanding the royal prohibition, delegates were again chosen, and the third Congress met in Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775. From that time onward America has not been without a Congress. This was a continuous body (though there were changes in the delegates) till 1781, when annual sessions began, as required by the articles of confederation.

Peyton Randolph was chosen President. On the 19th of May John Hancock was chosen in place of Randolph, who had gone home; November 1, 1777, Henry Laurens, in place of

Hancock, who left Congress; December 10, 1778, John Jay, in place of Laurens, resigned; September 28, 1779. Samuel Huntington, in place of Jay, appointed minister to Spain.

In 1781 annual elections began. Charles Thomson was secretary throughout the whole period of the Continental Congress. In the credentials of the various delegates this body was styled the "American Congress," the "Continental Congress," and the "General Congress." The rules of the preceding Congress were adopted, and the sessions were held in Philadelphia during the whole period of the war of the Revolution, except while the city was threatened or held by the enemy, during which time it met at Baltimore, Maryland, from December 20, 1776, to February 27, 1777; at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, on the 27th of September, 1777; and at Yorktown, Pennsylvania, from September 30, 1777, to June 27, 1778.

1783 In June, 1783, after the cessation of hostilities, and while the treaty of peace was under negotiation, the Continental Congress suddenly left Philadelphia, never to return. During the more than five years of its subsequent history it met at Princeton, Annapolis, Trenton, and New York, but no argument nor persuasion, though often urged and under various forms, could ever prevail upon it to hold another session in Philadelphia. The occasion of the sudden removal was the mutinous and threatening conduct of certain troops, which the State authorities, in the opinion of Congress, failed to meet with sufficient spirit. As this event was the cause of much excitement and controversy at the time, and had an influence on subsequent deliberations of Congress respecting the seat of government, its importance will justify devoting to it a few of these pages. Both sides of the question are presented at large in two official reports inserted below, one to Congress, the other to the assembly of Pennsylvania.

On the 21st of June, 1783, Congress

"*Resolved*, That the President and the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania be informed that the authority of the United States having this day been grossly insulted by the disorderly and menacing appearance of a body of armed soldiery about the place within which Congress were assembled, and the peace of this city being endangered by the mutinous disposition of the said troops now in the barracks, it is, in the opinion of Congress, necessary that effectual measures be immediately taken for supporting the public authority.

"*Resolved*, That the committee on a letter from Colonel Butler be directed to confer, without loss of time, with the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania on the practicability of carrying the preceding resolution into effect; and that, in case it shall appear to the committee that there is not a satisfactory ground for expecting adequate and prompt exertions of this State for supporting the dignity of the federal government, the President, on the advice of the committee, be authorized and directed to summon the members of Congress to meet on Thursday next at Trenton or Princeton, in New Jersey, in order that further and more effectual measures may be taken for suppressing the present revolt and maintaining the dignity and authority of the United States.

"*Resolved*, That the Secretary at War be directed to communicate to the commander-in-chief the state and disposition of the said troops, in order that he may take immediate measures to despatch to this city such force as he may judge expedient for suppressing any disturbances that may ensue."

Several conferences were held between the committee of Congress and the Pennsylvania council, but with no satisfactory result. The committee considered there was a lack of promptness and energy on the part of the State authorities, while the council maintained that nothing which could properly be done was omitted. The committee concluding that there was "not a satisfactory ground for expecting adequate and prompt exertions of this State for supporting the dignity of the federal government," so advised the President of Congress, who issued a proclamation on the 24th of June summoning the members to meet at Princeton on the 26th, and stating the causes for the removal from Philadelphia. Much feeling was excited by this action, and many articles appeared in the newspapers on the subject, some approving and others censuring and ridiculing the members. Some of these were copied for insertion here, but are omitted for want of room.

The following is a copy of the proclamation:

By his Excellency Elias Boudinot, esq., President of the United States in Congress assembled:

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas a body of armed soldiers in the service of the United States, and quartered in the barracks of this city, having mutinously renounced their obedience to their officers, did, on Saturday the 21st day of this instant, proceed, under the direction of their sergeants, in a hostile and threatening manner to the place in which Congress were assembled, and did surround the same with guards; and whereas Congress, in consequence thereof, did, on the same day, resolve "that the President and supreme executive council of this State should be informed that the authority of the United States having been that day grossly insulted by the disorderly and menacing appearance of a body of armed soldiers about the place within which Congress were assembled, and that the peace of the city being endangered by the mutinous disposition of the said troops then in the barracks, it was, in the opinion of Congress, necessary that effectual measures should be immediately taken for supporting the public authority;" and also whereas Congress did, at the same time, appoint a committee to confer with the said President and supreme executive council on the practicability of carrying the said resolution into due effect; and also whereas the said committee have reported to me that they have not received satisfactory assurance for expecting adequate and prompt exertions of this State for supporting the dignity of the federal government; and also whereas the soldiers still continue in a state of open mutiny and revolt, so that the dignity and authority of the United States would be constantly exposed to a repetition of insult while Congress shall continue to sit in this city; I do, therefore, by and with the advice of said committee, and according to the powers and authorities in me vested for this purpose, hereby summon the honorable the delegates composing the Congress of the United States, and every of them, to meet in Congress on Thursday the 26th day of June instant, at Princeton, in the State of New Jersey, in order that further and more effectual measures may be taken for suppressing the present revolt and maintaining the dignity and authority of the United States, of which all officers of the United States, civil and military, and all other whom it may concern, are desired to take notice and govern themselves accordingly.

Given under my hand and seal at Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, this twenty-fourth day of June, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eight-three, and of our sovereignty and independence the seventh.

ELIAS BOUDINOT.

The following letter is from the governor of New Jersey to the President of Congress:

TRENTON, *June* 24, 1783.

SIR: I just this moment received your excellency's letter of yesterday, on my journey to Elizabethtown. I am greatly mortified at the insult offered to Congress by part of the soldiery. If that august body shall think proper to honor this State with their presence, I make not the least doubt that the citizens of New Jersey will cheerfully turn out to repel any violence that may be attempted against them; and as soon as I shall be informed of the movement of Congress to this State, and that there is the least reason to apprehend that the mutineers intend to prosecute their riotous measures, I shall with the greatest alacrity give the necessary orders, and think myself not a little honored by being personally engaged in defending the representatives of the United States against every insult and indignity.

I have the honor to be your excellency's most obedient and humble servant,

WILL. LIVINGSTON.

His Excellency the PRESIDENT *of Congress.*

The governors and masters of the college of Princeton made the following address to the President of Congress:

NASSAU HALL, *June* 26, 1783.

SIR: The governors and masters of the college, happy in an opportunity of paying the Congress of the United States their profoundest and sincerest honors, beg leave to offer them,

through your excellency, to that august body. Convinced how few accommodations this small village possesses, in comparison with those which for several years Congress have enjoyed in a large and flourishing city, we wish to offer them every convenience that the college in its present state can afford. If the hall or library room can be made of any service to Congress, as places in which to hold their sessions, or for any other purpose, we pray that they would accept of them during their continuance in this place. And if in the common shock of our country this institution hath suffered more than other places, both by friends and foes; from its readiness to assist the one, while the public was yet poor and unprovided with conveniences for their troops; and from the peculiar and marked resentment of the other, as supposing it to be a nursery of rebellion, we doubt not but the candor of that honorable body will readily excuse the marks of military fury which it still retains.

Signed, in behalf of the governors and masters of the college,

SAMUEL S. SMITH,
Professor of Divinity and Moral Philosophy.
JAMES RIDDLE,
Professor of Mathematics.

His Excellency the PRESIDENT *of Congress.*

Extract of a letter dated Newburgh, New York, June 24, 1783, from General Washington to the President of Congress:

"It was not until three o'clock this afternoon that I had the first information of the infamous and outrageous mutiny of a part of the Pennsylvania troops. It was then I received your excellency's letter of the 21st by express, and, agreeable to the request contained in it, I instantly ordered three complete regiments of infantry and a detachment of artillery to be put in motion as soon as possible. This corps will consist of upwards of 1,500 effectives. As all the troops who composed this gallant army, as well those who were furloughed as those who remain in service, are men of tried fidelity, I could not have occasion to make any choice of corps, and I have only to regret that there existed a necessity they should be employed on so disagreeable a service. I dare say, however, they will on this and all other occasions perform their duty as brave and faithful soldiers.

"While I suffer the most poignant distress in observing that a handful of men, contemptible in numbers and equally so in point of service, (if the veteran troops from the southward have not been seduced by their example,) and who are not worthy to be called soldiers, should disgrace themselves as the Pennsylvania mutineers have done, by insulting the sovereign authority of the United States and that of their own, I feel an inexpressible satisfaction that this behavior cannot stain the name of the American soldiery, it cannot be imputable to or reflect dishonor on the army at large; but on the contrary it will, by the striking contrast it exhibits, hold up to the public view the other troops in the most advantageous point of light. Upon taking all the circumstances into consideration, I cannot sufficiently express my surprise and indignation at the arrogance, the folly, and the wickedness of the mutineers; nor can I sufficiently admire the fidelity, the bravery, and the patriotism which must forever signalize the unsullied character of the troops of our army; for when we consider that these Pennsylvania levies who had now mutinied are recruits and soldiers of a day, who have not borne the heat and burden of the war, and who can have in reality but few hardships to complain of; and when we at the same time recollect that those soldiers who have lately been furloughed from this army are the veterans who have patiently endured hunger, nakedness, and cold, who have suffered and bled without a murmur, and who with perfect good order have retired to their homes without the settlement of their accounts or a farthing of money in their pockets, we shall be as much astonished at the virtues of the latter as we are struck with horror and detestation at the proceedings of the former; and every candid mind, without indulging ill-grounded prejudices, will undoubtedly make the proper discrimination."

REPORT TO CONGRESS.

In Congress on the 1st of July, the committee, consisting of Mr. Hamilton and Mr. Ellsworth, appointed on the 21st of June to confer with the supreme executive council of Penn-

sylvania on the practicability of taking measures to support the public authority, delivered in a report as follows:

The committee appointed to confer with the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania on the practicability of taking effectual measures to support the public authority, in consequence of the disorderly and menacing appearance of a body of armed soldiers surrounding the place where Congress were assembled on Saturday the 21st instant, beg leave to report:

That they had a conference the morning following with the supreme executive council, agreeably to the intention of Congress, and having communicated their resolution on that subject, informed the council that Congress considered the proceeding on which that resolution was founded of so serious a nature as to render palliatives improper, and to require that vigorous measures should be taken to put a stop to the further progress of the evil, and to compel submission on the part of the offenders; that in this view they had thought it expedient to declare to the executive of the State in which they reside, the necessity of taking effectual measures for supporting the public authority; that though they had declined a specification of the measures which they would deem effectual, it was their sense that a number of the militia should be immediately called out, sufficient to suppress the revolt; that Congress, unwilling to expose the United States to a repetition of the insult, had suspended their ordinary deliberations in this city till proper steps could be taken to provide against the possibility of it.

The council, after some conversation, informed the committee that they would wish, previous to a determination, to ascertain the state and disposition of the militia and to consult the officers for that purpose.

The day following the committee waited upon the council for their final resolution, having previously presented a letter addressed to his excellency the President, of which a copy is annexed, requesting the determination of the council in writing.

The council declined a written answer, alleging that it had been unusual on similar occasions; that they were unwilling to do anything which might appear an innovation in the manner of conducting conferences between their body and committees of Congress; adding, however, that they were ready to give their answer in writing if Congress should request it. They then proceeded to a verbal answer, in substance as follows:

That the council had a high respect for the representative sovereignty of the United States, and were disposed to do everything in their power to support its dignity; that they regretted the insult which had happened, with this additional motive of sensibility, that they had themselves had a principal share in it; that they had consulted a number of well-informed officers of the militia, and found that nothing in the present state of things was to be expected from that quarter; that the militia of the city in general were not only ill provided for service, but disinclined to act upon the present occasion; that the council did not believe any exertions were to be looked for from them, except in case of further outrage and actual violence to person or property; that in such case a respectable body of citizens would arm for the security of their property and the public peace, but it was to be doubted what measure of outrage would produce this effect, and in particular it was not to be expected merely from a repetition of the insult which had happened.

The council observed that they thought it their duty to communicate their expectations with candor, and passed from the subject of the practicability of vigorous measures to the policy of them. They stated that General St. Clair, with the approbation of several members of Congress and of council, had, by a declaration in writing, permitted the mutineers to choose a committee of commissioned officers to represent their grievances to council, and had authorized them to expect that a conference would be allowed for that purpose; that it was said the mutineers began to be convinced of their error and were preparing submissions; that from the steps which had been taken the business seemed to be in a train of negotiation, and that it merited consideration how far it would be prudent to terminate the matter in that way rather than employ coercive means.

The committee remarked, with respect to the scruple about giving an answer in writing, that they could not forbear differing in opinion as to its propriety; that nothing was more common than written communications between the executives of the different States and the

civil and military officers acting under the authority of the United States; that for a much stronger reason there was a propriety in this mode of transacting business between the council and a committee of the body of Congress; that indeed it would be conformable to the most obvious and customary rules of proceeding, and that the importance of the present occasion made it desirable to give every transaction the greatest precision.

With respect to the practicability of employing the militia, the committee observed that this was a point of which the council was alone competent to judge; that the duty of the committee was performed in explicitly signifying the expectations of Congress. And with respect to the policy of coercion, the committee remarked that the measures taken by Congress clearly indicated their opinion that the excesses of the mutineers had passed the bounds within which a spirit of compromise might consist with the dignity and even the safety of government; that impunity for what had happened might encourage to more flagrant proceedings, invite others to follow the example, and extend the mischief; that the passiveness of conduct observed towards the detachment which had mutinied at Lancaster and come to the city in defiance of their officers had no doubt led to the subsequent violences; that these considerations had determined Congress to adopt decisive measures; that, besides the application to the State in which they reside for its immediate support, they had not neglected other means of ultimately executing their purpose, but had directed the commander-in-chief to march a detachment of troops towards the city; that whatever moderation it might be prudent to exercise toward the mutineers when they were once in the power of the government, it was necessary, in the first instance, to place them in that situation; that Congress would probably continue to pursue this object unless it should be superseded by unequivocal demonstrations of submission on the part of the mutineers; that they had hitherto given no satisfactory evidence of this disposition, having lately presented the officers they had chosen to represent their grievances with a formal commission in writing, enjoining them, if necessary, to use compulsory means for redress, and menacing them with death in case of their failing to execute their views.

Under this state of things the committee could not forbear suggesting to the council that it would be expedient for them so to qualify the reception which they should think proper to give to any propositions made by the mutineers, as not to create embarrassment should Congress continue to act on the principle of coercion.

The committee finding that there was no satisfactory ground to expect prompt and adequate exertions on the part of the executive of this State for supporting the public authority, were bound by the resolution under which they acted to advise the President to summon Congress to assemble at Princeton or Trenton on Thursday the 26th instant.

Willing, however, to protract the departure of Congress as long as they could be justified in doing it, still hoping that further information would produce more decisive measures on the part of the council, and desirous of seeing what complexion the intimated submissions would assume, they ventured to defer advising the removal till the afternoon of the day following that on which the answer of council was given. But having then received no further communications from the council, and having learnt from General St. Clair that the submissions proposed to be offered by the mutineers, through the officers they had chosen to represent them, were not of a nature sufficiently explicit to be accepted or relied on; that they would be accompanied by new demands to which it would be improper to listen; that the officers themselves composing the committee had shown a mysterious reluctance to inform General St. Clair of their proceedings—had refused, in the first instance, to do it, and had afterwards only yielded to a peremptory demand on his part—the committee could no longer think themselves at liberty to delay their advice for adjournment, which they this day accordingly gave; persuaded, at the same time, that it was necessary to impress the mutineers with a conviction that extremities would be used against them before they would be induced to resolve on a final and unreserved submission.

PHILADELPHIA. *June* 24, 1783.

REPORT TO THE PENNSYLVANIA ASSEMBLY.

A message from the President and the Supreme Executive Council to the General Assembly of Pennsylvania. August 18, 1783.

GENTLEMEN: We think it our duty to lay before you an account of the late disturbances among the soldiery in this State.

On the 19th day of June we received the enclosed letters from Colonel Richard Butler and William Henry, esq., of Lancaster, and immediately transmitted them by our delegates to Congress.

In the conference with the committee appointed on these letters, some of them proposed the stopping the soldiery from Lancaster by a detachment of the militia, to be instantly called out. We informed the committee that Lieutenant Butler, who brought the late despatches, had represented to us that the soldiers had behaved very regularly upon their march; that they said they were coming to have their accounts settled; that they must then be near the town, and that it was very improbable a sufficient force could be collected in time to intercept them.

The case appeared so delicate and difficult, that the committee themselves seemed to doubt the propriety of opposing the soldiers by force, and compelling them to return; and one of them said that "in all cases in which he could not determine precisely what to do, it was a maxim with him that the better way was to do nothing."

On the same day orders were issued from the war office that these soldiers should be received into the barracks and supplied with rations.

On Saturday, the 21st day of June, a party of thirty armed soldiers marched from their quarters in the barracks, and parading before the state-house, where we were then met in council, sent up to us, by the secretary, the following message in writing:

"*May it please your excellency:*

"We, the non-commissioned officers and soldiers now in this city, demand of you, and the honorable council, authority to appoint commissioned officers to command us, and redress our grievances, which officers to have full power to adopt such measures as they may judge most likely to procure us justice. You will immediately issue such authority, and deliver it to us, or otherwise we shall instantly let in those injured soldiers upon you, and abide the consequences. You have only twenty minutes to deliberate upon this important matter. The officers in general have forsaken us, and refuse to take any further command. This, I presume, you all know. We are, in behalf of ourselves and the men, yours, &c., &c."

The immediate object of this message, the terms in which it was expressed, and the further design of the insurgents to procure a sanction for their future proceedings, by an authority to be derived from us, determined us unanimously to resolve that "the demands contained in it should be rejected."

In the mean time a larger number of soldiers in arms advanced, and soon joined their companions, making, in the whole, a body of about 300 men of the Pennsylvania line, under the direction of sergeants. They paraded also before the state-house; a party of 15 or 20 men took post in the yard, opposite to the south windows of the council chamber, and sentinels were fixed at the doors of the state-house, but people still kept continually going out and coming in without being stopped by them.

We remained in the council chamber for more than an hour after the receipt of the message before mentioned, and then sent the secretary to inquire if that message to the council was approved by the soldiers in general. He reported to us that he was answered insolently by some of the leaders: "It was approved by them, and that we should hear more from them."

While those things passed, most of the members of Congress assembled, but not in sufficient number to form a Congress. That honorable body stood adjourned from Friday till the following Monday, Saturday being a day of usual recess; but upon the alarm, the members were specially summoned by their President, and at the place to which the soldiers were moving. For what purpose they were so summoned, we have not been informed.

The President of this board went to these gentlemen and communicated the message of the

soldiery and the resolution of the council. He then returned to the council chamber. No further measure was decided upon till General St. Clair came up, and expressed his hopes that the soldiers might be prevailed upon to return peaceably to their quarters, if council would consent to a conference with a committee of either commissioned or deranged officers, to be appointed by them, on the state of their affairs. The president of this board again went to the Congress room, and asked the President of Congress, in the presence of several other members, if it was agreeable to them that council should hold the conference proposed through General St. Clair. He was answered by the President, that they most cheerfully agreed to council's holding such conference; for that he, and the members of Congress, had empowered General St. Clair to settle the matter with the soldiers, in such manner as he should judge most proper." *

We assented to the proposal. About three o'clock the members of Congress left the state-house. We have heard that their President was stopped for a few moments in Chestnut street by some soldiers; but that one of the leading sergeants coming up, apologized for what had happened, reproved the soldiers, and took them away.

We continued in council till four o'clock, when the soldiers were on their return to the barracks.

That evening Colonel Hamilton and Mr. Elsworth, of a committee of Congress, called upon the President and read to him a resolution which had been just passed by that honorable body. The President told them he would summon a council to take it into consideration, and to confer with the committee the next morning at nine o'clock. We met accordingly at the President's house on Sunday, June the 22d, and the following resolution was read to us by the committee.

[Here follow the resolutions of Congress of June 21, already given.]

The committee then gave us the explanation, as they termed it, of the foregoing resolution: "By effectual measures, Congress mean that the militia of the State be immediately called forth, in sufficient force to reduce the soldiers to obedience, disarm and put them in the power of Congress."

We observed that this was indeed a matter of great moment, and to obtain the desired effect without producing unhappy consequences, must be conducted with much prudence; that to call the militia into service without an assurance of a sufficient force being immediately collected, would be an act of irritation that might provoke the soldiery to excesses, which they otherwise might decline; that we would take immediate steps, by consulting the colonels of the regiments of militia, for discovering the disposition of the militia, and the state of preparation in which they were, in order to ascertain the practicability of adopting the "effectual measures" recommended by Congress, in such manner as would give a reasonable expectation of success; that the State magazine was in the hands of the soldiery, and the commissary of military stores had but a very inconsiderable quantity of fixed ammunition in his possession; that difficulties might arise from the militia law itself; that in the present situation of affairs delay was of the greatest advantage to us, as the soldiers were ready to act; that they had put themselves in a train of negotiation, which, if properly improved by us, might afford us opportunity to prepare everything for reducing them, and to avail ourselves of every circumstance that might occur for making proper impressions on their minds; that this was not so much to be considered as an insurrection of the citizens of Pennsylvania, as a mutiny of continental troops; that if the rest of the army, or a sufficient part of them, could be relied on, it appeared to us advisable that intelligence of this disturbance should be immediately despatched to the commander-in-chief, and a body of men put in motion toward this city; that this measure might in a few days have a very favorable effect upon the soldiers, or, if they should take any resolution from despair on receiving notice of it, we should then be in a better condition to resist their outrages; and that we would immediately make every effort in our power to answer the wishes of Congress.

* Several members of Congress say that General St. Clair was called into the Congress room, and, as well as the members can recollect, addressed by the President in these words: "Sir: You are empowered by the members of Congress here present to go among the soldiers and take such measures as you shall judge most proper."

The committee replied that there was great weight in these observations; that prudence required that means should be used for ascertaining the temper of the citizens, and what degree of assurance might be placed in their exertions; that this should be done with profound secrecy, to prevent the soldiery from discovering what was in agitation; that if, upon making all the inquiry which might be consistent with the secrecy with which this business should be conducted, council should not think it practicable to draw forth an adequate force immediately, it would be more advisable, and entirely the sense of Congress, that none should be drawn forth; for Congress were determined to proceed by coercion, and expected soon to have a force that could be depended on; that the army might be relied on, and that proper representations had been made to the commander-in-chief; that as to the want of ammunition, we might be assured that we could be supplied with any quantity of musket and cannon cartridges in fifteen minutes, one of the committee having pointed his inquiries to that subject, and his information being derived from a person whose business it was to know.

We then desired that the ammunition mentioned by the committee might be secured, lest it might be discovered and seized by the soldiers. The committee agreed to confer with us again next morning, and then withdrew.*

After the committee had withdrawn we resolved that every member of council use the utmost diligence to inform himself as to the practicability of collecting a sufficient force immediately to carry the resolution of Congress into execution, and that the commanding officers of regiments and Captain Morris, of the light-horse, should be consulted on the subject.

The next morning, Monday, June the 23d, we met in the council chamber, and the president laid before council the following letter:

PHILADELPHIA, *June* 23, 1783.

SIR: We have the honor to enclose for your excellency and council a copy of the resolutions communicated in our conference yesterday. Having then fully entered into all the explanations which were necessary on the subject, we shall not trouble your excellency with a recapitulation. But as the subject is of a delicate and important nature, we think it our duty to request the determination of the council in writing.

We have the honor to be, with perfect respect, your excellency's most obedient servant,

A. HAMILTON.

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* The committee of Congress, in their report, have fallen into several mistakes by confounding facts and sentiments, and representing them as happening or expressed at times when they had not happened or were not expressed. These mistakes were owing, no doubt, to the quick succession of circumstances, and the ideas that, without noticing dates, in consequence took possession of the mind. The obvious construction of the first report is that the committee informed the council "of the letter to Congress from the board of sergeants," though not a single member of the council, nor the secretary, has any remembrance of its being mentioned by them, nor does any member now know what that message was. The argument annexed to it in the report is no more recollected.

The committee say that the council informed them "the exertions of the militia were not to be expected from the repetition of the insult which had happened," though the council only said "they could not be sure that such another insult would produce those exertions."

In short, to show the extreme inaccuracy with which these reports, to be entered upon the minutes of Congress, and preserved among the archives of the empire, have been composed, it is necessary only to attend to that part where the committee say they "represented to council that Congress would probably continue to pursue the object of having the soldiers in their power, unless it should be superseded by unequivocal demonstrations of submission on the part of the mutineers; that they had hitherto given no satisfactory evidence of this disposition, having lately presented the officers they had chosen to represent their grievances, with a formal commission in writing, enjoining them to use compulsory means for redress, and menacing them with death in case of their failing to execute their views."

The conference in which the committee say they made this representation was held, according to their own report, on the 23d day of June. It began at 10 o'clock in the morning. The commission from the mutineers to the officers bears date, and was presented to the officers on that day about 8 o'clock in the morning. It is highly improbable that the committee should have discovered its contents in the two hours that intervened between its being presented and their meeting the council; and the improbability is increased by this circumstance, that not a man who was in council knew anything of the commission, nor remembers to have heard a single syllable respecting it mentioned by the committee during the whole conference.

The first knowledge council had of the commission was on the 24th, when they received the letter from Captain Christie, and that same day they sent a copy of it to Congress by their secretary.

After considering this letter, and agreeing to a resolution upon it, the committee came in. We began the conference by saying that we had used all the industry we could the preceding day and that morning to inform ourselves as to the practicability of collecting a sufficient force immediately to carry the resolution of Congress into execution in the best manner, and that all the commanding officers of regiments, except one, had been consulted by us on that subject; that the result of our inquiries was that the citizens were impressed with an opinion of the pacific disposition of the soldiery in the barracks, and that they would be satisfied with what was just and reasonable; that the officers also declared the militia were not prepared for service; and that it would be very imprudent to call them into immediate action under these impressions and in such a situation.

We desire the committee would be pleased to consider the difficulties under which we labored in collecting and equipping a sufficient body of men upon such an occasion, and that time might be allowed for communicating the proper information, and urging the proper motives to bring the minds of our fellow-citizens into a correspondence with the views of Congress, and for preparing them to act; that to make an attempt too hastily for the purpose of executing their resolutions, or to give assurances that it should be executed without a reasonable persuasion that we should not be mistaken, would, instead of evidencing our reverence for Congress, be to betray them; that therefore we should confide in the candor of the committee and in the magnanimity of Congress to put a just construction upon our conduct; that the soldiers had behaved very peaceably since Saturday, had appointed their committee to confer with us, and seemed to rely upon the negotiation which they had been induced to commence, with the concurrence of the President and the members of Congress themselves, who had sent General St. Clair to treat with them, and which we had agreed to proceed in, with the approbation and advice of the President of Congress and the members who had been spoken to on the occasion: that in this state of affairs any movement to collect the militia might be regarded by the soldiery as an act of treachery. and, unless it should be rapid and efficient, would at once expose Congress, council, and our fellow-citizens, and endanger the city.

That as to the letter of the committee requesting the determination of the council in writing, it appeared to us an unusual mode of proceeding in conferences between committees of Congress and the council of this State; that this mode did not seem to be intended by Congress; that if they had made the request we should cheerfully have granted it; if they should now make it, we should not hesitate to comply; that we had received from the committee a verbal and most important explanation of the resolution delivered by them, fully confiding in the honor of those by whom it was given; and that, if the committee were apprehensive of any mistake. we wished them to reduce our answer to writing immediately, and we would repeat the several parts of it to prevent any error.

The committee said they were sensible of the difficulties that occurred; that they did not mean that the conference intended between council and the committee of the soldiery should be prevented; that collecting an adequate force in readiness to act would not be inconsistent with this procedure; that as to the consequences of such an attempt being made and not immediately succeeding, it was suggested that even small bodies of militia might seize certain points where resistance could be made until the rest of the citizens should come to their aid; that as to our answer, they acknowledged we had through this whole business acted with great candor towards them, but they conceived themselves clearly justifiable in requesting our determination in writing, and instanced the case of inferior and accountable officers, who often ask, and seldom are denied, such an answer; and that the reason was much stronger that it should be given to a committee of Congress.

We having before expressed our sentiments on the other points, only observed as to the last that in our opinion the case mentioned did not apply; that it might be very proper for responsible officers to ask for answers in writing to justify themselves to their superiors, and a generous condescension in the persons from whom they were solicited would induce them to comply; but the committee were a part of the body representing the sovereignty of the United States, and we had the honor of representing the sovereignty of this State; that conferences, especially between persons vested with such authorities, were intended to obtain a

free and full communication of sentiments without the intervention of writing, and that no inconvenience could be apprehended from proceeding in this usual method, as each party could rely upon the integrity of the other. The committee withdrew and the council rose.

In this unhappy affair we found ourselves extremely distressed. On one side we were urged by the representatives of the United States to draw forth and employ the citizens in immediate hostilities against the soldiers, while on the other hand the citizens considered them as objects of compassion rather than of terror or resentment. They could not bear to avenge the dignity of Congress, accidentally and undesignedly offended, by shedding the blood of men whom they considered as having fought and suffered for the American cause, and perhaps the world may be disposed to balance the charge of impolicy in this conduct, by giving credit for the humanity of such a behavior.

We met again in the evening at the president's house, and, in order to make particular communications, we directed the lieutenants of the city and county, all the field officers of the militia in the city and neighborhood, and Captain Morris, of the light-horse, to be convened to meet us at the state-house the next morning at 10 o'clock.

Accordingly on Tuesday, the 24th, we met in the assembly room; Colonels Shee, Eyre, Knox, Marsh, Read, Will, Dean, Henry, and Coates; Majors Rees, Brown, Casdrop, McCullough, Boyd, and Panqueke, and Captain Morris; only one field officer being absent.

We laid before these gentlemen the message we had received on Saturday from the soldiery, and our own resolution thereon, with the resolution of Congress passed that day. We informed them that the committee of Congress had, in a conference, explained the said resolution by saying that by the effectual measures therein mentioned Congress meant a call of militia into actual service, and their exertions in consequence of such a call; that there was reason to believe Congress would immediately remove from this State, unless they should receive assurances from us that they might rely upon the effectual measures intended by the said resolution being immediately taken for supporting the public authority; that as to the want of ammunition that had been mentioned the objection was happily removed, we having been assured by one of the committee of Congress that we could be supplied with any quantity of musket and cannon cartridge in fifteen minutes. We therefore desired the officers to give us their sentiment on the practicability of assembling the militia in such a manner as to effect the purposes of the resolution before mentioned, and also in what manner a guard of 500 men could be most quickly collected for immediate defence, to be relieved by the militia, in consequence of a call for the service proposed. In the course of this conference it was asked whether some kind of a negotiation had not taken place. We mentioned what had passed on that head. After some time we retired to the council chamber. Soon after we came into the chamber one of the committee of Congress entered and informed the President that he thought himself bound to give him notice of a great mistake that had been committed by the person from whom he had received his intelligence concerning the ammunition, that person having in a late conversation told him there were not more than 200 musket cartridges to be found. The President took this opportunity of again desiring that the council might not be precipitated into measures not adapted to the present circumstances; that the soldiers had now been quiet for three years and we expected every hour to hear from their committee; the gentleman said that no report in writing had yet been made to Congress, and that for his part he should be for taking some time to make it for the reasons that had been mentioned.

In about an hour after we had left the officers we returned into the assembly room to them, and Colonel Shee, speaking for the company, declared it to be their opinion that it would be very imprudent to make any call of militia at present, as they were convinced it would be ineffectual; that if the negotiation for settling the disturbance should not succeed, and the soldiers should insist on unjust and unreasonable things, or should commit any outrage, they would be willing to make all the exertions in their power for preserving the peace and "supporting public authority," and would use their utmost influence for disposing the minds of all under their command, and of their fellow-citizens, to join in such measures.

We then directed that the officers should have their respective commands as well prepared as could be for action on the shortest notice, which they promised to do; and we are per-

suaded that if the occasion for commencing hostilities had appeared as pressing to the militia as it did to some, they would have acted with the same spirit that had always distinguished them whenever, in their judgment, the object claimed their exertions.

Before the council adjourned, we received the following letter and enclosure from the committee appointed by the soldiers, viz:

SIR: Yesterday morning we were waited on severally by a committee of sergeants, who handed to each of us similar appointments, of which the enclosed is one. But upon their being objected to, refused as inconsistent with the powers granted them, and dishonorable to us, they made such concessions relative to us as were satisfactory, so far as we could take up the business, and they have confessed their conduct on the 21st instant to be disorderly, and have promised to hand in their concessions as soon as possible, which I will immediately lay before your excellency.

I have the honor to be your excellency's most obedient, humble servant,

JAMES CHRISTIE,
Captain 2d Pennsylvania Regiment.

His Excellency JOHN DICKINSON, Esq.,
President of the Committee.

PHILADELPHIA BARRACKS, *June* 23, 1783.

SIR: You are hereby appointed by the non-commissioned officers and soldiers in this city from authority they have from the President of the State, and General St. Clair as a member, to represent them in committee of six commissioned officers.

You are to remember that every effort in your power must be exerted to bring about the most speedy and ample justice, and even to use compulsive measures, should they be found necessary, which we declare in the presence of Almighty God we will support you in to the utmost of our power. Should you show a disposition not to do all in yours, death is inevitably your fate.

Signed by order of the board.

JAMES BENNET, *Secretary.*

Captain JAMES CHRYSTIE.

Council rose, and soon afterwards we received intelligence that Congress was adjourned by their President, to meet at Princeton on the Thursday following.

That evening we met again at the President's house, upon advice that the soldiers meditated an attack on the bank. We resolved that a strong guard should be immediately collected, and so posted as best to secure that important object, and as several field officers attended, they immediately and with the greatest alacrity employed themselves in the business. The President, Vice-President, and General Irvine directed Captain Stiles, the commissary of military stores, to try the next day if he could not get some fixed ammunition out of the State magazine, in removing powder that was private property. He did, and through the pacific or careless disposition of the guard of soldiers, got out a considerable quantity, and distributed it as ordered, in proper places.

Wednesday, the 25th, we were informed that the soldiers were in a very tumultuous disposition, and that there was great reason to apprehend it would rise into some violence, as their rations would be stopped on the Friday following.

We therefore came to the following resolutions:

"IN COUNCIL, *Philadelphia, Wednesday, June* 25, 1783.

"*Ordered,* That the lieutenants of the city militia, &c., be directed to call forth a guard of 100 privates, with such number of officers as he may think proper, as a measure indispensable and immediately necessary to secure government from insult, the State from disturbance, and the city from injury. Carpenter's Hall is assigned for the place of meeting.

"*Resolved,* That the different officers commanding regiments be requested to hold their respective commands in immediate readiness for action. It is expected, also, that they will meet this day as soon as possible, for the purpose of determining the places of and signals for rendezvous, a report of their proceedings to be made to the President.

"*Resolved.* That the commissary of military stores be directed to issue such public arms and ammunition as he may now have under his direction to the militia of the city and liberties, upon application of the different officers commanding regiments."

While the clerk was copying these resolutions, Captains Chrystie and Symonds, two of the committee of the soldiery, presented to us the three papers enclosed and marked number one, two, and three. These being read, it was unanimously resolved that council will not even take the proposals now made by the soldiers into consideration unless they first put themselves under the command of their officers, and make full and satisfactory submission to Congress.

This resolution was then communicated to Captains Chrystie and Symonds, and they being informed that it was our unalterable determination, were directed to communicate the same as such to the soldiers.

They assured us this should be immediately done, but that the soldiers did not think they had offended Congress, as their intention on Saturday was only to apply to council. They then proceeded to what was and probably would be the temper of the troops upon receiving this answer of council, and entreated us to take all the measures we possibly could for our own safety and that of the city, as everything licentious was to be apprehended. On this intelligence council ordered the guard to be increased to 500 privates.

We then adjourned, and were severally employed in engaging the militia and citizens in general to take arms immediately. Our fixed resolution, insisting on a submission to Congress, the call of the militia, the excellent behaviour of the officers of our line in general, the industry and address of Colonel Hampton in representing to the sergeants then in town the danger that surrounded them by these operations, and intelligence that part of the army was in motion towards the city, with a circumstance that happened very opportunely, threw them into confusion. The circumstance was this: A Captain Carberry, deranged. and a Lieutenant Sullivan, two of the committee appointed by the soldiers, and the principal instigators of the disturbance, were so much alarmed at the measures taken and the accounts circulated, that they thought proper to fly. They first wrote a billet to Mr. William Huston, another of the committee, and adjutant of Colonel Humpton's regiment, in these words:

"Consult your own safety; we cannot get to you.

"H. C
"J. S."

This note. by some mistake, was delivered to Captain Chrystie; he and Captain Symonds went with it to Colonel Humpton; he and the captains came to the President and brought the sergeants. At first the construction was doubtful, but in a short time it was judged that the meaning was agreeable to the facts just stated. Colonel Humpton proposed his going to the barracks with the sergeants who had impeached Captain Carberry and Lieutenant Sullivan, and were now in a proper disposition to second his measures. He did so, and some citizens went to assist by advising the soldiers to behave prudently in the present exigency. After some time they were prevailed upon to leave their arms under a guard at the barracks, to come to the President's and hear what he should say to them. They came and paraded before his house; he addressed them on the subject of their late and present behavior, insisted on their giving a further evidence of their good disposition, and of their dutiful submission to the offended majesty of the United States by compelling the soldiers lately arrived from Lancaster to lay down their arms or begin their march for that place under the command of their officers at the end of twenty-four hours, unless in that time those unhappy men should return to a sense of their duty. At the conclusion of the address they were ordered to repair to the barracks under the command of their officers, then present, and behave themselves as soldiers ought to do, and they instantly obeyed.

The next day at 12 o'clock the soldiers from Lancaster submitted, and soon after began their march for that borough.

The President immediately communicated accounts of these transactions to the President of Congress in the three letters enclosed. The papers relating to the subsequent proceedings are herewith transmitted.

Thus, gentlemen, we have laid before you a faithful narrative of this affair, composed and

examined while every circumstance was exactly remembered by us, and the secretary will deliver to you the original papers on which it is principally founded. We have had great difficulties to encounter, but have been enabled to pursue that tenor of conduct which we have held by the perfect unanimity that subsisted among us through every stage of this business.

We recollected the high trust reposed in us by our country. The honor and tranquility of the State, and the lives and property of our fellow-citizens were involved in our deliberations. We could not commit these pledges of the public confidence, some of them so invaluable and revered, to the dangers necessarily resulting from hasty and violent measures.

While thus attentive to the interests of the State and our fellow-citizens, we have cheerfully exposed ourselves to every hazard that could arise from a firmness of opposition to the demands of a mutinous soldiery. We daily and regularly assembled in the council chamber in our usual manner, and determinately rejected every proposal inconsistent with our characters and the public good. It is true we have been insulted, but the follies or faults of others cannot diminish the dignity of those who take care not to impair it by any unworthy action of their own.

Upon the whole, with grateful acknowledgments to the Divine Goodness, we sincerely rejoice that such a disturbance was quieted without our making a single improper concession, and without costing the life of one citizen of Pennsylvania.

JOHN DICKINSON.

COUNCIL CHAMBER, *Philadelphia, August* 18, 1783.

PRINCETON.

Congress met in Princeton on the 30th of June, 1783. On the 13th of August one of the delegates from Pennsylvania made the following declaration, which was ordered to be entered on the journal:

"The delegates of Pennsylvania are authorized by the President and council of that State to declare in the most respectful terms to Congress that their return to Philadelphia is sincerely desired by the President and council as an event which would give them the greatest satisfaction."

And on the 1st of September the following resolutions, adopted in the general assembly on the 29th of August, were read in Congress and entered on the journal:

"The report of the committee appointed to consider of the most eligible means for the accommodation of Congress, should that honorable body determine to reside within this State, read August 27th instant, was read the second time: Whereupon,

"*Resolved unanimously*, That until Congress shall determine upon the place of their permanent residence it would be highly agreeable to this house if that honorable body should deem it expedient to return to and continue in the city of Philadelphia, in which case they offer to Congress the different apartments in the State House and adjoining buildings which they formerly occupied for the purpose of transacting the national business therein.

"*Resolved unanimously*, That this house will take effectual measures to enable the executive of the State to afford speedy and adequate support and protection to the honor and dignity of the United States in Congress, and the persons composing the supreme council of the nation assembled in this city.

"*Resolved unanimously*, That as this house is sincerely disposed to render the permanent residence of Congress in this State commodious and agreeable to that honorable body, the delegates of this State be instructed to request that Congress will be pleased to define what jurisdiction they deem necessary to be vested in them in the place where they shall permanently reside."

Every reparation that could be made to the offended dignity of Congress seems thus to have been offered, and numerous resolutions were introduced at different times proposing a return to Philadelphia, but a favorable vote could never be obtained. Other reasons doubtless had their influence with members, but the events of the 21st of June seem never to have been forgotten.

On the 21st of October it was

"*Resolved*, That until the building to be erected on the banks of the Delaware and Potomac" [both which places had been selected for a permanent seat of government] "shall be prepared for the reception of Congress, their residence shall be alternately at equal periods, of not more than one year and not less than six months, in Trenton and Annapolis; and the President is hereby authorized and directed to adjourn Congress on the 12th day of November next, to meet at Annapolis on the 26th day of the same month, for the despatch of public business."

The day for adjourning was changed to the 6th and afterwards to the 4th, on which last-named day Congress adjourned to meet at Annapolis on the 26th.

ANNAPOLIS.

A number of members met at Annapolis according to adjournment, but there was no quorum until the 13th of December.

On the 14th of April, 1784, the delegates from Rhode Island informed Congress that the legislature of that State had passed the following resolutions in February: 1784

"*Resolved*, That the delegates of this State be, and they are hereby, instructed to use their influence to obtain a recess of Congress as soon as the national business will possibly admit.

"It is further voted, that the delegates of this State request that honorable body to adjourn and convene at Rhode Island in the course of the next year, or as soon as may be convenient; and that Congress be informed that if the aforesaid request shall be acceded to, this State will prepare suitable buildings for their accommodation."

No members voted in favor of meeting in Rhode Island except the two from that State.

On the 3d of June, 1784, agreeably to a resolution adopted on the 26th of April, Congress adjourned to meet at Trenton, in New Jersey, on the 30th of October.

TRENTON.

A sufficient number of delegates to proceed to business did not assemble at Trenton until the 29th of November. On the 21st of December the subsisting resolutions for alternate meetings at Trenton and Annapolis were repealed, and on the 23d, in an ordinance providing for the selection of a site for "a federal town" near the falls of the Delaware, and for the erection of public buildings, it was agreed that "on the 24th day of December, instant, Congress stand adjourned to meet at the city of New York on the 11th day of January following, and that the sessions of Congress be held at the place last mentioned until the buildings aforesaid shall be ready for their reception."

Congress accordingly adjourned on the 24th of December. On this day certain resolves of the legislature of Pennsylvania were presented, and the following complimentary resolution was passed:

"*Resolved*, That Congress entertain a due sense of the attention of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in offering to Congress the use of their public buildings in the city of Philadelphia for their temporary residence."

NEW YORK.

Delegates from several States assembled in New York on the 11th of January, 1785, according to adjournment, and business was begun on the 17th. Efforts continued to be made to induce a return to Philadelphia, but they were all unavailing with the Continental Congress. After the adoption of the Constitution there were protracted debates and a great variety of propositions with regard to the place where the new government should begin operations. It was finally decided, by a unanimous vote, on the 13th of September, 1788, in favor of New York, which place continued to be the seat of the old Congress till its dissolution in March, 1789. The last day on which any business was transacted by the Continental Congress was the 10th of October, 1788, though one or more delegates continued to 1785

attend occasionally till the 2d of March, 1789, not more than one member being present on any one day after the 3d of November, 1788.

The first and second sessions of the first Congress under the new Constitution were held in New York. In July, 1790, an act was passed "for establishing the temporary and
1790 permanent seat of the government of the United States." This act provided that the next session of Congress should be held at Philadelphia, and that prior to the first Monday in December next, (the day on which the third session of the first Congress was to begin,) all offices attached to the seat of government should be removed to Philadelphia and remain there until the first Monday in December, 1800, prior to which time suitable buildings for the accommodation of Congress, and of the President, and for the public offices of the United States, were required to be provided at the permanent seat of government.

PHILADELPHIA.

Under this act, Congress met at Philadelphia in December, 1790, and its subsequent sessions were held there until the removal to Washington in November, 1800.

II. PROCEEDINGS IN THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS FOR ESTABLISHING A PERMANENT SEAT OF GOVERNMENT.

A cessation of hostilities was proclaimed by Congress on the 11th of April, 1783. On the 30th of the same month it was moved:

1783 "Whereas it is of importance in every free country that the conduct and sentiments of those to whom the direction of public affairs is committed should be publicly known:

"*Resolved*, That in future the doors of Congress shall be open unless otherwise ordered by a vote or by the rules of the house."

A motion was made to postpone this in order to consider the following:

"That as soon as Congress shall have fixed on some place where they may propose to continue their residence, and where they may have some kind of jurisdiction without being exposed to the influence of any particular State, it may be proper to determine whether the doors of Congress shall be open."

The motion to postpone, and the original motion, were both lost. North Carolina was the only State which voted to postpone, and Pennsylvania (where Congress was sitting) was the only State which voted in favor of open doors. This indirect allusion seems to be the first mention on the journals of Congress of a permanent seat of government.

Early in 1783, (March 2,) the legislature of New York offered to cede the town of Kingston for the seat of government, and at a later date the legislature of Maryland tendered the city of Annapolis.

A gentleman writing from Philadelphia, June 3, 1783, said: "The legislature of Maryland have passed a resolution in which they bid high for the residence of Congress. They offer the city of Annapolis and its precincts to be solely and exclusively under the jurisdiction of Congress; the State house and all other public buildings for their use and that of the diplomatic corps; the governor's house for the residence of his excellency the President, [of Congress,] and to build a house for the delegates of each State, for which purpose they appropriate a sum not exceeding thirty thousand pounds specie, (dollars at six shillings each.) This offer is for the permanent residence of Congress. Maryland has far exceeded the proposals of New York. What think you of this kind of auctioneering?"

On the 4th of June, 1783, on the report of a committee to whom were referred the acts of the legislatures of New York and Maryland, with the papers accompanying, Congress

"*Resolved*, That copies of the act of the legislature of Maryland relative to the cession of the city of Annapolis to Congress for their permanent residence, and also copies of the act of the legislature of New York relative to the cession of the town of Kingston for the same purpose, together with the papers which accompanied both acts, be transmitted to the

executives of the respective States, and that they be informed that Congress have assigned the first Monday in October next for taking the said offers into consideration."

The subject of a "permanent residence" for Congress was thus brought to the attention of all the States, and four months were allowed for reflection, examination, and offers, before any action was proposed to be taken.

The following article in favor of Williamsburg, Virginia, is from the newspapers of the day:

"RICHMOND, VIRGINIA, *June* 14, 1783.

"Overtures have been made to Congress by the States of New York and Maryland, by which the former has offered to cede to Congress the township of Kingston, in said State, as the future seat of Congress, together with an exempt jurisdiction therein, and the establishment of such jurisdiction as Congress shall think proper. The State of Maryland has offered the city of Annapolis, (with the unanimous concurrence of the inhabitants to subject themselves to the jurisdiction of Congress,) the assembly house for the sessions of Congress, the governor's house for the President, and to build a hotel for each State at the expense of Maryland, provided it does not exceed £30,000, together with a jurisdiction of whatever nature and extent Congress may judge necessary over the city, and 300 acres of the adjoining land. The advantages which will derive to any State in which Congress shall establish the seat of their future sessions will, we doubt not, be fully weighed by the legislature of this State, and the convenience, which at first view presents itself in favor of the city of Williamsburg for that purpose, in which there are large, elegant, commodious public buildings now vacant, and a considerable tract of public lands thereto adjoining, when added to the superior advantages of its central situation to all America, will certainly counterbalance the liberal offers of the States of New York and Maryland, or of any other State."

The following is an extract of a letter from a gentleman in New Jersey, (where Congress was then sitting,) to his friend in Providence, Rhode Island, dated August 26, 1783, recommending a western location for the seat of government. He could not close without a little reminder of the affair of June 21, at Philadelphia:

"Where will Congress establish their residence? is a question much agitated. It is a question of great importance, no less to the United States in general than to the particular State which may obtain this honor.

"It seems the general voice of the people that large cities are to be avoided; for this opinion a variety of reasons are assigned, too obvious to need an enumeration. A small State nearly central ought to be preferred to an opulent State, either northward or southward, which might hazard a competition of interest. On this account New Jersey has many voices.

"Whatever disadvantages hereafter mingle themselves with the emoluments attending the permanent residence of Congress, it is not to be doubted that the real estates in the vicinity, and even throughout the State, will instantaneously receive a great additional value.

"For these reasons I submit to your consideration a proposal entirely new, and which cannot fail to be acceptable to your State, as you are largely interested in the public credit and can entertain little or no hopes of seeing Congress established on your island, however delightful and commodious that situation might be. By the treaty of peace and by the cessions of the claims of some States made and to be made, the United States are and will be in possession of an immense extent of territory lying southward of the lakes, eastward of the Mississippi, and westward of the Alleghany mountains.

"A late calculator in a Boston paper scruples not to assert that these lands, at about sixpence sterling per acre, would extinguish the whole of our national debt. On the supposition, therefore, that Congress should establish their residence (suppose for a term only of thirteen years) at some of those commodious and growing settlements, as Detroit, Louisville, Kaskaskias, St. Vincents, Sandusky, &c., &c., what an amazing value would be added to that important territory; how inconceivably would it accelerate the rapidity of its settlement and population. Lest at first view you should sneer at the proposal or condemn it at once as chimerical, I pray you, sir, to consider the subject for a moment in a serious light. Is not the establishment of a national credit an object of the first magnitude? Ought any practicable means to obtain it (in consistence with our liberties) to be left unattempted? But you

will ask, 'have Congress moneys to expend for buildings,' &c.? I answer, perhaps one-quarter of the lands in the compass of twenty miles square fixed on for the residence of Congress (whereby they would be amazingly appreciated) would be amply sufficient to erect buildings suitable for the reception of a republican court. But you will in fine demand a security against the incursions of savages, insurrections, &c., &c. To this I answer, Congress may there assume a plenary jurisdiction, or model their government on the most perfect plan of modern refinement, and lands in their vicinity being allotted to those brave officers and men, who have served through the late glorious war, in lieu of their certificates, they would plant themselves around their patrons as an impregnable bulwark against the natives, and Congress would be as safe as they ever were in the city of Philadelphia."

Prior to the arrival of the day on which the question of location was to be discussed a committee was appointed "to consider what jurisdiction may be proper for Congress in the place of their permanent residence." This was simply a question of jurisdiction, without reference to locality, and the condition of affairs in Philadelphia at the time of the mutiny in June, doubtless, impressed upon Congress the importance of having a paramount authority in the permanent place of their meetings. On the 5th of September the committee reported, recommending that Congress "ought to enjoy an exclusive jurisdiction over the district which may be ceded and accepted for their permanent residence," and that the district so to be ceded "ought not to exceed the contents of six miles square, nor to be less than three miles square." This report was considered in Congress on the 22d, and in Committee of the Whole on the 25th of September. The next day was appointed for the further consideration, but the report was not taken up on that day, and it seems to have been informally dropped, as no further notice of it is found on the journals. In subsequent discussions the question of jurisdiction was considered in connection with that of locality.

On the 6th of October, 1783, the order of the day (as appointed on the 4th of June) being called for and read, "to take into consideration the propositions of several States respecting a place for the permanent residence of Congress," a motion was made by Mr. Gerry, seconded by Mr. Holton, both from Massachusetts, "That Congress resolve itself into a Committee of the Whole to take into consideration the propositions of the several States from New York to Virginia, inclusive, respecting a place for the permanent residence of Congress." This was negatived. Two motions were then made to postpone the order of the day—both lost; and it was

"*Resolved*, That the question be taken in which State buildings shall be provided and erected for the residence of Congress, beginning with New Hampshire and proceeding in the order in which they stand."

The vote was then taken separately on each of the thirteen States. New Jersey and Maryland each received the votes of four States; New York the votes of two States, no other State more than one. The subject was then postponed to the next day.

October 7, 1783, various resolutions and amendments were offered, and the following were agreed to:

Falls of the Delaware.

"*Resolved*, That buildings for the use of Congress be erected on or near the banks of the Delaware, provided a suitable district can be procured on or near the banks of the said river for a federal town; and that the right of soil and an exclusive or such other jurisdiction as Congress may direct shall be vested in the United States.

"*Resolved*, That the place on the Delaware for erecting buildings for the use of Congress be near the falls.

"*Resolved*, That a committee of five be appointed to repair to the falls of Delaware to view the situation of the country in its neighborhood and report a proper district for carrying into effect the preceding resolution."

On the main point of these resolutions, that is agreeing to the place, the vote was strictly geographical, every member north of Maryland (except Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts) voting for it, and all others against it.

The next day (October 8) a motion was made to reconsider these resolutions, "in order to fix on some other place that shall be more central, more favorable to the Union, and shall

approach nearer to that justice which is due to the southern States." The motion failed. The location of the "permanent residence" seems thus to have been early and easily decided, but subsequent events proved that this was only the beginning, not the end, of the contest.

The subject was again introduced on the 17th of October, by the following resolution, offered by Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts, and seconded by Mr. Lee, of Virginia:

"Whereas the resolutions of Congress of the 7th instant, to erect buildings for their use at or near the falls of the Delaware, are not satisfactory to a respectable part of the United States, five of which, on the 8th instant, voted for a reconsideration of the said resolutions; and whereas Congress have no prospect of a general assent to any one place for their residence, and there is every reason to expect that the providing buildings for the alternate residence of Congress in two places will be productive of the most salutary effects, by securing the mutual confidence and affections of the States, and preserving the federal balance of power: It is therefore,

Resolved, That buildings be likewise erected for the use of Congress at or near the lower falls of Potomac or Georgetown; provided a suitable district on the banks of the river can be procured for a federal town, and the right of soil and an exclusive jurisdiction, or such other as Congress may direct, shall be vested in the United States."

Whereupon a motion was made by Mr. Clark, of New Jersey, seconded by Mr. Peters, of Pennsylvania, as follows:

"Whereas the motion now before the House, made by the honorable mover from Massachusetts, appears to involve in it important consequences to the Union, as to require a special and deliberate investigation, unconnected with any other subject, and ought not to be determined upon a motion immediately taken up, without previous notice thereof given to the States, as was the case in fixing a single federal town: Therefore,

"*Resolved*, That the said motion be postponed to the first Monday in April next, and copies thereof transmitted to the executives of the several States."

The amendment was lost, only three States, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, voting for it, and the consideration of the main question was postponed till the 22d.

On the 20th, the motion to postpone was reconsidered, and Mr. Gerry's motion was taken up. Several amendments were proposed, and on the 21st the preamble and resolution passed in the following form:

"Whereas there is reason to expect that the providing buildings for the alternate residence of Congress in two places will be productive of the most salutary effects, by securing the mutual confidence and affections of the States:

"*Resolved*, That buildings be likewise erected for the use of Congress, at or near the lower falls of the Potomac or Georgetown; provided a suitable district on the banks of the river can be procured for a federal town, and the right of soil, and an exclusive jurisdiction or such other as Congress may direct, shall be vested in the United States; and that until the buildings to be erected on the banks of the Delaware and Potomac shall be prepared for the reception of Congress, their residence shall be alternately, at equal periods of not more than one year and not less than six months, in Trenton and Annapolis; and the President is hereby authorized and directed to adjourn Congress on the 12th day of November next, to meet at Annapolis on the 26th day of the same month for the despatch of public business."

Falls of the Potomac.

Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina, voted in the affirmative; New York in the negative; New Hampshire, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware were not represented, only one vote being given from each of these States, but these were all in the negative. Not less than two delegates could cast the vote of a State.

The question seemed thus to be again settled; but the compromise effected resulted in nothing, for the experiment of holding the sessions of Congress alternately at Trenton and Annapolis was abandoned after a short trial, and the impracticable scheme of having two permanent seats of government was never carried into effect even so far as to erect public buildings either at the falls of the Delaware or the Potomac.

Much sport was made in the newspapers of the plan of having two federal towns. One writer, (Francis Hopkinson,) alluding to the resolution of Congress, of the 7th of August,

to erect "an equestrian statue of General Washington at the place where the residence of Congress should be established." remarks that some persons suppose there may be a difficulty in carrying out this resolve if two seats of government should be established. But he suggests that so far from there being any difficulty, it is easy "not only to comply with the spirit of the resolve respecting the equestrian statue, but to make that very resolve conducive to the scheme of the two federal towns;" and in a lengthy communication he describes how this may be effected. "The spirit and intention of the resolve respecting the equestrian statue," he observed, "was no more than this: that the said statue should always be where the House should sit. To effect which nothing more was necessary than to adjourn the statue whenever and wherever they should adjourn the House, which might easily be done by mounting it upon wheels. But this was not all; for if the horse should be constructed of a large size, and framed with timbers like the hull of a ship, it would become a most convenient and proper vehicle to transport the members themselves, with their books, papers, &c., from one federal town to another."

He alluded also to "the enormous expense of building two federal towns when one might be sufficient for all purposes." To obviate this he proposed "that there should be two places of alternate permanent residence agreeable to the late resolve, and but one federal town; which town should be built upon a large platform mounted on a great number of wheels, and be drawn by a great number of horses."

On the 30th of October the following resolution was passed—Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina voting in the affirmative, and New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania in the negative:

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to repair to the lower falls of the Potomac, to view the situation of the country in the vicinity of the same, and report a proper district for carrying into effect the resolution of the 21st of October; and that the committee appointed on the 7th of October to report the most suitable place for erecting buildings for the accommodation of Congress near the falls of the Delaware, be directed to report as soon as may be."

The committee to go to the falls of the Delaware was Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts, Mr. S. Huntington, of Connecticut, Mr. Peters, of Pennsylvania, Mr. Duane, of New York, and Mr. Clark, of New Jersey.

The members of the Potomac committee were Mr. Hawkins, of North Carolina, Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts, Mr. Carrol, of Maryland, Mr. Mercer, of Virginia, and Mr. Williamson, of North Carolina. It was also

"*Resolved*, That the President transmit to the executives of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, copies of the acts of Congress of the 7th instant, respecting buildings to be erected for a federal town on the banks of the Delaware; and of the acts of the 21st instant, respecting buildings to be erected on the banks of the Potomac, for a second federal town, and the adjournment of Congress to Annapolis; and that copies be also transmitted to the several other States in the Union."

December 27, 1783, Congress being then in session at Annapolis, the committee to visit the falls of the Delaware reported that they had "repaired to Trenton on the 6th of November last, and surveyed the ground from Howell's Ferry to Lamberton, on the New Jersey side, and from the opposite points on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware. That after a careful attention they deemed it expedient to report a district in each of the said States, that a preference might be given to the State which should secure the soil on the most reasonable terms, and comply with the resolution of Congress respecting the jurisdiction; that the district on the New Jersey side is at Lamberton, and the district on the Pennsylvania side is near the falls of the Delaware, beginning at a hill above the mills owned by Colonels Wilson and Bird, and extending a mile up the river." Also, "That the district which may be ceded and accepted by Congress for their permanent residence ought to be entirely exempt from the authority of the State ceding the same."

April 14, 1784. The delegates of the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations informed Congress that the legislature of said State, at their session in February last,
1784 passed the following resolution:

"*Resolved*, That the delegates of this State be, and they are hereby, instructed to

use their influence to obtain a recess of Congress as soon as the national business will possibly admit. It is further voted, that the delegates of this State request that honorable body to adjourn and convene at Rhode Island in the course of the next year, or as soon as may be convenient, and that Congress be informed that if the aforesaid request shall be acceded to, this State will prepare suitable buildings for their accommodation."

And thereupon moved,

"That on the 26th day of May next the President adjourn this Congress until the 26th day of October next, then to meet at Newport, in the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, and if a sufficient number of members to form a house should not then meet, that all the business before this Congress unfinished at the time of said adjournment be referred to the United States in Congress who shall be assembled at said Newport on the first Monday in October next."

On motion by Mr. Jefferson, seconded by Mr. Hardy, both of Virginia, the words "then to meet at Newport, in the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations," and the words "at said Newport," were struck out, all the members voting for striking them out except those from Rhode Island.

A motion was then made by Mr. Montgomery, seconded by Mr. Hand, both from Pennsylvania, to insert "to meet at Philadelphia," in lieu of the words struck out. This motion was lost, no one voting in favor of it except the Pennsylvania members, and the one member present from North Carolina.

Mr. Monroe, of Virginia, seconded by Mr. McHenry, of Maryland, moved to postpone the further consideration of the motion under debate, in order to take up the following:

"That the States of Maryland and Virginia be informed that provided they will advance the United States ——— pounds, for the erecting the necessary buildings for the reception of Congress at or near Georgetown, at the falls of the Potomac, it shall be allowed them in the requisitions made on them for the year ———, by the United States in Congress assembled."

This motion was not agreed to. New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania voted in the negative; Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina in the affirmative; Rhode Island and North Carolina were divided.

A motion was then made by Mr. Jefferson, seconded by Mr. Monroe, to insert "Alexandria," in lieu of the words struck out. None voted in favor of this except the Virginia members.

It was then, on motion of Mr. Beatty, of New Jersey, seconded by Mr. Sherman, of Connecticut,

"*Resolved*, In lieu of the words struck out, to insert "to meet at Trenton, in the State of New Jersey, agreeably to their act of the 21st of October last."

The question being taken on the motion made by the Rhode Island delegates, as thus amended, it was lost. New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Jersey, voting in the affirmative; Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina, in the negative; and New York divided.

April 26, 1784. A motion was made by Mr. McHenry, of Maryland, seconded by Mr. Mercer, of Virginia, to postpone the business then before the House, in order to take up the following:

"*Resolved*, That as soon as a proper place shall be reported by the committee appointed to view and report a proper place for a federal town at or near Georgetown, on the Potomac, and the soil and jurisdiction obtained as well for the town on the Potomac as that on the Delaware, Congress will forthwith proceed to erect such public buildings as may be necessary for their sessions, at the expense of the United States, out of the common treasury thereof; that the foundations of the said buildings shall be laid at the same time, and no sum of money appropriated for the one unless an equal sum be appropriated for the other."

The motion to postpone failed.

A motion was then made by Mr. Hardy, of Virginia, seconded by Mr. Read, of South Carolina, to postpone the business under debate, to take up the following:

"Whereas the resolution of the 20th of October last provides that Congress shall reside at Trenton and Annapolis alternately, at equal periods, of not less than six months, or more than

twelve, until the buildings on the banks of the Potomac and Delaware be ready for their reception; and whereas the delegates from Rhode Island, pursuant to instructions from that State, have moved a resolution that Congress adjourn to Newport, in the State of Rhode Island, from which it is evidently the sense of that State, that the resolutions for two federal towns should not be carried into effect; and whereas it appears to be the sense of a majority of the States in Congress assembled, by a motion from the State of Connecticut, forbidding the committee appointed to view the ground at or near Georgetown to proceed in that business, until the further order of Congress, and by a motion for allowing the States of Maryland and Virginia to advance —— pounds, for the purpose of erecting public buildings at or near Georgetown, and for giving them credit for the same in the requisition for the year ——, which last being negatived, amounts to a virtual repeal of the aforesaid act; and as it will be expedient to fix on a situation the most central to all parts of the Union, for holding the sessions of Congress:

"*Resolved*, That Congress hold their sessions in Annapolis, in the State of Maryland, until they decide on some place for their permanent residence, and the necessary public buildings be erected for their accommodation."

The motion to postpone was again lost, so neither this resolution nor the preceding one was taken up for consideration.

On the 27th day of May, 1784, the committee on the Potomac falls site reported: "That on the 20th instant the committee proceeded on the business mentioned, having been prevented during the winter by the inclemency thereof, and afterward by the sense of Congress. On the 21st the committee arrived at Georgetown, and viewed the banks of the river from that place to the lower falls, on the Maryland side, and on the 22d, crossing to the Virginia side, they viewed the banks as far up the river as McCloud's ferry, four or five miles above the lower falls, recrossed the river and returned to Georgetown, on the Maryland side. The trees being leaved prevented the committee from a good view of the banks on either side, but from the best observation they could make, there did not appear to be a district suitable for a federal town between Georgetown and the ferry on either side of the Potomac, the banks and neighboring territory being much broken and unsuitable for the purpose.

"The committee being thus disappointed in their expectations, upon inquiry were informed that above the upper falls the banks are level and afforded pleasant prospects; but they were not authorized to view them.

"At Georgetown, however, a little to the northward of the buildings, is a rising ground somewhat broken, but pleasantly situated, and commanding good water as well as other prospects. At Tunks Town, about a mile and a half on the river below Georgetown, there is also a district which commands fine prospects. Some part of it is low, but the residue is high and pleasant. The committee have ordered a plan of each of those districts to be taken and transmitted to Congress."

On the 3d of June, a week after the presentation of the above report, Congress adjourned to meet at Trenton on 30th day of October, leaving the resolutions for erecting two federal towns, one near the falls of the Delaware, and another near the lower falls of the Potomac, unrepealed, but without having selected the site for either town.

December 20, 1784. On motion of Mr. Howell, of Rhode Island, seconded by Mr. Jay, of New York, the following resolutions were adopted:

"*Resolved*, That it is expedient that Congress proceed to take measures for procuring suitable buildings to be erected for their accommodation.

"*Resolved*, (*by nine States*,) That a sum not exceeding one hundred thousand dollars be appropriated for the payment of the expenses of erecting such buildings: *Provided, always*, That hotels or dwelling-houses for the members of Congress representing the different States shall not be understood as included in the above appropriation.

"*Resolved*, That it is inexpedient for Congress at this time to erect public buildings for their accommodation at more than one place."

The yeas and nays were not called for on these resolutions.

December 23, 1784. An ordinance, (moved by Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts, and seconded by Mr. Howell, of Rhode Island,) for carrying into execution the resolutions of the 20th

instant, and for fixing upon a place for the residence of Congress until suitable buildings shall be erected for their accommodation, was taken up, and the following paragraph being under debate—

"That for this purpose three commissioners be appointed, with full powers to lay out a district of not less than two nor exceeding three miles square, on the banks of either side of the Delaware, not lower than Lamberton, nor more than six miles above it, for a federal town;"

A motion was made by Mr. Hardy, seconded by Mr. Monroe, both of Virginia, to strike out the words, "on the banks of either side of the Delaware, not lower than Lamberton, nor more than six miles above it," and in lieu thereof to insert, "at Georgetown, on the Potomac."

This amendment was not agreed to, only the Virginia members voting for it.

The ordinance, after sundry amendments, was finally agreed to on the same day, in the following words:

"*Be it ordained by the United States in Congress assembled*, That the resolutions of the 20th instant respecting the erecting buildings for the use of Congress be carried into effect without delay; that for this purpose three commissioners be appointed, with full power to lay out a district of not less than two nor exceeding three miles square, on the banks of either side of the Delaware, nor more than eight miles above or below the falls thereof, for a federal town; that they be authorized to purchase the soil, or such part of it as they may judge necessary, to be paid at proper instalments; to enter into contracts for erecting and completing, in an elegant manner, a federal house for the accommodation of Congress, and for the executive offices thereof; a house for the use of the President of Congress, and suitable buildings for the residence of the Secretary of Foreign Affairs, Secretary at War, Secretary of Congress, Secretary of the Marine, and officers of the treasury; that the said commissioners be empowered to draw on the treasury of the United States for a sum not exceeding one hundred thousand dollars for the purpose aforesaid; that in choosing a situation for the buildings due regard be had to the accommodation of the States, with lots for houses for the use of their delegates respectively; that on the 24th day of December, instant, Congress stand adjourned to meet at the city of New York on the 11th day of January following, for the despatch of public business, and that the sessions of Congress be held at the place last mentioned until the buildings aforesaid shall be ready for their reception."

The yeas and nays were not taken on the final vote on the ordinance. On the motion by which New York was inserted as the place where Congress should meet until the federal town on the Delaware was ready, all votes were in favor of it except two from Pennsylvania, one from South Carolina, and one from Georgia.

The next day, December 24, it was

"*Resolved*, That Congress will proceed to the election of commissioners for carrying into execution the purposes mentioned in the ordinance of yesterday, on the 13th of January next."

The first entry which appears on the journals respecting the election of the three commissioners provided for in the preceding ordinance is on the 8th of February, 1785, when the order of the day being called for to proceed to the election, a motion was made by Mr. Williamson, and seconded by Mr. Sitgreaves, both of North Carolina, to postpone the order of the day to take up the following: 1785

"That the commissioners who may be appointed in pursuance of the act of 23d December, 1784, be instructed to examine such places on the river Delaware within the limits prescribed as may be purchased and such as they may judge proper for the site of the public buildings; to cause one or more places to be surveyed on each side of the river; and report to Congress the situation and quantity of land offered there for sale, and the terms on which the several tracts may be purchased, properly authenticated by the different proprietors."

The motion to postpone was not agreed to, only one State, North Carolina, voting in the affirmative.

A motion was then made by Mr. McHenry, of Maryland, and seconded by Mr. Foster, of New Hampshire,

"That Congress do not proceed to the appointment of commissioners to carry the ordinance for founding the said town into effect, till the delegates, representing the several States, can have time to consult, in a matter so important and momentous, the sense of their constituents."

A question was made whether this motion was in order. This was decided in the affirmative, but no vote was taken on Mr. McHenry's motion.

On the 9th of February the order of the day for the election of the three commissioners was postponed to the 10th, and on that day a motion was made by Mr. Foster, and seconded by Mr. Long, both from New Hampshire, for a further postponement, but it was lost, and Congress proceeded to the election. The ballots being taken, Philip Schuyler, esq., was elected, having been nominated by Mr. W. Livingston, of New York.

The next day, February 11, Mr. Philemon Dickinson and Mr. Robert Morris were elected the two remaining commissioners, the former having been nominated by Mr. Stewart, of New Jersey, and the latter by Mr. Ellery, of Rhode Island.

On the 10th of March a letter from Mr. Schuyler was read declining the office of commissioner, and on the next day, on motion of Mr. Howell, of Rhode Island, and seconded by Mr. Beatty, of New Jersey, it was

"*Resolved*, That Tuesday next be assigned for the election of a commissioner for carrying into execution the purposes mentioned in the ordinance of December 23, 1784, in the place of Philip Schuyler, esq., who has declined to accept that appointment."

While the foregoing resolution was under debate, a motion was made by the delegates from Maryland to strike out "Tuesday," and insert "the first Monday in May," but this received only the votes of the delegates from Maryland and one of the delegates from Virginia.

March 16, (Wednesday,) Mr. John Brown was elected a commissioner in the place of Mr. Schuyler. He was nominated by Mr. Beatty, of New Jersey.

After the appointment of the three commissioners, nothing further appears to have been done by Congress for carrying into effect the ordinance of December 23, 1784, for building a federal town near the falls of the Delaware. The whole question with regard to a "permanent residence" was allowed to rest for two years, when another effort was made to provide for the erection of public buildings on the Potomac.

On the 10th of May, 1787, a motion being made to adjourn from New York (where Congress was then in session) to Philadelphia, (where the convention for forming the new
1787 constitution was about to meet,) a motion was made by Mr. Lee, of Virginia, and seconded by Mr. Huger, of South Carolina, to postpone the motion before the house to take up the following:

"Whereas the convenient and due administration of the government of the United States requires that a permanent situation most central to all parts of the Union be established for holding the sessions of Congress:

"*Resolved*, That the Board of Treasury take measures for erecting the necessary public buildings for the accommodation of Congress, at Georgetown, on Potomac river, so soon as the soil and jurisdiction of the said town are obtained, and that on the completion of the said buildings, Congress adjourn their sessions to the said federal town.

"*Resolved*, That the States of Maryland and Virginia be allowed a credit in the requisition of 1787, and in the arrearages due on past requisitions for such sums of money which they may respectively furnish towards the erection of the said buildings."

The motion to postpone for the above purpose was lost, four States (Massachusetts, New York, Virginia, and Georgia) voting for it, and five States (New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and North Carolina) voting against it. One member was present from Rhode Island and one from South Carolina. Both these voted in the affirmative, but under the rules it required at least two members to cast the vote of a State, and all questions were decided by States.

On Monday, May 14, 1787, the federal convention, called "for the sole and express purpose of revising the articles of confederation" and "reporting such alterations and provisions as shall render the federal Constitution adequate to the exigencies of government and the preservation of the Union," met in Philadelphia. In the draft of a federal government

submitted by Charles Pinckney, of South Carolina, on the 29th of May, it is provided that the legislature of the United States shall have power "to provide for the establishment of a seat of government for the United States, not exceeding — miles square, in which they shall have exclusive jurisdiction." On the 18th of August, in a proposition as to the powers to be vested in the legislature of the United States referred to the standing committee of eleven members, was "the exclusive right of soil and jurisdiction over the seat of government." On the 5th of September, Mr. Brearly, from that committee, reported among the powers of Congress the power "to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over said district, (not exceeding ten miles square,) as may by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of the legislature, become the seat of the government of the United States," which was passed in the affirmative; and in these words this provision is found in the revised draft of September 12, as well as in the final revision which was reported to the Congress of the confederation on the 17th of the same month, and by it referred to conventions of delegates to be chosen in the several States; and the ratifications of nine States having been transmitted to Congress, were, on the 2d of July, 1788, referred to a committee to examine the same and report an act for putting the Constitution into operation.

After the adoption of the Constitution there was much discussion and a great variety of motions with regard to the place where the government, under the new form, should begin its operations; it being supposed that the decision of this question would ultimately influence Congress in selecting a locality for the permanent seat of government.

July 28, 1788. The committee to whom were referred the acts of the several States, which had been transmitted to Congress, ratifying the Constitution, having reported an act for putting the Constitution into operation, and the following paragraph having been debated and amended to read as follows: 1788

"That the first Wednesday in January next be the day for appointing electors in the several States which have, or shall before the said day have, ratified the said Constitution; that the first Wednesday in February next be the day for the electors to assemble in their respective States and vote for a President; and that the first Wednesday in March next be the time and ——— the place for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution:"

A motion was made by Mr. Edwards, of Connecticut, seconded by Mr. Williamson, of North Carolina, to fill the blank with "Philadelphia." Six States, (New Hampshire, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina,) voted in the affirmative; four, (Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and South Carolina,) in the negative, and two (Delaware and Georgia) were divided; so the motion was lost, not having received the assent of seven States.

On the 4th of August unsuccessful motions were made to fill the blank with "New York" and "Lancaster," but a motion to insert "the town of Baltimore, in the State of Maryland," prevailed by a geographical vote, Pennsylvania to Georgia, (seven States) voting for it, and New Hampshire to New Jersey, (six States) against it.

The next day a motion was made to reconsider the preceding resolution, but it failed, no State changing its vote.

On the 6th a motion was made by Mr. Tucker, of South Carolina, seconded by Mr. Lee, of Virginia, to strike out the words "the town of Baltimore, in the State of Maryland," and insert as follows:

"And whereas a central situation would be most eligible for the legislature of the United States, if such could be found in a condition to furnish in due time the accommodations necessary for facilitating public business, and at the same time free of weighty objections which might render it improper or unlikely to be the seat of government, either permanently or until a permanent seat can be agreed on; and whereas the most effectual means of obtaining finally the establishment of the federal government in a convenient central situation is to leave the subject to the deliberate consideration of the future Congress, uninfluenced by undue attachment to any of the places which may stand in competition for preference on so interesting a question, and unembarrassed by want of time and means to fix on and prepare the most proper place for this purpose; and whereas the removal of the public offices must be attended with much expense, danger, and inconvenience, which ought not to be incurred

but with a well founded expectation of advantages that may fully counterbalance the same; and whereas no such advantages can be expected from a removal to any place now in a condition to receive the federal legislature; and whereas, in addition to the before-mentioned reasons, unnecessary changes in the seat of government would be indicative of instability in the national councils, and therefore highly injurious to the interests, as well as derogatory to the dignity of the United States: Therefore,

"*Resolved*, That the city of New York, in the State of New York, be the place for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution."

A motion was then made by Mr. Williamson, of North Carolina, seconded by Mr. Read, of Pennsylvania, to postpone the motion before the House in order to take up the following:

"Whereas it is proper that the seat of the new Congress and of the national government should be placed as near the centre of the Union as may consist with present accommodation, in order that its influence and benefits may be equally felt by the great body of citizens throughout the United States, that members of Congress and other persons may approach it with equal convenience from the opposite extremes, and that no species of partial favor may seem to have been extended to one extreme rather than to the other; and whereas the present residence of Congress is far removed from the centre of the Union, whether population or distance are considered, since the new Congress is to consist of eight senators from States to the eastward of New York, and sixteen from States to the southward, and since there are to be only seventeen members in the House of Representatives from the eastern States, though there are to be forty-two members from southern States; and since the distance to the seat of government in the extreme eastern State is hardly equal to one-third of the distance to the seat of government in the most southerly State; and whereas it is to be desired that the new Congress may be convened in the same spirit of mutual accommodation which has hitherto appeared in all deliberations respecting the new government, and that proceedings under the said government may commence under the impressions of mutual confidence, without that general irritation and loss of time which must attend the removal from an improper situation, and without those painful apprehensions which will naturally arise from a measure that may seem to have originated in an undue regard to local considerations: Therefore,

Resolved, That the seat of the new Congress ought to be in some place to the southward of New York.

The motion to postpone was lost; Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia voting in the affirmative, and New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and South Carolina in the negative.

A motion was then made by Mr. Carrington, of Virginia, seconded by Mr. Bingham, of Pennsylvania, to amend by striking out the words "New York, in the State of New York," and in lieu thereof inserting "Philadelphia." Not agreed to; the vote was the same as the preceding, except Georgia, which was divided.

A division of Mr. Tucker's motion was then called for, and the vote being taken separately on the resolving clause and on the preamble, they were both passed; the vote on each being New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and South Carolina, in the affirmative; Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, in the negative; and Georgia divided.

August 13, 1788. The question was taken on agreeing to the act as amended by Mr. Tucker's motion of the 6th, and it was decided in the negative, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and South Carolina voting for it; Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia, against it; Georgia divided; New Jersey was not represented, only one member being present; he voted for it.

The act "for putting the Constitution into operation" was thus lost, and the question, therefore, was not now before Congress in any form. A new ordinance for the same purpose was introduced on the same day by Mr. Kearney, of Delaware, seconded by Mr. Contee, of Maryland. This was the same as the previous one, with the omission of Mr. Tucker's amendment of the 6th of August, and leaving the place for commencing proceedings under the new Constitution blank. A second reading was refused.

August 26, 1788. The subject was again introduced, a new ordinance being now moved by

Mr. Sedgwick, of Massachusetts, seconded by Mr. Clarke, of New Jersey. This named New York, "the seat of the present federal government," as the "place for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution." Mr. Mitchell, of Delaware, moved to insert Wilmington instead of New York. The amendment and the original resolution were both lost. The bone of contention was "the place;" and it was only a disagreement about this that prevented the passage of an act for setting in motion the new government.

September 2, 1788. Mr. Clarke, of New Jersey, seconded by Mr. Sedgwick, of Massachusetts, moved a new ordinance, providing that "the seat of the federal government at that time," (the first Wednesday in March, 1789,) should be "the place for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution." This was lost, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and South Carolina voting for it.

Another ordinance was then moved by Mr. Edwards, of Connecticut, seconded by Mr. Sedgwick, of Massachusetts, in which no mention was made of any place for the meeting of Congress under the new Constitution. Mr. Irwine, seconded by Mr. Bingham, both of Pennsylvania, moved to insert "Lancaster;" lost. The next day (September 3) Mr. Seney, seconded by Mr. Ross, both of Maryland, moved to insert "Annapolis;" lost.

September 4. The motion made by Mr. Edwards on the 2d being again read, a motion was made by Mr. Tucker, seconded by Mr. Huger, both of South Carolina, that the same be postponed in order to take up the following:

"Whereas, after long deliberation on the subject of a new Constitution, so far as the agency of Congress is required to give it effect, there appears to be a diversity of sentiment with respect to the place for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution, which may prevent a speedy and definite decision thereon; and whereas a further delay of the other essential parts of this business might be productive of much national inconvenience: Therefore,

"*Resolved*, That the first Wednesday in January next be the time for appointing electors in the several States which before the said day shall have ratified the said Constitution; that the first Wednesday in February next be the day for the electors to assemble in their respective States and vote for President; and that the first Wednesday in March next be the time for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution, at such place as Congress shall hereafter appoint, or, failing such appointment, at the place which shall immediately before the last mentioned day be the seat of Congress."

The question to postpone for the above purpose was lost, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and South Carolina voting in the affirmative; Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia in the negative; and Georgia divided.

The question was then taken on the motion made by Mr. Edwards on the 2d September, and it was lost by the same vote as the last, except that Georgia, instead of being divided, voted in the negative.

The effort to set the machinery of government in motion under the new Constitution was thus again defeated. No new attempt was made in Congress for a week, though probably frequent consultations were held among the members to effect an agreement, for when the subject was again introduced a unanimous vote was soon obtained.

September 12, 1788. A motion was made by Mr. Lee, of Virginia, seconded by Mr. Gilman, of New Hampshire, in the words following:

"Whereas longer delay in executing the previous arrangements necessary to put into operation the federal government may produce national injury:

"*Resolved*, [the time for the election, &c., the same as in former motions,] and the present seat of Congress the place for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution."

Mr. Carrington, seconded by Mr. Madison, both of Virginia, moved to strike out the words "and the present seat of Congress be the place," and add:

"And whereas it is of great importance that a government founded on the principles of conciliation and impartial regard to the interests and accommodation of the several parts of the Union should commence in a spirit corresponding with these principles, and under every circumstance calculated to prevent jealousies in one part of the Union of undue bias in the public councils or measures towards another part; and it is conceived that these desirable

purposes will be much favored by the appointment of some place for the meeting of the new government more central than the present seat of Congress, and which will at the same time be more likely to obviate disagreeable and injurious discussions concerning the place most fit for the seat of federal business, until a permanent seat be established as provided for by the new Constitution:

"*Resolved*, That ———— be the place for commencing proceedings under the new Constitution."

This amendment was not agreed to. Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Virginia voted for it; New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and South Carolina against it; Georgia divided. Mr. Lee voted against it.

A motion was then made by Mr. Kearney, seconded by Mr. Mitchell, both of Delaware, to strike out the words "and the present seat of Congress the place." This received only the vote of one member (Mr. Read, of Pennsylvania) besides the mover and seconder of the motion.

Mr. Lee's resolution was then amended to read as follows:

"Whereas the convention assembled in Philadelphia pursuant to the resolution of Congress of the 21st of February, 1787, did on the 17th of September, in the same year, report to the United States in Congress assembled a Constitution for the people of the United States, whereupon Congress, on the 28th of the same September, did resolve unanimously, 'That the said report, with the resolutions and letter accompanying the same, be transmitted to the several legislatures in order to be submitted to a convention of delegates chosen in each State by the people thereof in conformity to the resolves of the convention made and provided in that case;' and whereas the Constitution so reported by the convention and by Congress, transmitted to the several legislatures, has been ratified in the manner therein declared to be sufficient for the establishment of the same, and such ratifications, duly authenticated, have been received by Congress and are filed in the office of the Secretary: Therefore,

"*Resolved*, That the first Wednesday in January next be the day for appointing electors in the several States which before the said day shall have ratified the said Constitution; that the first Wednesday in February next be the day for the electors to assemble in their respective States and vote for a President; and that the first Wednesday in March next be the time, and the present seat of Congress the place for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution."

When the question was about to be put, the determination was postponed till the next day by Delaware, any State having a right, under the rules, to prevent the question being taken on any motion on the same day on which it was "agitated and debated." On the next day (September 13) the vote was taken and the preamble and resolution passed without a dissenting vote. The States were all represented except Rhode Island, Delaware, Maryland, and North Carolina. In selecting a position so far north as New York, one object, probably, was to avoid all those localities which would come in competition before the new Congress as candidates for the permanent seat of government.

All the debates in the old Congress and all the strife and rivalry among the States for establishing a permanent seat of government resulted in the passage of two resolutions providing for building two federal towns, one at the head of tide-water on the Delaware, and the other at the head of tide-water on the Potomac, neither of which was either repealed or executed. Harmony and cordial consent could not be secured for any one location, and to establish two seats of government, Congress to meet alternately in each, and the officers and national archives to move continually from one to the other, was clearly impracticable. With regard to the question of jurisdiction there was but little diversity of opinion. All parties seem to have agreed that whatever place might be chosen for the seat of government, it would be necessary that exclusive jurisdiction should be vested in the United States, and the occurrences in Philadelphia on the 21st of June, 1783, probably aided to confirm this opinion.

III. POWER IN CONGRESS OF EXCLUSIVE LEGISLATION.

The Constitution gave to Congress the power "to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States." Though there was no provision on this subject in the articles of confederation, yet there can be no doubt that had a permanent seat of government been then established, Congress would have assumed exclusive jurisdiction. It was offered by several States, and the proceedings of Congress show clearly that it would have been accepted. In the convention which framed the Constitution the necessity for this clause was considered so evident that it seems to have been adopted without opposition. Not so in all the State conventions held for ratifying the Constitution. In New York it was argued that the plan of the federal city departed from every principle of freedom, and that it would become a place "where men are to live without labor upon the fruits of the labors of others," a "political hive where all the drones in the society are to be collected to feed on the honey of the land." "Hallowed ground!" exclaimed another, "an Eden surrounded by a wall of adamant and gold, the wealth of the whole country flowing into it," and "nothing so unclean as State laws to enter there."

In Virginia, Mr. Grayson feared that Congress might give exclusive privileges to merchants residing within the ten miles square, and that in process of time the whole commerce of the United States might be exclusively carried on by merchants residing within the seat of government and those places of arms which might be purchased of the State legislatures.

Mr. Mason thought there were few clauses in the Constitution so dangerous as that which gave Congress exclusive legislation within ten miles square. "This ten miles square may set at defiance the laws of the surrounding States, and may, like the superstitious days of our ancestors, become the sanctuary of the blackest crimes." Patrick Henry entertained strong suspicions that great dangers must result from this clause, and he declaimed vehemently upon tyranny, standing armies, exclusive emoluments, and ambitious grasps at power. But a large majority of the members in the State conventions thought with Mr. Madison, that this clause in the Constitution "was one of the parts which would speak its own praise."

In the Federalist Mr. Madison argued thus in favor of it:

"The indispensable necessity of complete authority at the seat of government carries its own evidence with it. It is a power exercised by every legislature of the Union, I might say of the world, by virtue of its general supremacy. Without it, not only the public authority might be insulted and its proceedings be interrupted with impunity, but a dependence of the members of the general government on the State comprehending the seat of the government for protection in the exercise of their duty, might bring on the national councils an imputation of awe or influence equally dishonorable to the government and dissatisfactory to the other members of the confederacy. This consideration has the more weight, as the gradual accumulation of public improvements at the stationary residence of the government would be both too great a public pledge to be left in the hands of a single State, and would create so many obstacles to a removal of the government as still further to abridge its necessary independence. The extent of this federal district is sufficiently circumscribed to satisfy every jealousy of an opposite nature. And as it is to be appropriated to this use with the consent of the State ceding it; as the State will no doubt provide in the compact for the rights and the consent of the citizens inhabiting it; as the inhabitants will find sufficient inducements of interest to become willing parties to the cession; as they will have had their voice in the election of the government which is to exercise authority over them; as a municipal legislature for local purposes, derived from their own suffrages, will of course be allowed them; and as the authority of the legislature of the State, and of the inhabitants of the ceded part of it, to concur in the cession will be derived from the whole people of the State, in their adoption of the Constitution, every imaginable objection seems to be obviated."

In several of the States amendments were proposed, explaining or qualifying this clause of the Constitution, but no alteration has been made, and it now stands as it was originally adopted.

When Congress removed to the permanent seat of government, and was about to legislate for the District of Columbia, it was objected that the people of the District had continued for an hundred years to live happily under their respective State governments, and that therefore it was not necessary for Congress to legislate at all on the subject. In reply, Mr. Harper (probably having reference to the occurrences in Philadelphia on the 21st of June, 1783) said:

"But the provision of the Constitution on this subject had not been made with this view. It was made to bestow dignity and independence on the government of the Union. It was to protect from such outrages as had occurred when it was differently situated, when it was without competent legislative, executive, and judicial power to insure to itself respect. While the government was under the guardianship of State laws, those laws might be inadequate to its protection; or there might exist a spirit hostile to the general government, or, at any rate, indisposed to give it proper protection. This was one reason among others for the provisions of the Constitution, confirmed and carried into effect by the acts of Maryland and Virginia, and by the act of Congress."

IV. PROCEEDINGS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION FOR ESTABLISHING A PERMANENT SEAT OF GOVERNMENT.

On the "first Wednesday in March," 1789, (the 4th,) the day appointed for "commencing proceedings" under the Constitution, several members of both houses assembled in
1789 New York, but there was no quorum of the House of Representatives until the 1st of April, nor of the Senate until the 6th, on which last day the votes for President and Vice-President were opened and counted. On the 21st of April Vice-President Adams was "introduced to the chair" of the Senate, and on the 30th President Washington was inaugurated. The oath of office was administered by the chancellor of the State of New York, after which the chancellor proclaimed, "*Long live George Washington, President of the United States.*" The inaugural address was delivered, and the President, Vice-President, and both houses of Congress then proceeded to St. Paul's chapel, where divine service was performed by the Right Reverend Samuel Provost, chaplain of Congress. The new government was now organized.

During the first session of Congress, resolutions of several State legislatures and numerous memorials and petitions were presented on the subject of the seat of government. Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia offered ten miles square within their respective States, and petitions were received from Trenton, in New Jersey; Lancaster, Wright's Ferry, Yorktown, Carlisle, Harrisburg, Reading, Germantown, in Pennsylvania; and Baltimore and Georgetown, in Maryland, representing their willingness to put themselves and fortunes under the exclusive legislation of Congress, and urging, with various degrees of eloquence and importunity, the salubrity, scenery, hospitality, facility of access, convenience of accommodations, abundance of provisions, and other advantages afforded by their respective towns.

While the subject was under debate in Congress, the weapons of ridicule and of argument, and in rhyme as well as prose, were employed by the newspaper press in advocating or opposing different locations. Two of these may be quoted as specimens of a class. The first was a burlesque on a petition from one of the towns in Pennsylvania, and ran thus:

PETITION.

Whereas it is of consequence
Congress should *fix* its residence—
That seat of honor and renown
Ycleped long since the "Federal Town"—
The people of this pleasant borough,
From a conviction just and thorough
That there's no other situation

Can equal it in all the nation,
Your honors do most humbly pray
To make it your abode for aye.
Nature provideth here so ample,
We only can select a sample
Of what this blessed place affords,
Enough to tempt a House of Lords!
Where'er you turn your wondering eyes,
Ten thousand pleasing prospects rise!
The streams meandering through the vales;
"*Blue Hills*," whose height the skies assails;
The air salubrious, sweet and bracing,
All fogs and noxious vapors chasing;
And as no mortal man can think
But you all must eat and drink,
Our markets give, ye gods, such meat
As ye in your own hotels eat.
We've beef, and veal, and lamb, and mutton,
As fine as e'er was table put on;
And dunghill fowls, wild ducks and widgeons,
And snipes, and geese, and quails, and pigeons,
Pheasants and ortolans, be sure,
To please the daintiest epicure.
Our Schuylkill gives us fish in plenty,
Of sorts we reckon more than twenty;
As shad and alewives, pretty picking,
Without a bone your throat to stick in;
That Schuylkill, theme of future song,
Upon whose waves are borne along
Two hundred thousand sacks of wheat,
Transported in Musketo fleet—
Musketo fleet! Yes, here in peace,
Congress may sit till time shall cease,
Nor ships with horrid broadsides scare 'em,
Nor soldier with a gun come near 'em.
At present we've three hundred houses,
All filled with loving wives and spouses;
Best timber, shingles, scantling, boards,
The neighborhood great store affords;
We'll give you stones all veined with blue,
And thank you when you take them too;
But as for bricks you pay for making,
They cost us time and pains in baking.
We've carpenters and masons good,
As ever worked in stone or wood;
Artists in every kind of work,
To build you houses in a jerk.
We've barbers, tailors, and shoemakers,
Pie-women, hucksters, brewers, bakers;
Taverns in plenty, too, abound,
And here and there a church is found.
Besides all these, there are "exteriors,"
We need not mention our superiors,
Both for convenience and delight,

To crown the day and eke the night.
Then come, good sirs, make this your seat,
Where nature's choicest bounties meet;
The public good prompts this petition
From yours, with reverence and submission.

The other was designed to ridicule the selection of an interior and country position for the seat of government.

THE RURAL RETREAT.

O, what a charming thing, and pretty,
To have a noble federal city!
Surpassing, in few years to come,
All that history says of Rome;
That ancient seat of arts and wars,
The mother of eternal jars!
Not near old ocean's margin built,
Where blood by hogsheads may be spilt,
Where ships which vomit smoke and fire
May force the people to retire:
May set a-scampering our patricians,
Cursing all maritime positions.
Besides, all seaport towns, we know,
The floods of horrid vice o'erflow;
There business, noise, and dissipation,
Distract the rulers of the nation!
There morn and noon, and midnight revels,
With a long list of syren devils—
Balls, treats, and visits—arts cajoling,
Will set their wits and senses rolling,
Till on the rocks of tempting beauty
They shipwreck honor, truth, and duty.
No, let us to the woods repair,
For peace and innocence dwell there;
There, in the times beyond the flood,
When men were frugal, wise, and good,
Beneath an oak or beechen shade,
The best of human laws were made;
They wanted then no central station—
Their Federal Hall the whole creation.
Then let us to the woods repair,
And build a federal city there,
Where nature never fails to please,
In hills and dales, and shrubs and trees;
Where ancient sages gathered knowledge,
Without the aid of church or college.
Secluded from the noisy hive,
Who business, arts, and pleasure drive,
"In the cool grot and mossy cell"
Where truth and inspiration dwell,
Without a buzzing in our ears
Of speculators' hopes and fears,
What laws and statutes shall be made
To help the basket-making trade;

To regulate the country roads,
And clear the neighborhood of toads;
To regulate the time for hatching
Hen's eggs, and shad and oyster catching;
What time is best to ring the swine,
And other business in that line;
To bind in leagues of fixed opinion,
The States who form this great dominion!

On the 27th of August, 1789, in the House of Representatives, Mr. Scott, of Pennsylvania, moved "that a permanent residence ought to be fixed for the general government of the United States at some convenient place as near the centre of wealth, population, and extent of territory as may be consistent with convenience to the navigation of the Atlantic ocean, and having due regard to the particular situation of the western country;" and moved to make this motion the order of the day for the 3d of September. This was warmly debated, a number of members urging the postponement of the subject till the next session. After full discussion, during which it was said that no question could have a greater tendency to produce broils and dissensions, and that the government, ill-cemented and feeble as it was, might not withstand the shock of such a measure, the motion was agreed to by a vote of 27 to 23, and on the 3d of September the question was taken up and the whole subject of fixing on a place for the seat of government was thrown open for debate. On the 7th three resolutions were adopted by the House. The first, the one offered by Mr. Scott, and already given; the second, offered by Mr. Goodhue, of Maine, "that the permanent seat of the government of the United States ought to be at some convenient place on the banks of the river Susquehanna, in the State of Pennsylvania;" and the third offered by Mr. Fitzsimmons, of Pennsylvania, authorizing the President to appoint three commissioners to select and purchase the site on the Susquehanna, and to erect, within four years, suitable buildings; and also authorizing a loan of a hundred thousand dollars for the purpose; and on the 22d of September a bill pursuant to these resolutions was passed by a vote of 31 to 17.

On the same day the bill was taken up in the Senate, and amendments were afterwards made which radically altered its nature. On the 24th the location on the Susquehanna was stricken out, and by the casting vote of the Vice-President the following words were inserted: "In the counties of Philadelphia, Chester, and Bucks, and State of Pennsylvania, including within it the town of Germantown, and such part of the Northern Liberties of the city of Philadelphia as are not excepted by the act of cession passed by the legislature of Pennsylvania." On the 26th the bill passed, (yeas 10, nays 7,) and was returned as amended to the House of Representatives.

In the House the contest had been almost wholly between the Susquehanna and the Potomac, and when the bill came back from the Senate so thoroughly altered, and only three days remaining till the time set for adjourning, strong efforts were made to postpone it to the next session. It was said that in all the long arguments which the question had drawn out, the place fixed on by the Senate had never been mentioned, and that the question the House was now called to consider was entirely new. The reasons which influenced the Senate to decide in favor of the Delaware do not appear, as that body sat with closed doors. The House proceeded with the bill, and the amendments of the Senate were agreed to on the 28th by a vote of 31 to 24, with a proviso, added on the motion of Mr. Madison, that the laws of Pennsylvania should continue in operation in the ceded district until otherwise provided by Congress. This proviso defeated the bill. It made action on it by the Senate again necessary, and when taken up the same day in that body its further consideration was postponed till the next session. The next day (29th) Congress adjourned.

PENNSYLVANIA ACT OF CESSION.

While these propositions were under debate in Congress, the assembly of Pennsylvania (on the 4th of September, 1789) passed the following act offering to cede ten miles square and

exclusive legislation, except over "the city of Philadelphia, the district of Southwark, and part of the Northern Liberties:"

AN ACT to cede to the United States the right to exercise exclusive legislation over such district as may become the seat of government thereof within this Commonwealth.

SECTION 1. It being directed and established by the Constitution of the United States that the Congress thereof shall have power to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district, not exceeding ten miles square, as may by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress become the seat of government of the United States, and the same appearing to be just and reasonable, and this house being willing to make such cession as aforesaid, over such district as may be chosen within this State for the purpose aforesaid:

SEC. 2. *Be it enacted, and it is hereby enacted, by the representatives of the freemen of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, in general assembly met, and by authority of the same,* That the right and power to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district or part of this State, not exceeding ten miles square, as shall be accepted and located by the Congress of the United States, and become the seat of government thereof, shall, so soon as such district shall be accepted, located, and become the seat of the said government, be, and the same hereby is, ceded to and vested in the said United States, and this State shall thereupon be, to all intents and purposes, irrevocably divested thereof and of all authority whatsoever therein.

SEC. 3. *Provided, nevertheless, and it is hereby enacted and declared by the authority aforesaid,* That the power of exercising exclusive legislation in and over the city of Philadelphia and the district of Southwark, and that part of the Northern Liberties included within a line running parallel with Vine street at the distance of one mile northward thereof from the river Schuylkill to the southern side of the main branch of Cohocksinck creek, thence down the said creek till it falls into the Delaware, (other than the marsh land, and so much of the adjoining marsh or fast land on the same side of the said creek as shall be necessary for the erecting any dams or works to command the water thereof,) shall be, and the same are hereby, excepted out of this grant and cession, and retained by this Commonwealth.

VIRGINIA ACT OF CESSION.

Before Congress met again the assembly of Virginia passed an act ceding to the United States ten miles square in any part of the State that Congress might select, and reciting the advantages of a location on the banks of the Potomac above tide-water, in which the States of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia might participate, evidently referring to that part of Virginia which approaches near to Pennsylvania. The act was passed December 3, 1789, and is as follows:

AN ACT for the cession of ten miles square, or any lesser quantity of territory within this State, to the United States in Congress assembled, for the permanent seat of the general government.

I. Whereas the equal and common benefits resulting from the administration of the general government will be best diffused, and its operations become more prompt and certain, by establishing such a situation for the seat of the said government as will be most central and convenient to the citizens of the United States at large, having regard as well to population, extent of territory, and a free navigation to the Atlantic ocean through the Chesapeake bay, as to the most direct and ready communication with our fellow-citizens in the western frontier; and whereas it appears to this assembly that a situation combining all the considerations and advantages before recited may be had on the banks of the river Potomac, above tide-water, in a country rich and fertile in soil, healthy and salubrious in climate, and abounding in all the necessaries and conveniences of life, where, in a location of ten miles square, if the wisdom of Congress shall so direct, the States of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia may participate in such location:

II. *Be it therefore enacted by the general assembly,* That a tract of country not exceeding ten miles square, or any lesser quantity, to be located within the limits of the State, and in

any part thereof as Congress may by law direct, shall be, and the same is hereby, forever ceded and relinquished to the Congress and government of the United States, in full and absolute right and exclusive jurisdiction, as well of soil as of persons residing or to reside thereon, pursuant to the tenor and effect of the eighth section of the first article of the Constitution of the government of the United States.

III. *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to vest in the United States any right of property in the soil, or to affect the rights of individuals therein, otherwise than the same shall or may be transferred by such individuals to the United States.

IV. *And provided also*, That the jurisdiction of the laws of this Commonwealth over the persons and property of individuals residing within the limits of the cession aforesaid shall not cease or determine until Congress, having accepted the said cession, shall by law provide for the government thereof, under their jurisdiction, in manner provided by the article of the Constitution before recited.

MARYLAND ACT OF CESSION.

An act of cession had been passed by Maryland nearly a year previously, (December 23, 1788,) and is as follows:

AN ACT to cede to Congress a district of ten miles square in this State, for the seat of government of the United States.

Be it enacted by the general assembly of Maryland, That the representatives of this State in the House of Representatives of the Congress of the United States, appointed to assemble at New York on the first Wednesday of March next, be, and they are hereby, authorized and required, on the behalf of this State, to cede to the Congress of the United States any district in this State, not exceeding ten miles square, which the Congress may fix upon and accept for the seat of government of the United States.

Virginia also offered to advance $120,000 and Maryland $72,000 for the purposes of the federal city, in case it should be established on the banks of the Potomac.

At the second session of Congress proceedings for establishing the seat of government originated in the Senate. The bill left unfinished at the preceding session was 1790
not again taken up, but a new one was introduced on the 31st of May, 1790, by Mr. Butler, of South Carolina, in which the place was left blank. On the 2d of June this bill was referred to a committee consisting of Mr. Butler, of South Carolina; Johnston, of North Carolina; Henry, of Maryland; Lee, of Virginia, and Dalton, of Massachusetts. On the 8th the committee made the following report:

"That, in their opinion, taking a combination of circumstances into consideration, the present session is a proper time for fixing on the permanent residence of Congress and the government of the United States; and, after due consideration, recommend that it be placed on the eastern or northeastern bank of the Potomac.

"Your committee further recommend that such sums of money as may be offered by the States for the carrying this bill into effect may be accepted of; then the bill will read thus: 'And to accept grants of money or lands.' Your committee were of opinion that Congress can best determine the time to be allowed for completing the buildings.

"With respect to the temporary residence of Congress, your committee, after weighing all circumstances, consider the ground of choice to be so narrowed as to be fully in view of the Senate.

"Your committee recommend that the Senate should agree with all the other parts of the bill."

The opinion of the Senate was taken whether it be expedient, at this time, to determine upon any place for the permanent seat of the government, and it was decided in the negative by the casting vote of the Vice-President. It was then ordered that the consideration of the bill be resumed, the report of the committee being rejected.

A motion to insert "the easterly bank of the Potomac" was negatived by a vote of 9 to 15. "Baltimore" was proposed, and lost—yeas 7, nays 17. "Wilmington, in the State of Delaware," was also moved and disagreed to. Several motions to postpone were made, also

a motion to reject the first enacting clause, but none were agreed to. Without coming to any decision, a motion to adjourn was carried.

The subject was not resumed till the 28th of June. On that day, the Senate having under consideration a resolve of the House of Representatives of the 11th of June, "That when the two houses shall adjourn the President of the Senate and Speaker of the House of Representatives do adjourn their respective houses to meet and hold their next session at the town of Baltimore," a motion was made and carried to postpone the consideration thereof to take up the "bill to determine the permanent seat of government of the United States." The Senate then resumed the second reading of the bill.

The representation of John O'Donnell, in behalf of himself and others, citizens of Baltimore town, stating that town to be exceedingly commodious and eligible for the permanent seat of government of the United States, and the representation of Robert Peters, in behalf of himself and other freeholders and other inhabitants of Georgetown, for the same purpose, were severally read. A motion to insert "Baltimore" in the bill was again made and rejected—yeas 10, nays 15. It was then moved to insert the following words:

"On the river Potomac, at some place between the mouths of the Eastern Branch and the Connogocheague, be, and the same is hereby, accepted for the permanent seat of the government of the United States: *Provided, nevertheless*, That the operation of the laws of the State within such district shall not be affected by this acceptance until the time fixed for the removal of the government thereto, and until Congress shall otherwise by law provide."

This passed by a vote of 16 yeas, 9 nays. The members voting in the negative were Messrs. Wingate, of New Hampshire; Dalton and Strong, of Massachusetts; Stanton, of Rhode Island; Ellsworth and Johnson, of Connecticut; King and Schuyler, of New York; and Paterson, of New Jersey. "The place" was now determined upon, and this clause formed a part of the act finally adopted by both houses of Congress and approved by the President, and after further amendment and an ineffectual motion to strike out the words "between the mouths of the Eastern Branch and the Connogocheague," and insert "within thirty miles of Hancock town," the bill passed on the 1st day of July by a majority of only two; 14 voting in the affirmative and 12 in the negative. The vote was as follows:

Yeas.—Langdon, New Hampshire; Elmer, New Jersey; Maclay and Morris, Pennsylvania; Bassett and Read, Delaware; Carroll and Henry, Maryland; Lee and Walker, Virginia; Hawkins and Johnston, North Carolina; Butler, South Carolina; Gunn, Georgia.

Nays.—Wingate, New Hampshire; Dalton and Strong, Massachusetts; Foster and Stanton, Rhode Island; Ellsworth and Johnson, Connecticut; King and Schuyler, New York; Paterson, New Jersey; Izard, South Carolina; Few, Georgia.

July 2, 1790. The bill "for establishing the temporary and permanent seat of the government" which had passed the Senate was read twice in the House and committed.

July 6. In Committee of the Whole Mr. Sherman, of Connecticut, moved that the word Potomac should be struck out and a district to include the town of Baltimore be inserted; seconded by Mr. Burke. The subject was again fully debated with regard to the "temporary" as well as "permanent" seat of government. Mr. White, of Virginia, observed that if this house was alone to be consulted on the principle of accommodation, Baltimore might answer; but when it is considered that this bill originated in the Senate, and in which this place has been repeatedly rejected, it is evident that if the clause is struck out the bill will be lost. Mr. Lee, of Virginia, insisted that Baltimore is as far south as the place proposed, besides being exposed by its frontier position on the sea; we are not confined by the bill, said he, to a particular spot on the Potomac, but may fix on a spot as far north as the gentleman from Connecticut wishes. Mr. Burke, of South Carolina, said there was no political necessity for removing the temporary seat of government from New York to Philadelphia. The measure would excite the most turbulent passions in the minds of the citizens. He thought it a very extraordinary measure. It is calculated to arrest the funding system and throw everything in confusion. If the bill is passed in its present form Congress will never leave Philadelphia.

Mr. Lawrence, of New York, wished the motion might succeed. He objected to the place proposed for the permanent residence. By the bill it is conceded that the place is not at

present a suitable position. By what magic can it be made to appear it will be more proper at the end of ten years? He adverted to the funding business, and other important matters which remain to be decided on, and very strongly intimated that these questions were to be determined agreeably to the fate of this bill.

Mr. Stone, of Maryland, said all the question of difference seemed to be whether Baltimore or the Potomac shall be the seat of government. If the amendment now proposed should take place, nothing would be done and the business will be left in a very inauspicious state. He was, therefore, resolved not to be drawn off by any motion, amendment, or modification of the bill whatever. As a Marylander, he would, if he saw a prospect of success, vote for the town of Baltimore, but as it respects the United States he should vote for the Potomac. He considered the subject as one of the most painful and disagreeable that could be agitated, and he wished to have the business finally and unalterably fixed.

Mr. Seney, of Maryland, said the interests of Maryland were to be sacrificed to those of the two adjoining States, and, however flattering it may seem to Maryland to fix the seat of government on her side of the Potomac, the real advantages were in a great measure nugatory, as it would be but a very small portion of that State that could reap any benefit therefrom; the real advantages would undoubtedly result to Pennsylvania and Virginia. Besides, after the government shall have remained ten years in Philadelphia, the probability of quitting it for the Potomac appeared to be very slight indeed.

Mr. Scott, of Pennsylvania, observed that from the town of Baltimore there was no water conveyance to the interior, but from the proposed site on the Potomac there are two hundred miles navigation directly into the heart of the country.

Mr. Madison, of Virginia, said if any arguments could be brought against the proposed place on the Potomac it is its being too far northward; for the mileage south of the Potomac is 12,782 miles, to the north of it 12,422. If to this Rhode Island be added, it will not be more than equal. We have it now in our power to procure a southern position. We should hazard nothing. If the Potomac is struck out are you sure of getting Baltimore? May no other place be proposed? Instead of Baltimore is it not probable Susquehanna may be inserted; perhaps the Delaware? Make any amendment and the bill will go back to the Senate. He urged not to consent to any alteration, lest the bill be wholly defeated and the prospect of obtaining a southern position vanish forever.

Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts, regretted that the subject of establishing the permanent seat of government had been brought forward, for it is very evident that it has had a very pernicious influence on the great business of funding the public debt. If the present bill is carried into execution a very great uneasiness will ensue. Those States who think that they shall be injured, it cannot be expected will then acquiesce. He adverted to the sacrifices which the northern States are ready to make in being willing to go so far south as Baltimore, and contended that their explicit consent ought to be obtained before they are dragged still further south. He ridiculed the idea of fixing the government at Conogocheague, and did not think there was any serious intention of going to this Indian place. He considered the whole business as a mere manœuvre. Baltimore holds out the only prospect of a permanent seat of government.

Mr. Vining, of Delaware, attributed the embarrassments of public business to the assumption of State debts, and not to the subject of residence.

The committee rose and reported progress.

The bill was again debated in Committee of the Whole the next day, July 7. Mr. White, of Virginia, adverted to the situation of the proposed place on the Potomac, and said that a line from the Atlantic east and west to the extreme point mentioned in the bill would intersect the State of New Jersey and include the whole of Delaware and Maryland. He observed that after the present ferment is subsided the position will be considered as a permanent bond of union, and the eastern States will find their most essential interests promoted by the measure. He adverted to the trade of Massachusetts, which he said was greater to Virginia than to the whole Union besides.

The question being put for striking out "Potomac," and inserting "Baltimore," it was negatived, 23 to 37.

Several other amendments were offered and negatived without a division. Mr. Burke, of South Carolina, then made the following motion: "That the seat of government should remain in New York two years from last May; and from the expiration of that time to the year 1800 that the seat of government should remain in Philadelphia." Before the question was taken the committee rose.

July 8, 1790. Mr. Burke's motion, after debate, was negatived, as was also a motion offered by Mr. Smith, of South Carolina, to erase the words "at which place the ensuing session of Congress should be held." The committee then rose and reported the bill without any amendment.

July 9. The bill was taken up in the House and a variety of amendments were offered, but none were agreed to, a majority of the members being in favor of the bill, and not willing to risk its passage by any amendment whatever. Mr. Boudinot, of New Jersey, moved to strike out "Potomac," and insert "Delaware;" yeas 22, nays 39. Mr. Ames, of Massachusetts, moved to strike out "Potomac," and insert "Germantown;" yeas 22, nays 39. Mr. Smith, of Maryland, moved to strike out "Potomac," and insert "between the Potomac and the Susquehanna;" yeas 25, nays 36. Mr. Lawrence, of New York, moved to strike out "Potomac," and insert "Baltimore;" yeas 26, nays 34. Mr. Gerry, of Massachusetts, moved to strike out the words "purchase or;" yeas 26, nays 35. Mr. Gerry moved to insert a clause which should limit the commissioners in the expense to the sum to be appropriated by the bill; yeas 26, nays 33. Mr. Lawrence moved to add these words, "provided the buildings shall not exceed the sum of —— dollars;" yeas 26, nays 32. Mr. Gerry moved that the words "three commissioners or any two of them" be struck out; yeas and nays not given. Mr. Tucker, of South Carolina, moved that the whole of the fifth section be struck out; yeas 28, nays 33. Mr. Burke, of South Carolina, moved to strike out "the first Monday in December next," and to insert "the first Monday in May, 1792;" yeas 28, nays 32. Mr. Sherman, of Connecticut, moved that "December" be struck out before the word "next," and "May" inserted; yeas 28, nays 33. Mr. Smith, of South Carolina, moved that the words "at which place the next session of Congress shall be held" be struck out; yeas 26, nays 33. Mr. Smith, of Maryland, moved an amendment by which the public offices should be removed to the Potomac previous to the year 1800, provided the buildings should be prepared for their reception before that time; yeas 13, nays 48. Successive motions were then made that the bill be read a third time on Monday next; that it be read a third time to-morrow; that the house now adjourn; all of which were negatived. Every effort either to defeat or postpone the bill being found unavailing, a direct vote was now taken, and it was carried by 32 yeas to 29 nays. The vote was as follows:

Yeas.—Messrs. Cadwalader and Sinnickson, of New Jersey; Clymer, Fitzsimmons, Hartley, Heister, Muhlenberg, Scott and Wyncoop, of Pennsylvania; Vining, of Delaware; Carroll, Contee, Gale and Stone, of Maryland; Brown, Coles, Griffin, Lee, Madison, Moore, Page, Parker and White, of Virginia; Ashe, Bloodworth, Sevier, Steele and Williamson, of North Carolina; Sumter, of South Carolina; Baldwin, Jackson and Matthews, of Georgia.

Nays.—Messrs. Foster, Gilmer and Livermore, of New Hampshire; Ames, Gerry, Goodhue, Grout, Leonard, Partridge, Sedgwick and Thatcher, of Massachusetts; Huntington, Sherman, Sturgis, Trumbull and Wadsworth, of Connecticut; Benson, Floyd, Hathorn, Lawrence, Sylvester and Van Rensselaer, of New York; Boudinot and Schureman, of New Jersey; Seney and Smith, of Maryland; Burke, Smith and Tucker, of South Carolina.

The bill was approved by President Washington on the 16th of July, 1790, and thus ended the seven years' struggle for the seat of government. The following is a copy of the act:

AN ACT for establishing the temporary and permanent seat of the government of the United States.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled*, That a district of territory, not exceeding ten miles square, to be located as hereafter directed, on the river Potomac, at some place between the mouths of the Eastern Branch and Concgocheague, be, and the same is hereby, accepted for the permanent seat of the government of the United States: *Provided, nevertheless*, That the operation

of the laws of the State within such district shall not be affected by this acceptance until the time fixed for the removal of the government thereto, and until Congress shall otherwise by law provide.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the President of the United States be authorized to appoint, and, by supplying vacancies happening from refusals to act or other causes, to keep in appointment, as long as may be necessary, three commissioners, who or any two of whom shall, under the direction of the President, survey, and by proper metes and bounds define and limit a district of territory, under the limitations above mentioned; and the district so defined, limited, and located shall be deemed the district accepted by this act for the permanent seat of the government of the United States.

SEC. 3. *And be it enacted*, That the said commissioners, or any two of them, shall have power to purchase or accept such quantity of land on the eastern side of the said river, within the said district, as the President shall deem proper for the use of the United States, and, according to such plans as the President shall approve, the said commissioners, or any two of them, shall, prior to the first Monday in December, in the year one thousand eight hundred, provide suitable buildings for the accommodation of Congress and of the President, and for the public offices of the government of the United States.

SEC. 4. *And be it enacted*, That for defraying the expense of such purchases and buildings, the President of the United States be authorized and requested to accept grants of money.

SEC. 5. *And be it enacted*, That prior to the first Monday in December next, all offices attached to the seat of the government of the United States shall be removed to, and until the said first Monday in December, in the year one thousand eight hundred, shall remain at the city of Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, at which place the session of Congress next ensuing the present shall be held.

SEC. 6. *And be it enacted*, That on the said first Monday in December, in the year one thousand eight hundred, the seat of the government of the United States shall, by virtue of this act, be transferred to the district and place aforesaid. And all offices attached to the said seat of government shall accordingly be removed thereto by their respective holders, and shall, after the said day, cease to be exercised elsewhere, and that the necessary expense of such removal shall be defrayed out of the duties on imposts and tonnage, of which a sufficient sum is hereby appropriated.

Approved July 16, 1790.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President of the United States.

Mr. Jefferson, in his bitter reflections on Hamilton, in the introduction to "the Anas," relates the following incident as influencing the passage of the bill. The statement was written twenty eight years after the vote, and must therefore be received as a "recollection," and not as a contemporary document. It mentions "the influence Hamilton had established over the eastern members," as one of the means by which the measure was carried, yet the record shows that no eastern member in the House of Representatives, and only one in the Senate, (and no member from his own State in either house,) voted for it; while there were five votes in the south (besides two in Maryland) against it, among which was that of Smith, of South Carolina, whom Jefferson classed with the eastern members, as one of the "principal gamblers" in the interest of Hamilton, and one of his "votaries" in his schemes of "corruption." See Jefferson's Works, vol. 9, pages 92–95, edition published by order of the Joint Committee of Congress on the Library. The extract is as follows:

"I returned from that mission [to France] in the first year of the new government, having landed in Virginia in December, 1789, and proceeded to New York in March, 1790, to enter on the office of Secretary of State. * * * This game [the bill for funding and paying the certificates of indebtedness] was over and another was on the carpet at the moment of my arrival; and to this I was most ignorantly and innocently made to hold the candle. This fiscal manœuvre is well known by the name of the assumption [of State debts.] This measure produced the most bitter and angry contest ever known in Congress before or since the union of the States. I arrived in the midst of it. But a stranger to the ground, a stranger to the actors on it, so long absent as to have lost all familiarity with the subject and as yet

unaware of its object, I took no concern in it. The great and trying question, however, was lost in the House of Representatives. So high were the feuds excited by this subject, that on its rejection business was suspended. Congress met and adjourned from day to day without doing anything, the parties being too much out of temper to do business together. The eastern members particularly, who with Smith, from South Carolina, were the principal gamblers in these scenes, threatened a secession and dissolution. Hamilton was in despair. As I was going to the President's one day, I met him in the street. He walked me backwards and forwards before the President's door for half an hour. He painted pathetically the temper into which the legislature had been wrought; the disgust of those who were called the creditor States; the danger of the secession of their members, and the separation of the States. He observed that the members of the administration ought to act in concert. That though this question was not of my department, yet a common duty should make it a common concern; that the President was the centre on which all administrative questions ultimately rested; and that all of us should rally around him, and support, with joint efforts, measures approved by him; and that the question having been lost by a small majority only, it was probable that an appeal from me to the judgment and discretion of some of my friends might effect a change in the vote, and the machine of government, now suspended, might be again set into motion. I told him that I was really a stranger to the whole subject; that not having yet informed myself of the system of finances adopted, I knew not how far this was a necessary sequence; that undoubtedly, if its rejection endangered a dissolution of our Union at this incipient stage, I should deem that the most unfortunate of all consequences, to avert which all partial and temporary evils should be yielded. I proposed to him, however, to dine with me the next day, and I would invite another friend or two, bring them into conference together, and I thought it impossible that reasonable men, consulting together cooly, could fail, by some mutual sacrifices of opinion, to form a compromise which was to save the Union. The discussion took place. I could take no part in it but an exhortatory one, because I was a stranger to the circumstances which should govern it. But it was finally agreed that whatever importance had been attached to the rejection of this proposition, the preservation of the Union and of concord among the States was more important, and that therefore it would be better that the vote of rejection should be rescinded; to effect which some members should change their votes. But it was observed that this pill would be peculiarly bitter to the southern States, and that some concomitant measure should be adopted, to sweeten it a little to them. There had before been propositions to fix the seat of government either at Philadelphia or at Georgetown, on the Potomac; and it was thought that by giving it to Philadelphia for ten years, and to Georgetown permanently afterwards, this might, as an anodyne, calm in some degree the ferment which might be excited by the other measure alone. So two of the Potomac members (White and Lee, but White with a revulsion of stomach almost convulsive) agreed to change their votes, and Hamilton undertook to carry the other point. In doing this, the influence he had established over the eastern members, with the agency of Robert Morris with those of the middle States, effected his side of the engagement, and so the assumption was passed, and twenty millions of stock divided among favored States and thrown in as a pabulum among the stock-jobbing herd."

Mr. Madison, in a letter to Washington, dated November 20, 1789, refers to a conversation with Mr. Morris, by which he (Mr. Madison) was satisfied that the vote of Pennsylvania "would be thrown in favor of the Potowmac." In a letter to Edmund Pendleton, dated June 22, 1790, Mr. Madison, remarks that "the affairs of the State debts has been the great source of delay and embarrassments, and from the zeal and perseverance of its patrons, threatens a very unhappy issue to the session, unless some accommodation should be devised. The business of the seat of government is become a labyrinth. We are endeavoring to keep the pretensions of the Potowmac in view, and to give to all the circumstances that occur a turn favorable to it. If any arrangements should be made that will answer our wishes, it will be the effect of a coincidence of causes as fortuitous as it will be propitious." In a letter to James Monroe, dated July 4, 1790, Mr. Madison refers to the vote in the Senate "fixing the permanent seat of government on the Potowmac, and the temporary at Philadelphia," and the difficulties of its passage in the House such as to make its success a "fortuitous coincidence of circumstances which might never happen again."

The only debates on this subject which have been preserved are those in the House of Representatives—the Continental Congress during the whole of its continuance, and the Senate until 1794, having sat with closed doors. The numerous preambles and resolutions offered, and many expressions used in debate, show that the question was regarded as one of vital interest. Mr. Scott, of Maryland, thought "the future tranquillity and well-being of the United States depended as much on this as on any other question that ever had or could come before Congress." Mr. Jackson, of Georgia, said "upon this subject depended the existence of the Union." Mr. Ames, of Massachusetts, believed it would "involve as many passions as the human heart could display." Mr. Lee, of Virginia, was of opinion that "the question is to be settled which must determine whether this government is to exist for ages or be dispersed among contending winds." Mr. Stone, of Maryland, "considered the subject as one of the most painful and disagreeable that could be agitated, and he wished to have the business finally and unalterably fixed."

Apart from local feelings and sectional prejudices it was admitted generally, as a leading principle in the debates, that the seat of government ought to be on some navigable river about midway between Maine and Georgia, and as far west as consistent with a convenient access to the Atlantic ocean; and the chief points of the discussion were directed to examining and urging the comparative advantages of the Susquehanna and the Potomac. Both central, both flowing into the Chesapeake bay, and both reaching into the interior, the claims of each were pressed with equal earnestness, and the final decision in favor of the position selected was by a majority of only two in the Senate, and three in the House of Representatives. The question was thus settled after having been agitated seven years; and the precise spot was not now fixed on, but a line of some eighty miles long on the Potomac was given upon which the President was authorized to select the site. If it was so difficult at that day to determine on a place for the seat of government. and the discussion involved so much sectional feeling and angry controversy, how utterly hopeless would be the prospect of coming to any agreement, with the difficulties increased a thousand fold, should the attempt ever be made to choose a new location.

The subject was now in the hands of the President. He was at liberty to locate the seat of government on the Potomac river anywhere between the Eastern Branch (on which the city of Washington now stands) and the Connogocheague, which flows into the Potomac at Williamsport. He might place it on tide-water, or at the Little or Great Falls, or at Harper's Ferry, or west of the Blue Ridge mountains. Some remarks in the debates intimate that a location on the western part of this line was had principally in view. Mr. Madison said: "The position contemplated on the banks of the Potomac is considerably further from tide-water than the place proposed on the Susquehanna." "If we regard their comparative situations westwardly, the spot on the Potomac is almost as much farther to the west as it is distant from the proposed spot on the Susquehanna." "The two places are in the same latitude." Mr. Seney observed: "However flattering it may seem to Maryland to fix the seat of government on her side of the Potomac, the real advantages would undoubtedly result to Pennsylvania and Virginia." And the act of cession from Virginia alluded to a site on the Potomac "above tide-water," the advantages of which would be common to the three States, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia.

President Washington, "after duly examining and weighing the advantages and disadvantages of the several situations within the limits" assigned by the law, 1791
made known the location of "one part" of the district of ten miles square, by the following proclamation, dated Philadelphia, January 24, 1791:

By the President of the United States of America.

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas the general assembly of the State of Maryland, by an act passed on the 23d day of December, 1788, entitled "An act to cede to Congress a district of ten miles square in this State, for the seat of the government of the United States," did enact, that the representatives of the said State, in the House of Representatives of the Congress of the United States, appointed to assemble at New York on the first Wednesday of March then next ensuing,

should be, and they were thereby authorized and required, on the behalf of the said State, to cede to the Congress of the United States any district in the said State, not exceeding ten miles square, which the Congress might fix upon and accept for the seat of government of the United States;

And the general assembly of the Commonwealth of Virginia, by an act passed on the 3d day of December, 1789, and entitled "An act for the cession of ten miles square, or any lesser quantity of territory within this State, to the United States in Congress assembled, for the permanent seat of the general government," did enact, that a tract of country, not exceeding ten miles square, or any lesser quantity, to be located within the limits of the said State, and in any part thereof, as Congress might by law direct, should be, and the same was thereby, forever ceded and relinquished to the Congress and government of the United States, in full and absolute right, and exclusive jurisdiction, as well of soil as of persons residing or to reside thereon, pursuant to the tenor and effect of the eighth section of the first article of the Constitution of government of the United States;

And the Congress of the United States, by their act passed the 16th day of July, 1790, and entitled "An act for establishing the temporary and permanent seat of the government of the United States," authorized the President of the United States to appoint three commissioners, to survey under his direction, and by proper metes and bounds, to limit a district of territory, not exceeding ten miles square, on the river Potomac, at some place between the mouth of the Eastern Branch and Connococheague, which district, so to be located and limited, was accepted by the said act of Congress, as the district for the permanent seat of the government of the United States:

Now, therefore, in pursuance of the powers to me confided, and after duly examining and weighing the advantages and disadvantages of the several situations within the limits aforesaid, I do hereby declare and make known, that the location of one part of the said district of ten miles square shall be found by running four lines of experiment in the following manner, that is to say: Running from the court-house of Alexandria, in Virginia, due southwest half a mile, and thence a due southeast course, till it shall strike Hunting creek, to fix the beginning of the said four lines of experiment.

Then beginning the first of the said four lines of experiment at the point on Hunting creek where the said southeast course shall have struck the same, and running the said first line due northwest ten miles; thence the second line into Maryland, due northeast, ten miles; thence the third line, due southeast, ten miles; and thence the fourth line, due southwest, ten miles, to the beginning on Hunting creek.

And the said four lines of experiment being so run, I do hereby declare and make known, that all that part within the said four lines of experiment which shall be within the State of Maryland, and above the Eastern Branch, and all that part within the same four lines of experiment which shall be within the Commonwealth of Virginia, and above a line to be run from the point of land forming the upper cape of the mouth of the Eastern Branch, due southwest, and no more, is now fixed upon and directed to be surveyed, defined, limited, and located for a part of the said district accepted by the said act of Congress for the permanent seat of the government of the United States, hereby expressly reserving the direction of the survey and location of the remaining part of the said district, to be made hereafter contiguous to such part or parts of the present location as is or shall be agreeably to law.

And I do accordingly direct the said commissioners, appointed agreeably to the tenor of the said act, to proceed forthwith to run the said lines of experiment; and the same being run, to survey, and by proper metes and bounds to define and limit the part within the same, which is hereinbefore directed for immediate location and acceptance; and thereof to make due report to me under their hands and seals.

In testimony whereof I have caused the seal of the United States to be affixed to these presents and signed the same with my hand. Done at the city of Philadelphia the 24th day of January, in the year of our Lord 1791, and of the independence of the United States the fifteenth.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

By the President:

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

The above proclamation was communicated by the President to Congress, accompanied by the following message, which was read in both houses on the 24th of January, 1791:

Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives:

In execution of the powers with which Congress were pleased to invest me by their act entitled "An act for establishing the temporary and permanent seat of the government of the United States;" and on mature consideration of the advantages and disadvantages of the several positions within the limits prescribed by the said act, I have, by a proclamation bearing date this day, (a copy of which is herewith transmitted,) directed commissioners, appointed in pursuance of the said act, to survey and limit a part of the territory of ten miles square on both sides of the river Potomac, so as to comprehend Georgetown, in Maryland, and to extend to the Eastern Branch.

I have not by this first act given to the said territory the whole extent of which it is susceptible in the direction of the river, because I thought it important that Congress should have an opportunity of considering whether, by an amendatory law, they would authorize the location of the residue at the lower end of the present, so as to comprehend the Eastern Branch itself, and some of the country on its lower side, in the State of Maryland, and the town of Alexandria, in Virginia. If, however, they are of opinion that the federal territory should be bounded by the water edge of the Eastern Branch, the location of the residue will be to be made at the upper end of what is now directed.

I have thought best to await a survey of the territory before it is decided on what particular spot on the northeastern side of the river the public buildings shall be erected.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

UNITED STATES, *January* 24, 1791.

In the Senate, January 24, 1791: *Ordered*, That this message lie for consideration. February 17, Mr. Carroll asked leave to bring in a bill for the purpose recommended in the message; yeas 17, nays 7. The nays were Messrs. Wingate, of New Hampshire; Dalton, of Massachusetts; Foster, of Rhode Island: Ellsworth and Johnson, of Connecticut; King, of New York; Maclay, of Pennsylvania. February 18, the consideration of the bill was postponed one week. February 25, a postponement of the bill was again moved, but was negatived, 12 to 14. A motion was then made that the first clause of the bill, "from line first to the word provided" be agreed to. It passed in the affirmative, 14 to 12; and on the 26th the bill was passed without the yeas and nays being called for.

In the House of Representatives no amendment was offered, and the bill passed on the 1st of March as it came from the Senate, and was approved on the 3d. The act is as follows:

AN ACT to amend "An act for establishing the temporary and permanent seat of the government of the United States."

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That so much of the act entitled "An act for establishing the temporary and permanent seat of the government of the United States," as requires that the whole of the district of territory, not exceeding ten miles square, to be located on the river Potomac for the permanent seat of the government of the United States, shall be located above the mouth of the Eastern Branch, be, and is hereby, repealed, and that it shall be lawful for the President to make any part of the territory below the said limit and above the mouth of Hunting creek a part of the said district, so as to include a convenient part of the Eastern Branch, and of the lands lying on the lower side thereof, and also the town of Alexandria, and the territory so to be included shall form a part of the district not exceeding ten miles square, for the permanent seat of the government of the United States, in like manner and to all intents and purposes as if the same had been within the purview of the above recited act: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall authorize the erection of the public buildings otherwise than on the Maryland side of the river Potomac, as required by the aforesaid act.

Approved March 3, 1791.

On the 30th day of March, 1791, by the following proclamation the President declared the location of the whole of the ten miles square:

By the President of the United States.

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas by a proclamation, bearing date the 24th day of January, of this present year, and in pursuance of certain acts of the States of Maryland and Virginia, and of the Congress of the United States therein mentioned, certain lines of experiment were directed to be run in the neighborhood of Georgetown, in Maryland, for the purpose of determining the location of a part of the territory of ten miles square for the permanent seat of the government of the United States; and a certain part was directed to be located within the said lines of experiment on both sides of the Potomac and above the limit of the Eastern Branch, prescribed by the said act of Congress.

And Congress by an amendatory act, passed on the 3d day of this present month of March, have given further authority to the President of the United States "to make any part of the said territory, below the said limit and above the mouth of Hunting creek, a part of the said district, so as to include a convenient part of the Eastern Branch and of the lands lying on the lower side thereof, and also the town of Alexandria."

Now, therefore, for the purpose of amending and completing the location of the whole of the said territory of ten miles square, in conformity with the said amendatory act of Congress, I do hereby declare and make known that the whole of the said territory shall be located and included within the four lines following, that is to say:

Beginning at Jones's point, being the upper cape of Hunting creek, in Virginia, and at an angle in the outset of 45 degrees west of the north, and running in a direct line ten miles for the first line; then beginning again at the same Jones's point and running another direct line at a right angle with the first, across the Potomac, ten miles, for the second line; then from the terminations of the said first and second lines, running two other direct lines of ten miles each, the one crossing the Eastern Branch, aforesaid, and the other the Potomac, and meeting each other in a point.

And I do accordingly direct the commissioners named under the authority of the said first mentioned act of Congress to proceed forthwith to have the said four lines run, and by proper metes and bounds defined and limited; and thereof to make due report under their hands and seals, and the territory so to be located, defined, and limited, shall be the whole territory accepted by the said act of Congress as the district for the permanent seat of the government of the United States.

In testimony whereof I have caused the seal of the United States to be affixed to these presents, and signed the same with my hand. Done at Georgetown, aforesaid, the 30th day of March, in the year of our Lord 1791, and of the independence of the United States the fifteenth.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

By the President:
THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Within this district of ten miles square a position was selected for the federal city, having for its limits the present boundaries of the city of Washington. The ground thus selected belonged to a number of owners, and was occupied partly by forest and partly by cultivated fields, pasture lands, and dwellings; two towns had also been laid out, on paper, under the laws of Maryland, one called Hamburg, on the Potomac, east of where the national observatory now stands, the river at that place then being navigable for large vessels; the other called Carrollsburg, on the deep waters of the Eastern Branch, above the point now occupied by the arsenal. Maps of both these towns still exist, and until within a comparatively late period the name "Hamburg" was retained in the law of the corporation of Washington regulating hackney carriages. Plans have also been preserved showing the position of every house, farm, and graveyard within the limits now occupied by the city of Washington, as they stood when the site was purchased by the government.

Nineteen of the principal proprietors of the lands within those limits signed a general

agreement among themselves, which was accepted as the basis upon which their lands were to be conveyed for the purposes of the federal city, and on the 3d of April, 1791, the President wrote to the commissioners urging the importance of closing the business with the proprietors, in order that consequent arrangements might be made without more delay than could be avoided. But misunderstandings arose respecting the terms of the agreement, and in a letter from the President, dated May 7, 1791, he remarks that "it is an unfortunate circumstance in the present stage of the business relative to the federal city that difficulties unforeseen and unexpected should arise to darken, perhaps to destroy, the fair prospect" lately presented. And he adds that the pain which this occurrence occasioned him was the more sensibly felt, as he "had taken pleasure during his journey through the several States to relate the agreement and to speak of it on every occasion in terms which applauded the conduct of the parties as being alike conducive to the public welfare and to the interest of individuals." Some delay arose from these difficulties, but about the end of June the proprietors of the greater part of the lands conveyed their respective portions to trustees for the purposes of the city.

By the terms of the conveyance the President was to select such sites and such quantities of land as he might choose for reservations and similar public purposes, for which the proprietors were to be paid at the rate of £25 per acre; the streets and avenues were all to become the property of the United States without cost, and the building lots were to be divided equally between the government and the respective owners of the soil. The proprietors reserved to themselves the right to the trees, timber, and wood on the premises, except such as they might be notified by the President or commissioners to leave for ornament, and all wood so reserved by the United States a reasonable value was to be paid in addition to the £25 per acre for the land. If the arrangements of the streets, lots, and the like, conveniently admitted of it, the proprietors were to retain their buildings and graveyards, paying to the United States at the rate of £12 10*s*. per acre for the land so retained, but if the plan of the city should make it necessary to remove such buildings, then the proprietors were to receive a reasonable value for them.

Notley Young, Daniel Carroll, and many others, proprietors of the greater part of the lands within the limits assigned for the city, made conveyances on these conditions, and many of the owners of lots in Carrollsburg and Hamburg also came into an agreement subjecting their lots to be laid out anew, giving up one-half of the quantity to the United States, and they to be reinstated in one-half of the quantity of their lots in the new location, or otherwise compensated in land in a different situation within the city, or in case of disagreement then a just and full compensation to be made in money. But some of the proprietors of lots in Carrollsburg and Hamburg, as well as of other lands, "from imbecility and other causes," not having come into any agreement, the assembly of Maryland, (in an act passed December 19, 1791,) considering it just and expedient that all the lands within the city should contribute in due proportion, in the means which had already greatly enhanced the value of the whole, and that an incontrovertible title ought to be made to the purchaser under public sanction, authorized the lands of any proprietors within the limits of Carrollsburg or Hamburg, or any other part of "the city of Washington," who failed to convey them within three months after the passage of the act on the same terms and conditions as the other proprietors had done, to be condemned, and a fair valuation set on them by five impartial freeholders, and on the payment of the valuation the lands were to be vested in the commissioners in trust for the same purposes as the lands conveyed by the other proprietors. The act also made provision for the conveyance of lands belonging to minors, absent persons, married women, and persons *non compos mentis*, and lands the property of the State, and also provided for proceedings in cases of disputed titles.

A full conveyance was thus made, or provided for, of the whole tract selected for the federal city.

This act of Maryland of December 19, 1791, "recognized" the cession of the part of the District of Columbia within that State in the words following, which are the same as those used in the act of cession of Virginia of December 3, 1789:

"Whereas in the cession of this State heretofore made of territory for the government of

the United States the lines of such cession could not be particularly designated, and it being expedient and proper that the same should be recognized in the acts of this State:

"*Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Maryland*, That all that part of the said territory called Columbia, which lies within the limits of this State, shall be, and the same is hereby acknowledged to be, forever ceded and relinquished to the Congress and government of the United States, in full and absolute right and exclusive jurisdiction, as well of soil as of persons residing or to reside thereon, pursuant to the tenor and effect of the eighth section of the first article of the Constitution of government of the United States: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be so construed to vest in the United States any right of property in the soil as to affect the rights of individuals therein, otherwise than the same shall or may be transferred by such individuals to the United States: *And provided also*, That the jurisdiction of the laws of this State over the persons and property of individuals, residing within the limits of the cession aforesaid, shall not cease or determine until Congress shall, by law, provide for the government thereof under their jurisdiction in manner provided by the article of the Constitution before recited."

A plan for the city having been adopted, measures were immediately taken and vigorously prosecuted "to provide buildings suitable for the accommodation of Congress, and of the President, and for the public offices," prior to the first Monday in December, 1800, as required by the Act for establishing the seat of government. Sufficient arrangements were completed for the purpose, and in November, 1800, 17 years after the first agitation of the question, Congress assembled for the first time in the city of Washington. President Adams, in his speech at the opening of Congress, said: "I congratulate the people of the United States on the assembling of Congress at the permanent seat of their government, and I congratulate you, gentlemen, on the prospect of a residence *not to be changed*." And in the following words he expressed a sentiment which ought to be cherished in the memory and to influence the conduct of all the people: "In this city may that piety and virtue, that wisdom and magnanimity, that constancy and self-government which adorned the great character whose name it bears, be forever held in veneration. Here, and throughout our country, may simple manners, pure morals, and true religion flourish forever!"

NOTE.—The following proclamation by President Washington, dated October 3, 1789, leaves no doubt on the mind of the reader that the government, whose permanent seat was formally established in the District of Columbia by proclamation of the same President, dated March 30, 1791, was, in the estimation of that illustrious man, truly *national* in its character, and was intended to supersede one which had been instituted by the people of this country *previous to their becoming a nation*. We are indebted for a literal transcript of a copy as originally published to Charles J. Hoadley, State Librarian, Hartford, Connecticut.

A PROCLAMATION BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

WHEREAS it is the Duty of all Nations to acknowledge the Providence of Almighty GOD, to obey his Will, to be grateful for his Benefits, and humbly to implore his Protection and Favor: And whereas both Houses of Congress have, by their Joint Committee, requested me "To recommend to the People of the "United States a Day of public Thanksgiving and Prayer, to be observed by acknowledging with "grateful Hearts the many and signal Favors of Almighty GOD, especially by affording them an "Opportunity peaceably to establish a Form of Government for their Safety and Happiness:"

NOW, THEREFORE, I do recommend and assign THURSDAY, the Twenty-sixth Day of NOVEMBER next, to be devoted by the People of these States to the Service of that great and glorious Being, who is the beneficent Author of all the good that was, that is, or that will be: That we may then all unite in rendering unto him our sincere and humble Thanks for his kind Care and Protection of the People of this Country previous to their becoming a Nation; for the signal and manifold Mercies and the favourable Interpositions of his Providence in the Course and Conclusion of the late War; for the great Degree of Tranquility, Union, and Plenty which we have since enjoyed; for the peaceable and rational Manner in which we have been enabled to establish Constitutions of Government for our Safety and Happiness, and particularly the National one now lately instituted; for the civil and religious Liberty with which we are blessed, and the Means we have of acquiring and diffusing useful knowledge; and, in general, for all the great and various Favors which he hath been pleased to confer upon us.

AND, ALSO, That we may then unite in most humbly offering our Prayers and Supplications to the great Lord and Ruler of Nations, and beseech him to pardon our national and other Transgressions; to enable us all, whether in public or private Stations, to perform our several and relative Duties properly and punctually; to render our national Government a Blessing to all the People, by constantly being a Government of wise, just, and constitutional laws, discreetly and faithfully executed and obeyed; to protect and guide all Sovereigns and Nations, (especially such as have shewn kindness unto us) and to bless them with good Government, Peace, and Concord; to promote the Knowledge and Practice of true Religion and Virtue, and the Encrease of Science among them and us; and, generally, to grant unto all Mankind such a Degree of temporal Prosperity as he alone knows to be best.

GIVEN under my Hand, at the City of New York, the third Day of October, in the Year of our Lord One Thousand Seven Hundred and Eighty-nine.

G. WASHINGTON.

C.

HISTORY OF SCHOOLS FOR THE COLORED POPULATION.

I. DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

II. STATES.

PART I.

HISTORY OF SCHOOLS FOR THE COLORED POPULATION IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

PART I.

HISTORY OF SCHOOLS FOR THE COLORED POPULATION IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION OF THE COLORED POPULATION.

I. *Historical development of schools for the colored population in the District of Columbia.*

PERIOD I.—1800 TO 1861.

PERIOD II.—1861 TO 1868.

1.—*Cities of Washington and Georgetown.*

2.—*Colored schools in Washington county.*

3.—*Colored schools in Alexandria.*

SCHOOLS OF THE COLORED POPULATION.

PERIOD I.—1801-1861.

The struggles of the colored people of the District of Columbia, in securing for themselves the means of education, furnish a very instructive chapter in the history of schools. Their courage and resolution were such, in the midst of their own great ignorance and strenuous opposition from without, that a permanent record becomes an act of justice to them. In the language of Jefferson to Banneker, the black astronomer, it is a publication to which their "whole color has a right for their justification against the doubts which have been entertained of them." Though poor, proscribed and unlettered, they founded, in their humble way, an institution for the education of their children within less than two years after the first school-house of whites was built in the city. The sentiment against the education of the colored classes was much less rigorous in the early history of the capital than it was a third of a century later. The free colored people were sometimes even encouraged, to a limited extent, in their efforts to pick up some fragments of knowledge. They were taught in the Sunday schools and evening schools occasionally, and respectable mulatto families were in many cases allowed to attend, with white children, the private schools and academies. There are scores of colored men and women still living in this District who are decently educated, and who never went to any but white schools. There are also white men and women still alive here, who went to school in this city and in Georgetown with colored children and felt no offence. Another fact important to be considered is that the colored people, who first settled in Washington, constituted a very superior class of their race. Many of them were favorite family servants, who came here with congressmen from the south, and with the families of other public officers, and who by long and faithful service had secured, by gift, purchase, or otherwise, their freedom. Others were superior mechanics, house servants, and enterprising in various callings, who obtained their freedom by their own persevering industry. Some, also, had received their freedom before coming to this city, and of these there was one family, to be referred to hereafter, which came from Mount Vernon. Still the number of those who could read, even of the very best class of colored people, was very small.

THE FIRST SCHOOL AND SCHOOL HOUSE.

The first school-house in this District, built expressly for the education of colored children, was erected by three men who had been born and reared as slaves in Maryland and Virginia. Their names were George Bell, Nicholas Franklin and Moses Liverpool. It was a good one-story frame building, and stood upon a lot directly opposite to and west of the house in which the mother of Daniel Carroll, of Duddington, then resided, and where the Providence Hospital now stands. It was built about the year 1807, and a school, under a white teacher, Mr. Lowe, was opened there as soon as it was finished. It was a full school, and continued several years, after which, for a time, the house was used as a dwelling. The following is a summary from the census of Washington taken in 1807, the year in which this colored school-house was built:

White males	2,139	Free black females	153
White females	2,009	Free mulatto males	95
Male slaves	409	Free mulatto females	120
Female slaves	479	Total white	4,148
Male non-resident slaves	55	Total free colored	494
Female non-resident slaves	61	Total slaves	1,004
Free black males	126	Total colored	1,498

It is seen from these figures that when this school was put into operation there was a population of 494 souls only to represent it that being the number of free colored persons. On the

other hand, with a population of more than 4,000, the white residents had the year before built but two public school-houses for white scholars, one in the eastern and the other in the western section of the city, though there were three or four small private schools. The three men who built the school-house had at that time just emerged from the condition of slaves, and knew not a letter of the alphabet. Franklin and Liverpool were caulkers by trade, having come from the sea-coast in the lower part of Virginia, and were at work in the Navy Yard. How they secured their freedom is not clearly known, though the tradition is that Franklin, experiencing religion, was made free by his master, who was a member of the Methodist church, the discipline of which at that time admitted no slave to membership.* These two men worked at their trade all their lives, raised up their families with all the education their means would afford, and their grandchildren are now among the respectable colored people of this city.

THE BELL AND BROWNING FAMILIES.

George Bell was the leading spirit in this remarkable educational enterprise, and was conspicuous in all efforts for the benefit of his race in this community. He was the slave of Anthony Addison, who owned a large estate upon the borders of the District beyond the Eastern Branch, and his wife, Sophia Browning, belonged to the Bell family, on the Patuxent. When the commissioners were surveying the District in 1791 they received their meals from their cabin across the Eastern Branch, and the wife used often to describe the appearance of Benjamin Banneker, the celebrated mathematician and astronomer, who was one of the surveying party by invitation of the commissioners. She had a market garden and used to attend the Alexandria market every market day, though she had a family of three sons and a daughter. In this manner she saved four hundred dollars without the knowledge of her owner, who was Mrs. Rachel Pratt, (Bell,) the mother of Governor Pratt, of Maryland. This money was intrusted to a Methodist preacher, who bought the husband's freedom with it, and shortly afterwards, while the wife was dangerously sick, her freedom was bought for five pounds Maryland currency by the husband. These purchases were effected about six years before the building of the school-house. Two of the sons, born in slavery, the father purchased a few years later; the third was accidentally killed in Washington, and the daughter they could not buy, her mistress declining peremptorily to relinquish her, but making her free by her will at her decease, which occurred many years later in Georgetown. These children belonged, as did the mother, to Mrs. Pratt. The two boys were purchased "running"—while on the foot as runaways—the one for $750 and the other for $450. The first free-born child, widow Harriet Dunlap, a woman of much intelligence and singular clearness of memory, born in 1803, is still living and resides here, as do also Margaret, who was freed by Mrs. Pratt, and the two younger sons. The two sons that were purchased were both lost at sea. Mrs. Dunlap, and her next sister, Elizabeth, after the Bell school, as it may be called, closed, went for brief periods successively to schools taught by Henry Potter, an Englishman, by Anne Maria Hall, and Mrs. Maria Haley. There were several colored children in Mrs. Haley's school, and some complaints being made to the teacher, who was an Irish lady, the two Bell girls were sent to the school in Baltimore, taught by Rev. Daniel Coker, who subsequently, as a colored Methodist missionary, became conspicuously known throughout the Christian world by his wise and courageous work in the first emigration to Liberia. They remained at this school two years and a half, from 1812 to 1815. George Bell died in 1843, at the age of 82 years, and his wife some years later, at the age of 86. They left all their children not only with a good education but also in comfortable pecuniary circumstances. The mother was a woman of superior character, as were all the family. One sister was the wife of the late Rev. John F. Cook, and

* The Methodist Discipline as amended in 1784 prescribed among other rules the following two:

First. Every member of our Society who has slaves in his possession shall, within twelve months after notice given to him by the assistant, legally execute an instrument whereby he emancipates and sets free every slave in his possession.

Second. No person holding slaves shall in future be admitted into our Society or to the Lord's Supper, till he previously complies with these rules concerning slavery.

another was Mrs. Alethia Tanner, whose force of character and philanthropy gave her remarkable prominence here and elsewhere among her race, and commanded the respect of all who knew her. All of the Browning family belonged to Mrs. Rachel Pratt. Mrs. Tanner commenced her remarkable career by the purchase of her own freedom for $1,400. The last payment of $275 was made June 29, 1810, and her manumission papers from Mrs. Rachel Pratt bear date July 10, 1810. In 1826 she purchased her older sister, Laurena Cook, and five of the Cook children, four sons and a daughter. One of these sons, then sixteen years old, was afterwards known and respected for more than a quarter of a century by all classes in this community as an able and enlightened school teacher and clergyman. His name was John F. Cook. In 1828 she purchased the rest of the Cook children and their offspring as follows: Hannah and her two children, Annette and her two children, Alethia and her child, George Cook and Daniel Cook, comprising, in all, her sister with ten children and five grandchildren, paying for the sister $800, and for the children an average of $300 each. She also purchased the freedom of Lotty Riggs and her four children, and of John Butler, who became a useful Methodist minister; and in 1837 she purchased the freedom of Charlotte Davis, who is still living in this city. The documents showing these purchases are all preserved in the Cook family. Mrs. Tanner was alive to every wise scheme for the education and elevation of her race. It was through her efforts, combined with those of her brother in law, George Bell, that the First Bethel Church on Capitol Hill was saved for that society. When the house was put up at auction by the bank which held the notes of the society, these two individuals came forward, bid in the property, paid for it and waited for their pay till the society was able to raise the money. Mrs. Tanner, at her death in 1864, left a handsome property. Her husband died many years before, and she had no children. She was the housemaid of Mr. Jefferson during his residence at the capital, and Richard M. Johnson, who was her friend, appears as the witness to the manumission papers of Laurena Cook, her sister, and of John F. Cook, the son of Laurena, whose freedom she bought while Mr. Johnson was United States senator.

THE SCHOOL OF THE RESOLUTE BENEFICIAL SOCIETY.

After the Bell school-house had been used several years as a dwelling, it was in 1818 again taken for educational purposes, to accommodate an association organized by the leading colored men of the city, and for the specific purpose of promoting the education of their race. The courage of these poor men, nearly all of whom had but a few years previously emerged from bondage and could not read a syllable, cannot be justly estimated without recalling the fact, that at that period the free colored people were considered everywhere in the south as a nuisance, and very largely so through the north. The Savannah Republican newspaper, in 1817, in a carefully prepared article on the subject, said: "The free people of color have never conferred a single benefit on the country. They have been and are a nuisance, which we wish to get rid of as soon as possible, the filth and offal of society;" and this article was copied approvingly into leading, temperate northern journals. It will be seen from the announcement that this school was established upon the principle of receiving all colored children who should come, tuition being exacted only from such as were able to pay; that it was more nearly a free school than anything hitherto known in the city. The announcement of this school, which appeared in the columns of the Daily National Intelligencer, August 29, 1818, is full of interest. It clearly indicates, among other things, the fact that at that period there were some slave owners in this District who were recognized by the colored people as friendly to the education of their slaves; a sentiment, however, which, in the gradual prostitution of public opinion on the subject, was very thoroughly eradicated in the succeeding forty years. But what is of special significance in this remarkable paper is the humble language of apology in which it is expressed. It is plainly manifest in every sentence that an apology was deemed necessary from these poor people for presuming to do anything for opening to their offspring the gates of knowledge which had been barred to themselves. The document reads as follows:

"*A School*,

"Founded by an association of free people of color, of the city of Washington, called the

'Resolute Beneficial Society,' situate near the Eastern Public School and the dwelling of Mrs. Fenwick, is now open for the reception of children of free people of color and others, that ladies or gentlemen may think proper to send to be instructed in reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar or other branches of education apposite to their capacities, by a steady, active and experienced teacher, whose attention is wholly devoted to the purposes described. It is presumed that free colored families will embrace the advantages thus presented to them, either by subscribing to the funds of the society or by sending their children to the school. An improvement of the intellect and morals of colored youth being the objects of this institution, the patronage of benevolent ladies and gentlemen, by donation or subscription, is humbly solicited in aid of the fund, the demands thereon being heavy and the means at present much too limited. For the satisfaction of the public, the constitution and articles of association are printed and published. And to avoid disagreeable occurrences, no writings are to be done by the teacher for a slave, neither directly nor indirectly, to serve the purpose of a slave on any account whatever. Further particulars may be known by applying to any of the undersigned officers.

"WILLIAM COSTIN, *President*.
"GEORGE HICKS, *Vice-President*.
"JAMES HARRIS, *Secretary*.
"GEORGE BELL, *Treasurer*.
"ARCHIBALD JOHNSON, *Marshal*.
"FRED. LEWIS, *Chairman of the Committee*.
"ISAAC JOHNSON, } *Committee*.
"SCIPIO BEENS, }

"N. B.—An evening school will commence on the premises on the first Monday of October, and continue throughout the season.

☞"The managers of Sunday schools in the eastern district are thus most dutifully informed that on Sabbath days the school-house belonging to this society, if required for the tuition of colored youth, will be uniformly at their service.

"*August* 29, 3t."

This school was continued several years successfully, with an ordinary attendance of fifty or sixty scholars, and often more. The first teacher was Mr. Pierpont, from Massachusetts, a relative of the poet; and after two or three years, was succeeded by John Adams, a shoemaker, who was *the first colored man who taught in this District*, and who, after leaving this school, had another, about 1822, near the Navy Department. The Bell school-house was after this period used as a dwelling by one of Bell's sons, and at his father's decease fell to his daughter Elizabeth, the wife of Basil Sims. Soon afterwards Sims and his wife both died, leaving a handsome property for their children, which, however, was totally dissipated by the executor. The Bell school-house and lot were sold for taxes; the children when coming of age vainly seeking its recovery.

MR. HENRY POTTER'S SCHOOL.

The third school for colored children in Washington was established by Mr. Henry Potter, an Englishman, who opened his school about 1809, in a brick building which then stood on the southeast corner of F and Seventh streets, opposite the block where the post office building now stands. He continued there several years and had a large school, moving subsequently to what was then known as Clark's row on Thirteenth street west, between G and H streets north.

MRS. HALL'S SCHOOL.

During this period Mrs. Anne Maria Hall started a school on Capitol Hill, between the Old Capitol and Carroll row, on First street east. After continuing there with a full school for some ten years, she moved to a building which stood on what is now the vacant portion of the Casparis House lot on A street, close to the Capitol. Some years later she went to the First Bethel church, and after a year or two she moved to a house still standing on E street north, between Eleventh and Twelfth west, and there taught many years. She was a colored woman from Prince George's county, Maryland, and had a respectable education, which she obtained at schools with white children in Alexandria. Her husband died early, leaving her with children to support, and she betook herself to the work of a teacher, which she loved, and in which, for not less than twenty-five years, she met with uniform success. Her schools were all quite large, and the many who remember her as their teacher speak of her with great respect.

MRS. MARY BILLING'S SCHOOL.

Of the early teachers of colored schools in this District there is no one whose name is mentioned with more gratitude and respect by the intelligent colored residents that that of Mrs.

Mary Billing, who established the first colored school that was gathered in Georgetown. She was an English woman; her husband, Joseph Billing, a cabinet maker, coming from England in 1800, settled with his family that year in Washington, and dying in 1807 left his wife with three children. She was well educated, a capable and good woman, and immediately commenced teaching to support her family. At first, it is believed, she was connected with the corporation school of Georgetown. It was while in a white school certainly that her attention was arrested by the wants of the colored children, whom she was accustomed to receive into her schools, till the opposition became so marked that she decided to make her school exclusively colored. She was a woman of strong religious convictions, and being English, with none of the ideas peculiar to slave society, when she saw the peculiar destitution of the colored children in the community around her, she resolved to give her life to the class who seemed most to need her services. She established a colored school about 1810, in a brick house still standing on Dunbarton street opposite the Methodist church, between Congress and High streets, remaining there till the winter of 1820-'21, when she came to Washington and opened a school in the house on H street near the Foundry church, then owned by Daniel Jones, a colored man, and still owned and occupied by a member of that family. She died in 1826 in the fiftieth year of her age. She continued her school till failing health, a year or so before her death, compelled its relinquishment. Her school was always large, it being patronized in Georgetown as well as afterwards by the best colored families of Washington, many of whom sent their children to her from Capitol Hill and the vicinity of the Navy Yard. Most of the better educated colored men and women now living, who were school children in her time, received the best portion of their education from her, and they all speak of her with a deep and tender sense of obligation. Henry Potter succeeded her in the Georgetown school, and after him Mr. Shay, an Englishman, who subsequently came to Washington and for many years had a large colored school in a brick building known as the Round Tops, in the western part of the city, near the Circle, and still later removing to the old Western Academy building, corner of I and Seventeenth streets. He was there till about 1830, when he was convicted of assisting a slave to his freedom and sent a term to the penitentiary. Mrs. Billing had a night school in which she was greatly assisted by Mr. Monroe, a government clerk and a Presbyterian elder, whose devout and benevolent character is still remembered in the churches. Mrs. Billing had scholars from Bladensburg and the surrounding country, who came into Georgetown and boarded with her and with others. About the time when Mrs. Billing relinquished her school in 1822 or 1823, what may be properly called

THE SMOTHERS SCHOOL-HOUSE

was built by Henry Smothers on the corner of Fourteenth and H streets, not far from the Treasury building. Smothers had a small dwelling-house on this corner, and built his school-house on the rear of the same lot. He had been long a pupil of Mrs. Billing, and had subsequently taught a school on Washington street, opposite the Union Hotel in Georgetown. He opened his school in Washington in the old corporation school-house, built in 1806, but some years before this period abandoned as a public school-house. It was known as the Western Academy, and is still standing and used as a school-house on the corner of I and Nineteenth streets west. When his school-house on Fourteenth and H streets was finished his school went into the new quarters. This school was very large, numbering always more than a hundred and often as high as a hundred and fifty scholars. He taught here about two years, and was succeeded by John W. Prout about the year 1825. Prout was a man of ability. In 1831, May 4, there was a meeting, says the National Intelligencer of that date, of "the colored citizens, large and very respectable, in the African Methodist Episcopal church," to consider the question of emigrating to Liberia. John W. Prout was chosen to preside over the assemblage, and the article in the Intelligencer represents him as making "a speech of decided force and well adapted to the occasion, in support of a set of resolutions which he had drafted, and which set forth views adverse to leaving the soil that had given them birth, their true and veritable home, *without the benefits of education.*" The school under Prout was governed by a board of trustees and was organized as

A FREE SCHOOL,

and so continued two or three years. The number of scholars was very large, averaging a hundred and fifty. Mrs. Anne Maria Hall was the assistant teacher. It relied mainly for support upon subscription, twelve and a half cents a month only being expected from each pupil, and this amount was not compulsory. The school was free to all colored children, without money or price, and so continued two or three years, when failing of voluntary pecuniary support (it never wanted scholars) it became a regular tuition school. The school under Mr. Prout was called the "Columbian Institute," the name being suggested by John McLeod, the famous Irish schoolmaster, who was a warm friend of this institution after visiting and commending the scholars and teachers, and who named his new building in 1835 the Columbian Academy. The days of thick darkness to the colored people were approaching. The Nat. Turner insurrection in Southampton county, Virginia, which occurred in August, 1831, spread terror everywhere in slave communities. In this district, immediately upon that terrible occurrence, the colored children, who had in very large numbers been received into Sabbath schools in the white churches, were all turned out of those schools. This event, though seeming to be a fiery affliction, proved a blessing in disguise. It aroused the energies of the colored people, taught them self-reliance, and they organized forthwith Sabbath schools of their own. It was in the Smothers' school-house that they formed their first Sunday school, about the year 1832, and here they continued their very large school for several years, the Fifteenth-street Presbyterian Church ultimately springing from the school organization. It is important to state in this connection that

THE SUNDAY SCHOOL,

always an extremely important means of education for colored people in the days of slavery, was emphatically so in the gloomy times now upon them. It was the Sabbath school that taught the great mass of the free people of color about all the school knowledge that was allowed them in those days, and hence the consternation which came upon them when they found themselves excluded from the schools of the white churches. Lindsay Muse, who has been the messenger for eighteen Secretaries of the Navy, successively, during forty years, from 1828 to the present time; John Brown; Benjamin M. McCoy; Mr. Smallwood; Mrs. Charlotte Norris, afterwards wife of Rev. Eli Nugent; and Siby McCoy are the only survivors of the resolute little band of colored men and women who gathered with and guided that Sunday school. They had, in the successor of Mr. Prout, a man after their own heart,

JOHN F. COOK,

who came into charge of this school in August, 1834, about eight years after his aunt, Alethia Tanner, had purchased his freedom. He learned the shoemaker's trade in his boyhood, and worked diligently, after the purchase of his freedom, to make some return to his aunt for the purchase money. About the time of his becoming of age he dislocated his shoulder, which compelled him to seek other employment, and in 1831, the year of his majority, he obtained the place of assistant messenger in the Land Office. Hon. John Wilson, now Third Auditor of the Treasury, was the messenger, and was Cook's firm friend till the day of his death. Cook had been a short time at school under the instruction of Smothers and Prout, but when he entered the Land Office his education was at most only the ability to stumble along a little in a primary reading book. He, however, now gave himself in all his leisure moments, early and late, to study. Mr. Wilson remembers his indefatigable application, and affirms that it was a matter of astonishment at the time, and that he has seen nothing in all his observation to surpass and scarcely to equal it. He was soon able to write a good hand, and was employed with his pen in clerical work by the sanction of the Commissioner, Elisha Hayward, who was much attached to him. Cook was now beginning to look forward to the life of a teacher, which, with the ministry, was the only work not menial in its nature then open to an educated colored man. At the end of three years he resigned his place in the Land Office, and entered upon the work which he laid down only with his life. It was then that he gave himself wholly to study and the business of education, working with all his

might; his school numbering quite a hundred scholars in the winter and a hundred and fifty in the summer. He had been in his work one year when the storm which had been, for some years, under the discussion of the slavery question, gathering over the country at large, burst upon this District.

THE SNOW RIOT,

or "Snow storm," as it has been commonly called, which occurred in September, 1835, is an event that stands vividly in the memory of all colored people who lived in this community at that time. Benjamin Snow, a smart colored man, keeping a restaurant on the corner of Pennsylvania avenue and Sixth street, was reported to have made some remark of a bravado kind derogatory to the wives of white mechanics; whereupon this class, or those assuming to represent them, made a descent upon his establishment, destroying all his effects. Snow himself, who denied using the offensive language, with difficulty escaped unharmed, through the management of white friends, taking refuge in Canada, where he still resides. The military was promptly called to the rescue, at the head of which was General Walter Jones, the eminent lawyer, who characterized the rioters, greatly to their indignation, as "a set of ragamuffins," and his action was thoroughly sanctioned by the city authorities.

At the same time also there was a fierce excitement among the mechanics at the Navy Yard, growing out of the fact that a large quantity of copper bolts being missed from the yard and found to have been carried out in the dinner pails by the hands, the commandant had forbid eating dinners in the yard. This order was interpreted as an insult to the white mechanics, and threats were made of an assault on the yard, which was put in a thorough state of defence by the commandant. The rioters swept through the city, ransacking the houses of the prominent colored men and women, ostensibly in search of anti-slavery papers and documents, the most of the gang impelled undoubtedly by hostility to the negro race and motives of plunder. Nearly all the colored school-houses were partially demolished and the furniture totally destroyed, and in several cases they were completely ruined. Some private houses were also torn down or burnt. The colored schools were nearly all broken up, and it was with the greatest difficulty that the colored churches were saved from destruction, as their Sabbath schools were regarded, and correctly regarded, as the means through which the colored people, at that time, procured much of their education.

The rioters sought, especially, for John F. Cook, who, however, had seasonably taken from the stable the horse of his friend Mr. Hayward, the Commissioner of the Land Office, an anti-slavery man, and fled precipitately from the city. They marched to his school-house, destroyed all the books and furniture and partially destroyed the building. Mrs. Smothers, who owned both the school-house and the dwelling adjoining and the lots, was sick in her house at the time, but an alderman, Mr. Edward Dyer, with great courage and nobleness of spirit, stood between the house and the mob for her protection, declaring that he would defend her house from molestation with all the means he could command. They left the house unharmed, and it is still standing on the premises. Mr. Cook went to Columbia, Pennsylvania, opened a school there, and did not venture back to his home till the autumn of 1836. At the time the riot broke out, General Jackson was absent in Virginia. He returned in the midst of the tumult, and immediately issuing orders in his bold, uncompromising manner to the authorities to see the laws respected at all events, the violence was promptly subdued. It was nevertheless a very dark time for the colored people. The timid class did not for a year or two dare to send their children to school, and the whole mass of the colored people dwelt in fear day and night. In August, 1836, Mr. Cook returned from Pennsylvania and reopened his school, which under him had, in 1834, received the name of

UNION SEMINARY.

During his year's absence he was in charge of a free colored public school in Columbia, Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, which he surrendered to the care of Benjamin M. McCoy when he came back to his home, Mr. McCoy going there to fill out his engagement.

He resumed his work with broad and elevated ideas of his business. This is clearly seen

in the plan of his institution, embraced in the printed annual announcements and programmes of his annual exhibitions, copies of which have been preserved. The course of study embraced three years, and there was a male and a female department, Miss Catharine Costin at one period being in charge of the female department. Mr. Seaton, of the National Intelligencer, among other leading and enlightened citizens and public men, used to visit his school from year to year and watch its admirable working with deep and lively interest. Cook was at this period not only watching over his very large school, ranging from 100 to 150 or more pupils, but was active in the formation of the "First Colored Presbyterian church of Washington," which was organized in November, 1841, by Rev. John C. Smith, D. D., and worshipped in this school-house. He was now also giving deep study to the preparation for the ministry, upon which in fact, as a licentiate of the African Methodist Episcopal church, he had already in some degree entered. At a regular meeting of "The Presbytery of the District of Columbia," held in Alexandria, May 3, 1842, this church, now commonly called the Fifteenth Street Presbyterian church, was formally received under the care of that Presbytery, the first and still the only colored Presbyterian church in this District. Mr. Cook was elected the first pastor July 13, 1843, and preached his trial sermon before ordination on the evening of that day, in the Fourth Presbyterian church (Dr. J. C. Smith's) in this city, in the presence of a large congregation. This sermon is remembered as a manly production, delivered with great dignity and force and deeply imbued with the spirit of his work. He was ordained in the Fifteenth-street church the next evening, and continued to serve the church with eminent success till his death in 1855. Rev. John C. Smith, D. D., who had preached his ordination sermon and been the devoted friend and counsellor for nearly twenty years, preached his funeral sermon, selecting as his text, "There was a man sent from God whose name was John." There were present white as well as colored clergymen of no less than five denominations, many of the oldest and most respectable citizens, and a vast concourse of all classes, white and colored. "The Fifteenth-street church," in the words of Dr. Smith in relation to them and their first pastor, "is now a large and flourishing congregation of spiritually-minded people. They have been educated in the truth and the principles of our holy religion, and in the new present state of things the men of this church are trusted, relied on as those who fear God and keep his commendments. The church is the monument to John F. Cook, the first pastor, who was faithful in all his house, a workman who labored night and day for years, and has entered into his reward. 'Blessed are the dead who die in the Lord.' 'They rest from their labors and their works do follow them.'"

In 1841, when he entered, in a preliminary and informal way, upon the pastorate of the Fifteenth-street church, he seems to have attempted to turn his seminary into a high school, limited to 25 or 30 pupils, exclusively for the more advanced scholars of both sexes, and his plan of studies to that end, as seen in his prospectus, evinces broad and elevated views—a desire to aid in lifting his race to higher things in education than they had yet attempted. His plans were not put into execution, in the matter of a high school, being frustrated by the circumstance that there were so few good schools in the city for the colored people, at that period, that his old patrons would not allow him to shut off the multitude of primary scholars which were depending upon his school. His seminary, however, continued to maintain its high standard, and had an average attendance of quite 100 year after year till he surrendered up his work in death.

He raised up a large family and educated them well. The oldest of the sons, John and George, were educated at Oberlin College. The other three being young, were in school when the father died. John and George, it will be seen, succeeded their father as teachers, continuing in the business down to the present year. Of the two daughters the elder was a teacher till married in 1866, and the other is now a teacher in the public schools of this city. One son served through the war as sergeant of the 40th colored regiment, and another served in the navy.

At the death of the father, March 21, 1855, the school fell into the hands of the son, John F. Cook, who continued it till May, 1857, when it passed to a younger son, George F. T. Cook, who moved it from its old home, the Smothers House, to the basement of the Presbyterian church in the spring of 1858, and maintained it till July, 1859. John F. Cook, jr., who

had erected a new school-house on Sixteenth street, in 1862, again gathered the school which the tempests of the war had dispersed, and continued it till June, 1867, when the new order of things had opened ample school facilities throughout the city, and the teacher was called to other duties. Thus ended the school which had been first gathered by Smothers nearly 45 years before, and which, in that long period, had been continually maintained with seldom less than 100 pupils, and for the most part with 150, the only suspensions being in the year of the Snow riot and in the two years which ushered in the war.

The Smothers House, after the Cook school was removed, in 1858, was occupied for two years by a *free Catholic school*, supported by "The St. Vincent de Paul Society," a benevolent organization of colored people. It was a very large school with two departments, the boys under David Brown and the girls under Eliza Anne Cook, and averaging over 150 scholars. When this school was transferred to another house, Rev. Chauncey Leonard, a colored Baptist clergyman, now pastor of a church in Washington, and Nannie Waugh opened a school there, in 1861, that became as large as that which had preceded it in the same place. This school was broken up in 1862 by the destruction of the building at the hands of the incendiaries, who, even at that time, were inspired with all their accustomed vindictiveness towards the colored people. But this was their last heathenish jubilee, and from the ashes of many burnings imperishable liberty has sprung forth.

About the time that Smothers built his school-house, in 1823,

LOUISA PARKE COSTIN'S SCHOOL

was established in her father's house on Capitol Hill, on A street south, under the shadow of the Capitol. This Costin family came from Mount Vernon immediately after the death of Martha Washington, in 1802. The father, William Costin, who died suddenly in his bed, May 31, 1842, was twenty-four years messenger for the Bank of Washington, in this city. His death was noticed at length in the columns of the National Intelligencer in more than one communication at the time. The obituary notice, written under the suggestions of the bank officers, who had previously passed a resolution expressing their respect for his memory, and appropriating fifty dollars towards the funeral expenses, says: "It is due to the deceased to say that his colored skin covered a benevolent heart," concluding with this language: "The deceased raised respectably a large family of children of his own, and in the exercise of the purest benevolence took into his family and supported four orphan children. The tears of the orphan will moisten his grave, and his memory will be dear to all those—a numerous class—who have experienced his kindness;" and adding these lines:

"Honor and shame from *no condition* rise;
Act well your part—there all the honor lies."

John Quincy Adams also, a few days afterwards, in a discussion on the wrongs of slavery, alluded to the deceased in these words: "The late William Costin, though he was not white, was as much respected as any man in the District, and the large concourse of citizens that attended his remains to the grave, as well white as black, was an evidence of the manner in which he was estimated by the citizens of Washington." His portrait, taken by the direction of the bank authorities, still hangs in the directors' room, and it may also be seen in the houses of more than one of the old and prominent residents of the city.

William Costin's mother, Ann Dandridge, was the daughter of a half-breed, (Indian and and colored,) her grandfather being a Cherokee chief, and her reputed father was the father of Martha Dandridge, afterwards Mrs. Custis, who, in 1759, was married to General Washington. These daughters, Ann and Martha, grew up together, on the ancestral plantations. William Costin's reputed father was white, and belonged to a prominent family in Virginia, but the mother, after his birth, married one of the Mount Vernon slaves by the name of Costin, and the son took the name of William Costin. His mother being of Indian descent, made him, under the laws of Virginia, a free born man. In 1800 he married Philadelphia Judge, (his cousin,) one of Martha Washington's slaves, at Mount Vernon, where both were born in 1780. The wife was given by Martha Washington at her decease to her granddaughter, Eliza Parke Custis, who was the wife of Thomas Law, of Washington. Soon

after William Costin and his wife came to this city the wife's freedom was secured on kind and easy terms, and the children were all born free. This is the account which William Costin and his wife and his mother, Ann Dandridge, always gave of their ancestry, and they were persons of great precision in all matters of family history, as well as of the most marked scrupulousness in their statements. Their seven children, five daughters and two sons, went to school with the white children on Capitol Hill, to Mrs. Maria Haley and other teachers. The two younger daughters, Martha and Frances, finished their education at the Colored Convent in Baltimore. Louisa Parke and Ann had passed their school days before the convent was founded. Louisa Parke Costin opened her school at nineteen years of age, continuing it with much success till her sudden death in 1831, the year in which her mother also died. When Martha returned from the Convent Seminary, a year or so later, she reopened the school, continuing it till about 1839. This school, which was maintained some 15 years, was always very full. The three surviving sisters own and reside in the house which their father built about 1812. One of these sisters married Richard Henry Fisk, a colored man of good education, who died in California, and she now has charge of the Senate ladies' reception room. Ann Costin was for several years in the family of Major Lewis, (at Woodlawn, Mount Vernon,) the nephew of Washington. Mrs. Lewis (Eleanor Custis) was the granddaughter of Martha Washington. This school was not molested by the mob of 1835, and it was always under the care of a well-bred and well-educated teacher.

THE WESLEYAN SEMINARY.

While Martha Costin was teaching, James Enoch Ambush, a colored man, had also a large school in the basement of the Israel Bethel church on Capitol Hill for a while, commencing there in April, 1833, and continuing in various places till 1843, when he built a school-house on E street south, near Tenth, island, and established what was known as "The Wesleyan Seminary," and which was successfully maintained for 32 years, till the close of August, 1865. The school-house still stands, a comfortable one-story wooden structure, with the sign "Wesleyan Seminary" over the door, as it has been there for 25 years. This was the only colored school on the island of any account for many years, and in its humble way it accomplished a great amount of good. For some years Mr. Ambush had given much study to botanic medicine, and since closing his school he has become a botanic physician. He is a man of fine sense, and without school advantages has acquired a respectable education.

FIRST SEMINARY FOR COLORED GIRLS.

The first seminary in the District of Columbia for colored girls was established in Georgetown, in 1827, under the special auspices of Father Vanlomen, a benevolent and devout Catholic priest, then pastor of the Holy Trinity Church, who not only gave this interesting enterprise his hand and his heart, but for several years himself taught a school of colored boys three days in a week, near the Georgetown College gate, in a small frame house, which was afterwards famous as the residence of the broken-hearted widow of Commodore Decatur. This female seminary was under the care of Maria Becraft, who was the most remarkable colored young woman of her time in the District, and, perhaps, of any time. Her father, William Becraft, born while his mother, a free woman, was the housekeeper of Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, always had the kindest attentions of this great man, and there are now pictures, more than a century and a half old, and other valuable relics from the Carroll family now in the possession of the Becraft family, in Georgetown, which Charles Carroll of Carrollton, in his last days, presented to William Becraft as family keepsakes. William Becraft lived in Georgetown 64 years, coming there when eighteen years of age. He was for many years chief steward of Union hotel, and a remarkable man, respected and honored by everybody. When he died, the press of the District noticed, in a most prominent manner, his life and character. From one of the extended obituary notices, marked with heavy black lines, the following paragraph is copied:

"He was among the last surviving representatives of the old school of well-bred, confidential, and intelligent domestics, and was widely known at home and abroad from his connection in the company of stewards for a long series of years, and probably from its origin,

and until a recent date, with the Union hotel, Georgetown, with whose guests, for successive generations, his benevolent and venerable aspect, dignified and obliging manners, and moral excellence rendered him a general favorite."

Maria Becraft was marked from her childhood for her uncommon intelligence and refinement, and for her extraordinary piety. She was born in 1805, and first went to school for a year to Henry Potter, in Washington, about 1812, afterwards attending Mrs. Billings's school constantly till 1820. She then, at the age of 15, opened a school for girls in Dunbarton street, in Georgetown, and gave herself to the work, which she loved, with the greatest assiduity and with uniform success. In 1827, when she was twenty-two years of age, her remarkable beauty and elevation of character so much impressed Father Vanlomen, the good priest, that he took it in hand to give her a higher style of school in which to work for her sex and race, to the education of which she had now fully consecrated herself. Her school was accordingly transferred to a larger building, which still stands on Fayette street, opposite the convent, and there she opened a boarding and day school for colored girls, which she continued with great success till August, 1831, when she surrendered her little seminary into the care of one of the girls that she had trained, and in October of that year joined the convent at Baltimore as a Sister of Providence, where she was the leading teacher till she died, in December, 1833, a great loss to that young institution, which was contemplating this noble young woman as its future Mother Superior. Her seminary in Georgetown averaged from 30 to 35 pupils, and there are those living who remember the troop of girls, dressed uniformly, which was wont to follow in procession their pious and refined teacher to devotions on the sabbath at Holy Trinity Church. The school comprised girls from the best colored families of Georgetown, Washington, Alexandria, and surrounding country. The sisters of the Georgetown convent were the admirers of Miss Becraft, gave her instruction, and extended to her the most heartfelt aid and approbation in all her noble work, as they were in those days wont to do in behalf of the aspiring colored girls, who sought for education, withholding themselves from such work only when a depraved and degenerate public sentiment upon the subject of educating the colored people had compelled them to a more rigid line of demarcation between the races. Ellen Simonds and others conducted the school a few years, but with the loss of its original teacher it began to fail, and finally became extinct. Maria Becraft is remembered, wherever she was known, as a woman of the rarest sweetness and exaltation of Christian life, graceful and attractive in person and manners, gifted, well educated, and wholly devoted to doing good. Her name as a Sister of Providence was Sister Aloyons. From the origin of this convent at Baltimore there has been connected with it a female seminary, which last year was incorporated as

ST. FRANCES ACADEMY FOR COLORED GIRLS.

In this connection it is not inappropriate to give some account of this school, which has done so valuable a work for the education of the colored people of this District and the country at large. For many years it was the only colored school within the reach of the colored people of this District, in which anything was attempted beyond the rough primary training of the promiscuous school, and there are women who still live in this District and elsewhere, whose well-bred families owe their refinements largely to the culture which the mothers a quarter of a century ago, or more, received in this female seminary. It was there that many of the first well-trained colored teachers were educated for the work in this capital.

St. Frances Academy for colored girls was founded in connection with the Oblate Sisters of Providence Convent, in Baltimore, June 5, 1829, under the hearty approbation of the Most Rev. James Whitfield, D. D., the Archbishop of Baltimore at that time, and receiving the sanction of the Holy See, October 2, 1831. The convent originated with the French Fathers, who came to Baltimore from San Domingo as refugees, in the time of the revolution in that island in the latter years of last century. There were many colored Catholic refugees who came to Baltimore during that period, and the French Fathers soon opened schools there for the benefit of the refugees and other colored people. The colored women who formed the original society which founded the convent and seminary, were from San Domingo, though they had some of them, certainly, been educated in France. The schools which preceded the organiza-

tion of the convent were greatly favored by Most Rev. Ambrose Marechal, D. D., who was a French Father, and Archbishop of Baltimore from 1817 to 1828, Archbishop Whitfield being his successor. The Sisters of Providence is the name of a religious society of colored women who renounce the world to consecrate themselves to the Christian education of colored girls. The following extract from the announcement which, under the caption of "Prospectus of a School for Colored Girls under the direction of the Sisters of Providence," appeared in the columns of the daily National Intelligencer, October 25, 1831, shows the spirit in which the school originated, and at the same time shadows forth the predominating ideas pertaining to the province of the race at that period. The prospectus says:

"The object of this institute is one of great importance, greater, indeed, than might at first appear to those who would only glance at the advantages which it is calculated to directly impart to the leading portion of the human race and through it to society at large. In fact, these girls will either become mothers of families or household servants. In the first case the solid virtues, the religious and moral principles which they may have acquired in this school, will be carefully transferred as a legacy to their children. Instances of the happy influence which the example of virtuous parents has on the remotest lineage in this humble and naturally dutiful class of society are numerous. As to such as are to be employed as servants, they will be intrusted with domestic concerns and the care of young children. How important then it will be that these girls shall have imbibed religious principles and have been trained up in habits of modesty, honesty, and integrity."

It is impossible to conceive of language fuller of profound and mournful import than are these humble, timid words of this little band of colored women, who thus made known the exalted scheme to which they had given themselves. Why this tone of *apology* for embarking in as noble a service as ever entered into the plans of a company of women upon the face of the earth, the attempt to lift the veil of moral and intellectual darkness which they saw everywhere resting like death upon their sex and race?

The sisters purchased a three-story brick building on Richmond street, in which they started their work, but have since, in the admirable success of their enterprise, built large and ample structures, and their school was never in more efficient operation than at the present time. From the first it has been through all its years, almost forty in number, a well-appointed female seminary, amply supplied with cultivated and capable teachers, who have given good training in all the branches of a refined and useful education, including all that is usually taught in well regulated female seminaries. The number of Sisters connected with the convent and seminary has for very many years ranged from 30 to 35. The academy has always been well patronized, comprising girls from every part of the south as well before as since the war. The number the past year was some 170, of which about 45 were boarders, a large number being from Washington and Georgetown. Attached to the convent, also, is a free school for girls and an orphan asylum, and till last year they had for many years maintained also a school for boys. In 1862 some of these Sisters established a female seminary in Philadelphia, which has been very successful. There is also a colored female school in Washington under the care and instruction of teachers formerly attached to this sisterhood. For nearly a quarter of a century this seminary at Baltimore was the school in which the most of the colored girls of this District, who were so fortunate as to receive any of the refinements of school culture, resorted for their training from the founding of the convent down to 1852, when

MISS MYRTILLA MINER'S SEMINARY

for colored girls was initiated in Washington. This philanthropic woman was born in Brookfield, Madison county, New York, in 1815. Her parents were farmers, with small resources for the support of a large family. The children were obliged to work, and the small advantages of a common school were all the educational privileges furnished to them. Hop-raising was a feature in their farming, and this daughter was accustomed to work in the autumn, picking the hops. She was of a delicate physical organization, and suffered exceedingly all her life with spinal troubles. Being a girl of extraordinary intellectual activity, her place at home chafed her spirit. She was restless, dissatisfied with her lot, looked higher than her father, dissented from his ideas of woman's education, and, in her

desperation, when about 23 years old, wrote to Mr. Seward, then recently elected governor of her State, asking him if he could show her how it was possible for a woman in her circumstances to become a scholar; receiving from him the reply that he could not, but hoped a better day was coming, wherein woman might have a chance to be and to do to the extent of her abilities. Hearing at this time of a school at Clinton, Oneida county, New York, for young women, on the manual-labor system, she decided to go there; but her health being such as to make manual labor impossible at the time, she wrote to the principal of the Clover-street Seminary, Rochester, New York, who generously received her, taking her notes for the school bills, to be paid after completing her education. Grateful for this noble act, she afterwards sent her younger sister there to be educated, for her own associate as a teacher; and the death of this talented sister, when about to graduate and come as her assistant in Washington, fell upon her with crushing force. In the Rochester school, with Myrtilla Miner, were two free colored girls, and this association was the first circumstance to turn her thoughts to the work to which she gave her life. From Rochester she went to Mississippi, as a teacher of planters' daughters, and it was what she was compelled to see, in this situation, of the dreadful practices and conditions of slavery, that filled her soul with a pity for the colored race and a detestation of the system that bound them, which held possession of her to the last day of her life. She remained there several years, till her indignant utterances, which she would not withhold, compelled her employer, fearful of the results, to part reluctantly with a teacher whom he valued. She came home broken down with sickness, caused by the harassing sights and sounds that she had witnessed in plantation life, and while in this condition she made a solemn vow that whatever of life remained to her should be given to the work of ameliorating the condition of the colored people. Here her great work begins. She made up her mind to do something for the education of free colored girls, with the idea that through the influence of educated colored women she could lay the solid foundations for the disenthralment of their race. She selected this District for the field of her efforts, because it was the common property of the nation, and because the laws of the District gave her the right to educate *free* colored children, and she attempted to teach none others. She opened her plan to many of the leading friends of freedom, in an extensive correspondence, but found especially, at this time, a wise and warm encourager and counsellor in her scheme in William R. Smith, a Friend, of Farmington, near Rochester, New York, in whose family she was now a private teacher. Her correspondents generally gave her but little encouragement, but wished her God speed in what she should dare in the good cause. One Friend wrote her from Philadelphia, entering warmly into her scheme, but advised her to wait till funds could be collected. "I do not want the wealth of Crœsus," was her reply; and the Friend sent her $100, and with this capital, in the autumn of 1851, she came to Washington to establish a Normal school for the education of colored girls, having associated with her Miss Anna Inman, an accomplished and benevolent lady of the Society of Friends, from Southfield, Rhode Island, who, however, after teaching a class of colored girls in French, in the house of Jonathan Jones, on the Island, through the winter, returned to New England. In the autumn of 1851 Miss Miner commenced her remarkable work here in a small room, about fourteen feet square, in the frame house then, as now, owned and occupied by Edward C. Younger, a colored man, as his dwelling, on Eleventh street, near New York avenue. With but two or three girls to open the school, she soon had a room-full, and to secure larger accommodation moved, after a couple of months, to a house on F street north, between Eighteenth and Nineteenth streets west, near the houses then occupied by William T. Carroll and Charles H. Winder. This house furnished her a very comfortable room for her school, which was composed of well-behaved girls, from the best colored families of the District. The persecution of those neighbors, however, compelled her to leave, as the colored family, who occupied the house, was threatened with conflagration, and after one month her little school found a more unmolested home in the dwelling-house of a German family on K street, near the Western market. After tarrying a few months here, she moved to L street, into a room in the building known as "The Two Sisters," then occupied by a white family. She now saw that the success of her school demanded a school-house, and in reconnoitering the ground she found a spot suiting her

ideas as to size and locality, with a house on it, and in the market at a low price. She raised the money, secured the spot, and thither, in the summer of 1851, she moved her school, where for seven years she was destined to prosecute, with the most unparalleled energy and conspicuous success, her remarkable enterprise. This lot, comprising an entire square of three acres, between Nineteenth and Twentieth streets west, N and O streets north, and New Hampshire avenue, selected under the guidance of Miss Miner, the contract being perfected through the agency of Sayles J. Bowen, Thomas Williamson, and Allen M. Gangewer, was originally conveyed in trust to Thomas Williamson and Samuel Rhoades, of the Society of Friends, in Philadelphia. It was purchased of the executors of the will of John Taylor, for $4,000, the deed being executed June 8, 1853, the estimated value of the property now being not less than $30,000. The money was mainly contributed by Friends, in Philadelphia, New York, and New England. Catharine Morris, a Friend, of Philadelphia, was a liberal benefactor of the enterprise, advancing Miss Miner $2,000, with which to complete the purchase of the lot, the most, if not all which sum, it is believed, she ultimately gave to the institution; and Harriet Beecher Stowe was another generous friend, who gave her money and her heart to the support of the brave woman who had been willing to go forth alone at the call of duty. Mr. Rhoades, some years editor of the Friends' Quarterly Review, died several years ago, near Philadelphia. Mr. Williamson, a conveyancer in that city, and father of Passmore Williamson, is still living, but some years ago declined the place of trustee. The board, at the date of the act of incorporation, consisted of Benjamin Tatham, a Friend, of New York city, Mrs. Nancy M. Johnson, of Washington, and Myrtilla Miner, and the transfer of the property to the incorporated body was made a few weeks prior to Miss Miner's death. This real estate, together with a fund of $4,000 in government stocks, is now in the hands of a corporate body, under act of Congress approved March 3, 1863, and is styled "The Institution for the Education of Colored Youth in the District of Columbia." The officers of the corporation at this time are John C. Underwood, president; Francis G. Shaw, treasurer; George E. Baker, secretary; who, with Nancy M. Johnson, S. J. Bowen, Henry Addison, and Rachel Howland, constitute the executive committee. The purpose of the purchase of this property is declared, in a paper signed by Mr. Williamson and Mr. Rhoades, dated Philadelphia, June 8, 1858, to have been "*especially for the education of colored girls.*"

This paper also declares that "the grounds were purchased at the special instance of Myrtilla Miner," and that "the contributions by which the original price of said lot, and also the cost of the subsequent improvements thereof, were procured chiefly by her instrumentality and labors." The idea of Miss Miner in planting a school here was to train up a class of colored girls, in the midst of slave institutions, who should show forth, in their culture and capabilities, to the country and to mankind, that the race was fit for something higher than the degradation which rested upon them. The amazing energy with which this frail woman prosecuted her work is well known to those who took knowledge of her career. She visited the colored people of her district from house to house, and breathed a new life into them pertaining to the education of their daughters. Her correspondence with the philanthropic men and women of the north was immense. She importuned congressmen, and the men who shaped public sentiment through the columns of the press, to come into her school and see her girls, and was ceaseless in her activities day and night, in every direction, to build up in dignity and refinement her seminary, and to force its merits upon public attention.

The buildings upon the lot when purchased—a small frame dwelling of two stories, not more than twenty-five by thirty-five feet in dimensions, with three small cabins on the other side of the premises—served for the seminary and the home of the teacher and her assistant. The most aspiring and decently bred colored girls of the District were gathered into the school; and the very best colored teachers in the schools of the District, at the present time, are among those who owe their education to this self-sacrificing teacher and her school. Mrs. Means, aunt of the wife of General Pierce, then President of the United States, attracted by the enthusiasm of this wonderful person, often visited her in the midst of her work with the kindest feelings, and the fact that the carriage from the Presidential mansion

was in this way frequently seen at the door of this humble institution did much to protect it from the hatred with which it was surrounded.

Mr. Seward and his family were very often seen at the school, both Mrs. Seward and her daughter, Fanny, being constant visitors; the latter, a young girl at the time, often spending a whole day there. Many other congressmen of large and generous instincts, some of them of pro-slavery party relations, went out there—all confessing their admiration of the resolute woman and her school, and this kept evil men in abeyance.

The opposition to the school throughout the District was strong and very general among the old as well as the young. Even Walter Lenox, who as mayor, when the school was first started, gave the teacher assurances of favor in her work, came out in 1857, following the prevailing current of depraved public sentiment and feeding its tide, in an elaborate article in the National Intelligencer, under his own signature, assailed the school in open and direct language, urging against it that it was raising the standard of education among the colored population, and distinctly declaring that the white population of the District would not be just to themselves to permit the continuance of an institution which had the temerity to extend to the colored people "a degree of instruction so far beyond their social and political condition, which condition must continue," the article goes on to say, "in this and every other slave-holding community" This article, though fraught with extreme ideas and to the last degree proscriptive and inflammatory, neither stirred any open violence nor deterred the courageous woman in the slightest degree from her work. When madmen went to her school-room threatening her with personal violence, she laughed them to shame; and when they threatened to burn her house, she told them that they could not stop her in that way, as another house, better than the old, would immediately rise from its ashes. The house was set on fire in the spring of 1860, when Miss Miner was asleep in the second story alone, in the night time, but the smell of the smoke awakened her in time to save the building and herself from the flames, which were extinguished. The school girls, also, were constantly at the mercy of coarse and insulting boys along the streets, who would often gather in gangs before the gate to pursue and terrify these inoffensive children, who were striving to gather wisdom and understanding in their little sanctuary. The police took no cognizance of such brutality in those days. But their dauntless teacher, uncompromising, conscientious, and self-possessed in her aggressive work, in no manner turned from her course by this persecution, was, on the other hand, stimulated thereby to higher vigilance and energy in her great undertaking. The course of instruction in the school was indeed of a higher order than had hitherto been opened to the colored people of the District, as was denounced against the school by Walter Lenox in his newspaper attack. Lectures upon scientific and literary subjects were given by professional and literary gentlemen, who were friends to the cause. The spacious grounds afforded to each pupil an ample space for a flower bed, which she was enjoined to cultivate with her own hands and to thoroughly study. And an excellent library, a collection of paintings and engravings, the leading magazines and choice newspapers, were gathered and secured for the humble home of learning, which was all the while filled with students, the most of whom were bright, ambitious girls, composing a female colored school, which, in dignity and usefulness, has had no equal in the District since that day. It was her custom to gather in her vacations and journeys not only money, but everything else that would be of use in her school, and in this way she not only collected books, but maps, globes, philosophical and chemical and mathematical apparatus, and a great variety of things to aid in her instruction in illustrating all branches of knowledge. This collection was stored in the school building during the war, and was damaged by neglect, plundered by soldiers, and what remains is not of much value. The elegant sofa-bedstead which she used during all her years in the seminary, and which would be an interesting possession for the seminary, was sold, with her other personal effects, to Dr. Carrie Brown, (Mrs. Winslow,) of Washington, one of her bosom friends, who stood at her pillow when she died.

Her plan embraced the erection of spacious structures, upon the site which had been most admirably chosen, complete in all their appointments for the full accommodation of a school of one hundred and fifty boarding scholars. The seminary was to be a Female College,

endowed with all the powers and professorships belonging to a first-class college for the other sex. She did not contemplate its springing up into such proportions, like a mushroom, in a single night, but it was her ambition that the institution should one day attain that rank. In the midst of her anxious, incessant labors her physical system began so sensibly to fail, that in the summer of 1858, under the counsel of the friends of herself and her cause, she went north to seek health, and, as usual in all her journeys, to beg for her seminary, leaving her girls in the care of Emily Howland, a noble young woman, who came down here for the love of the cause, without money and without price, from the vicinity of Auburn, New York. In the autumn Miss Miner returned to her school; Miss Howland still continuing with her through the winter, a companion in her trials, aiding her in her duties, and consenting to take charge of the school again in the summer of 1859, while Miss Miner was on another journey for funds and health. In the autumn of that year, after returning from her journey, which was not very successful, she determined to suspend the school, and to go forth to the country with a most persistent appeal for money to erect a seminary building, as she had found it impossible to get a house of any character started with the means already in her hands. She could get no woman, whom she deemed fit to take her work, willing to continue her school, and in the spring of 1860, leasing the premises, she went north on her errand. In the ensuing year she traversed many States, but the shadow of the rebellion was on her path, and she gathered neither much money nor much strength. The war came, and in October, 1862, hoping, not vainly, for health from a sea voyage and from the Pacific climate, she sailed from New York to California. When about to return, in 1866, with vivacity of body and spirit, she was thrown from a carriage in a fearful manner; blighting all the high hopes of resuming her school under the glowing auspices she had anticipated, as she saw the rebellion and the hated system tumbling to pieces. She arrived in New York in August of that year in a most shattered condition of body, though with the fullest confidence that she should speedily be well and at her work in Washington. In the first days of December she came here in a dying condition, still resolute to resume her work; was carried to the residence of her tried friend, Mrs. Nancy M. Johnson, and on the tenth of that month, surrounded by the friends who had stood with her in other days, she put off her wasted and wearied body in the city which had witnessed her trials and her triumphs, and her remains slumber in Oak Hill cemetery.

Her seminary engaged her thoughts to the last day of her life. She said in her last hours that she had come back here to resume her work, and could not leave it thus unfinished. No marble marks the resting place of this truly wonderful woman, but her memory is certainly held precious in the hearts of her throngs of pupils, in the hearts of the colored people of this District, and of all who took knowledge of her life and who reverence the cause in which she offered herself a willing sacrifice. Her assistants in the school were Helen Moore of Washington, Margaret Clapp and Amanda Weaver of New York State, Anna H. Searing of New York State, and two of her pupils, Matilda Jones of Washington, and Emma Brown of Georgetown, both of whom, subsequently, through the influence of Miss Miner and Miss Howland, finished their education at Oberlin, and have since been most superior teachers in Washington. Most of the assistant teachers from the north were from families connected with the Society of Friends, and it has been seen that the bulk of the money came from that society. This sketch would be incomplete without a special tribute to Lydia B. Mann, sister of Horace Mann, who came here in the fall of 1856, from the Colored Female Orphan Asylum of Providence, R. I., of which she was then, as she continues to be, the admirable superintendent, and, as a pure labor of love, took care of the school in the most superior manner through the autumn and winter, while Miss Miner was north recruiting her strength and pleading for contributions. It was no holiday duty to go into that school, live in that building, and work alone with head and hands, as was done by all these refined and educated women, who stood from time to time in that humble persecuted seminary. Miss Mann is gratefully remembered by her pupils here and their friends.

Mention should also be made of Emily Howland, who stood by Miss Miner in her darkest days, and whose whole heart was with her in all her work. She is a woman of the largest and most self-sacrificing purposes, who has been and still is giving her best years, all

her powers, talents, learning, refinement, wealth, and personal toil, to the education and elevation of the colored race. While here she adopted, and subsequently educated in the best manner, one of Miss Miner's pupils, and assisted several others of her smart girls in completing their education at Oberlin. During the war she was teaching contrabands in the hospital and the camp, and is now engaged in planting a colony of colored people in Virginia with homes and a school-house of their own.

A seminary, such as was embraced in the plan of Miss Miner, is exceedingly demanded by the interests of colored female education in this District and the country at large, and any scheme by which the foundations that she laid so well may become the seat of such a school, would be heartily approved by all enlightened friends of the colored race. The trustees of the Miner property, not insensible of their responsibilities, have been carefully watching for the moment when action on their part would seem to be justified. They have repeatedly met in regard to the matter, but, in their counsels, hitherto, have deemed it wise to wait further developments. They are now about to hold another meeting, it is understood, and it is to be devoutly hoped that some plan will be adopted by which a school of a high order may be, in due time, opened for colored girls in this District, who exceedingly need the refining, womanly training of such a school.*

The original corporators of Miss Miner's Institution were Henry Addison, John C. Underwood, George C. Abbott, William H. Channing, Nancy M. Johnson, and Myrtilla Miner. The objects as expressed in the charter "are to educate and improve the moral and intellectual condition of such of the colored youth of the nation as may be placed under its care and influence."

ARABELLA JONES'S SCHOOL.

About the time that Miss Miner commenced in the northern section of Washington, Miss Arabella Jones, a colored girl, who had just returned from the St. Frances' Academy at Baltimore, opened a female school on the island, called St. Agnes' Academy. She had been educated with the greatest care at home by her father, and had, besides, the benefit of her mother's instruction, a woman of extraordinary native sense, who was for a brief time a pupil of Mrs. Billing in her early girlhood, and from her youth through many years a favorite servant in the family of John Quincy Adams, commencing when he was Secretary of State. Miss Jones had a good English education, wrote and spoke with ease and propriety the French tongue, was proficient in music and in all the useful and ornamental needlework branches. Her father, though a poor man, had on her return from school purchased her a piano and a well-selected library, including a full set of the British poets in handsome binding, bought in London expressly to his order, among which was a specially handsome edition of Shakspeare, the favorite author of the daughter, who not only relished such works, but showed taste and talent in her own poetic effusions, which occasionally found their way into the public press. She taught with great delight and success, for several years, till better compensation was offered to her for her skill with the needle. She was a girl of decided talents, and had her high aims and education found a more fortunate field for display, she would have done more for her sex than fell to her lot to do. In 1857 she was married, and her subsequent life was clouded. She died in 1868 in the 34th year of her age, and was borne to the tomb with distinguished marks of respect without distinction of class or color. At the time of her death she had been appointed to a government clerkship.

MARY WORMLEY'S SCHOOL.

In 1830 William Wormley built a school-house for his sister Mary near the corner of Vermont avenue and I street, where the restaurant establishment owned and occupied by his brother, James Wormley, now stands. He had educated his sister expressly for a teacher, at great expense, at the Colored Female Seminary in Philadelphia, then in charge of Miss Sarah Douglass, an accomplished colored lady, who is still a teacher of note in the Philadel-

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* Since the above was written, information has been received that Major General O. O. Howard has tendered to the trustees a donation of $30,000 from the building fund of the Freedmen's Bureau, and that they will immediately proceed to erect a first-class building for a female college.

phia Colored High School. William Wormley was at that time a man of wealth. His livery stable, which occupied the place where the Owen House now stands, was one of the largest and best in the city. Miss Wormley had but just brought her school into full and successful operation when her health broke down, and she lived scarcely two years. Mr. Calvert, an English gentleman, still living in the first ward, taught a class of colored scholars in this house for a time, and James Wormley was one of the class. In the autumn of 1834 William Thomas Lee opened a school in the same place, and it was in a flourishing condition in the fall of 1835, when the Snow mob dispersed it, sacking the school-house, and partially destroying it by fire. William Wormley was at that time one of the most enterprising and influential colored men of Washington, and was the original agent of the Liberator newspaper for this District. The mob being determined to lay hold of him and Lee, they fled from the city to save their lives, returning when General Jackson, coming back from Virginia a few days after the outbreak, gave notice that the fugitives should be protected. The persecution of William Wormley was so violent and persistent that his health and spirits sank under its effects, his business was broken up, and he died a poor man, scarcely owning a shelter for his dying couch. The school-house was repaired after the riot and occupied for a time by Margaret Thompson's school, and still stands in the rear of James Wormley's restaurant. During this period, and for some years previous,

MRS. MARY WALL'S SCHOOL

was doing a great service to the colored people. Mrs. Wall, whose husband, Nicholas Wall, died some years before she came to this District, was a member of the Society of Friends, and a most benevolent, gentle, and refined woman. They were Virginians, and were reared in affluence, but reverses at last limited her means, which she had used in her prosperous days with open hand in works of benevolence and charity. In her widowhood she left her native State, and gave much of her subsequent life to the education of the colored children of this District. As early as 1824 she had a school in a house which then stood on Fifteenth street, between the residences now owned by Senator Morgan and Representative Hooper. This school-room was always crowded, and applications, by reason of limited room, were often refused. The school-room accommodated about 40 pupils. She continued her school here quite a number of years, and some of the most intelligent and enterprising colored men of Washington owe the best part of their education to this good woman, James Wormley and John Thomas Johnson being of the number. Her high breeding and culture exerted the most marked influence upon the children of poverty and ignorance whom she thus took by the hand. Many colored people of this District remember her school and her loving kindness, and bless her memory. She belonged to the class of southern people, not small in her time, who believed in the education and improvement of the colored race. William Wall, the distinguished merchant on Pennsylvania avenue, of the firm of Wall, Robinson & Co., is a son of this truly Christian lady.

BENJAMIN McCOY'S, AND OTHER SCHOOLS.

About this time another school was opened in Georgetown, by Nancy Grant, a sister of Mrs. William Becraft, a well-educated colored woman. She was teaching as early as 1828, and had a useful school for several years. Mr. Nuthall, an Englishman, was teaching in Georgetown during this period and as late as 1833 he went to Alexandria and opened a school in that city. William Syphax among others, now resident in Washington, attended his school in Alexandria about 1833. He was a man of ability, well educated, and one of the best teachers of his time in the District. His school in Georgetown was at first in Dunbarton street, and afterward on Montgomery.

The old maxim that "the blood of the martyrs is the seed of the Church," seems to find its illustration in this history. There is no period in the annals of the country in which the fires of persecution against the education of the colored race burned more fiercely in this District and the country at large than in the five years from 1831 to 1836, and it was during this period that a larger number of respectable colored schools were established than in any other five years prior to the war. In 1833, the same year in which Ambush's school was

started, Benjamin M. McCoy, a colored man, opened a school in the northern part of the city, on L street, between Third and Fourth streets west. In 1834 he moved to Massachusetts avenue, continuing his school there till he went to Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, in the autumn of 1836, to finish the engagement of Rev. John F. Cook, who came back to Washington at that time and re-opened his school. The school at Lancaster was a free public colored school, and Mr. McCoy was solicited to continue another year, but declining, came back, and in 1837 opened a school in the basement of Asbury church, which, in that room and in the house adjoining, he maintained with great success for the ensuing 12 years. Mr. McCoy was a pupil of Mrs. Billing and Henry Smothers, is a man of good sense, and his school gave a respectable rudimental education to multitudes, who remember him as a teacher with great respect. He is now a messenger in the Treasury Department. In 1833 a school was established by Fanny Hampton, in the western part of the city, on the northwest corner of K and Nineteenth streets. It was a large school, and was continued till about 1842, the teacher dying soon afterwards. She was half-sister of Lindsay Muse. Margaret Thompson succeeded her, and had a flourishing school of some 40 scholars on Twenty-sixth street, near the avenue, for several years, about 1846. She subsequently became the wife of Charles H. Middleton, and assisted in his school for a brief time. About 1830 Robert Brown commenced a small school, and continued it at intervals for many years till his death. As early as 1833, there was a school opened in a private house in the rear of Franklin row, near the location of the new Franklin school building. It was taught by a white man, Mr Talbot, and continued a year or two. Mrs. George Ford, a white teacher, a native of Virginia, kept a colored school in a brick house still standing on New Jersey Avenue between K and L streets. She taught there many years, and as early perhaps as half a century ago.

THOMAS TABBS'S SCHOOL

was an institution peculiar to itself. Mr. Tabbs belonged to a prominent Maryland family, and was bred in affluence and received a thorough and polished education. He came to Washington before the war of 1812, and resided here till his death, which occurred 10 years ago. He at once commenced teaching the colored people, and persistently continued to do so as long as he lived. He was called insane by some, but there was certainly a method in his madness. When he could find a school-room he would gather a school, but when less fortunate he would go from house to house, stopping where he could find a group of poor colored children to instruct. At one period he had the shadow of a large tree near the Masonic Lodge at the Navy Yard for his school, and it was there that Alexander Hays, afterwards a teacher in Washington, but then a slave, learned his alphabet. Mr. Tabbs must have spent nearly fifty years in this mode of life, and there are many colored people, well advanced in years, who owe their tolerable education to the instruction of this kind-hearted, singular man. At one time he had a school on A street south, between Seventh and Eighth streets east, and at another had a large school, with an assistant, in the Israel Bethel church. He was an upright man, and the colored people of the older class in the eastern section of Washington remember him with respect and gratitude.

DR. JOHN H. FLEET'S SCHOOL

was opened in 1836, on New York avenue, in a school-house which stood nearly on the spot now occupied by the Richards buildings at the corner of New York avenue and Fourteenth street. It had been previously used for a white school, taught by Mrs. McDaniel, and was subsequently again so used. Dr. Fleet was a native of Georgetown, and was greatly assisted in his education by the late Judge James Morsell, of that city, who was not only kind to this family, but was always regarded by the colored people of the District as their firm friend and protector. John H. Fleet, with his brothers and sisters, went to the Georgetown Lancasterian school, with the white children, for a long period, in their earlier school days, and subsequently to other white schools. He was also for a time a pupil of Smothers and Prout. He was possessed of a brilliant and strong intellect, inherited from his father, who was a white man of distinguished abilities. He studied medicine in Washington, in the office of Dr. Thomas

Henderson, who had resigned as assistant surgeon in the army, and was a practising physician of eminence in Washington. He also attended medical lectures at the old Medical College, corner of Tenth and E streets. It was his intention at that time to go to Liberia, and his professional education was conducted under the auspices of the Colonization Society. This, with the influence of Judge Morsell, gave him privileges never extended here to any other colored man. He decided, however, not to go to Liberia, and in 1836 opened his school. He was a refined and polished gentleman, and conceded to be the foremost colored man in culture, in intellectual force, and general influence in this District at that time. His school-house, on New York avenue, was burned by an incendiary about 1843, and his flourishing and excellent school was thus ended. For a time he subsequently taught music, in which he was very proficient; but about 1846 he opened a school on School-house hill, in the Hobbrook Military School building, near the corner of N street north and Twenty-third street west, and had a large school there till about 1851, when he relinquished the business, giving his attention henceforth exclusively to music, and with eminent success. He died in 1861. His school was very large and of a superior character. One of his daughters is now a teacher in one of the public schools. While Dr. Fleet was teaching on School-house hill,

JOHN THOMAS JOHNSON'S SCHOOL,

on Twenty-third street west, near L north, in the same neighborhood, was also in very flourishing operation. Mr. Johnson is a well-known employé at the Capitol at the present time. He was born and educated in this District, and is a man of intelligence and force of character. He was a pupil of Mrs. Wall, of whose character, as an accomplished teacher and woman, he speaks with the deepest respect. He was also a scholar in Smothers's school and in Prout's. In 1838, when the persecution of the colored people of the District was still raging, he left the city, and on his route west, in search of a more tolerant latitude, stopped at Pittsburg, Pa., where, at the suggestion of Rev. John Peck and J. B. Vashon, esq., he offered himself as a candidate for teacher of the First District school of that city. He had two white competitors. The examination before the board of school managers resulted in the declaration that he was the best qualified for the place, and he accordingly took the position, and taught with eminent success for several years, to the astonishment and admiration of all interested in the school. He finally resigned his place for a more lucrative position as a steward on a Mississippi steamer. In 1843 he came back to his native city, and started a school, as stated in the commencement of this notice, with a zeal and boldness equalled by few of the most courageous of the colored men at that time, when their school-houses were at the mercy of the mob. Shielded by no law, he built a school-house and gathered a school, which, commencing with half a dozen, soon became very large—once numbering as high as 200 and more, and averaging from 150 to 170 well-dressed and well-behaved children, many of whom, now men and women grown, are among the best colored people of this District. He continued his school down to 1849, when he relinquished a work in which he had uniformly achieved decided success. As he was about to retire from the field,

CHARLES H. MIDDLETON'S SCHOOL

was started, in the same section of the city, in a school-house which then stood near the corner of Twenty-second street west and I north, and which had been used by Henry Hardy for a white school. Though both Fleet's and Johnson's schools were in full tide of success in that vicinity he gathered a good school, and when his two competitors retired—as they both did about this time—his school absorbed a large portion of their patronage and was thronged. In 1852 he went temporarily with his school to Sixteenth street, and thence to the basement of Union Bethel church on M street, near Sixteenth, in which, during the administration of President Pierce, he had an exceedingly large and excellent school, at the same period when Miss Miner was prosecuting her signal work. Mr. Middleton, now a messenger in the Navy Department, a native of Savannah, Ga., is free-born, and received his very good education in schools in that city, sometimes with white and sometimes with colored children. When he commenced his school he had just returned from the Mexican war, and his enter-

prise is especially worthy of being made prominent, not only because of his high style as a teacher, but also because it is associated with

THE FIRST MOVEMENT FOR A FREE COLORED PUBLIC SCHOOL.

This movement originated with a city officer, Jesse E. Dow, who, in 1848 and 1849, was a leading and influential member of the common council. He encouraged Mr. Middleton to start his school, by assuring him that he would give all his influence to the establishment of free schools for colored as well as for white children, and that he had great confidence that the councils would be brought to give at least some encouragement to the enterprise. In 1850 Mr. Dow was named among the candidates for the mayoralty, and when his views in this regard were assailed by his opponents, he did not hesitate to boldly avow his opinions, and to declare that he wished no support for any office which demanded of him any modification of these convictions. The workmen fail, but the work succeeds. The name of Jesse E. Dow merits conspicuous record in this history for this bold and magnanimous action. Mr. Middleton received great assistance in building up his school from Rev. Mr. Wayman, then pastor of the Bethel church, and afterwards promoted to the bishopric. The school was surrendered finally to Rev. J. V. B. Morgan, the succeeding pastor of the church, who conducted the school as a part of the means of his livelihood.

ALEXANDER CORNISH AND OTHERS.

In the eastern section of the city, about 1840, Alexander Cornish had a school several years in his own house on D street south, between Third and Fourth east, with an average of 40 scholars. He was succeeded, about 1846, by Richard Stokes, who was a native of Chester County, Pa. His school, averaging 150 scholars, was kept in the Israel Bethel church, near the Capitol, and was continued for about six years. In 1840 there was a school opened by Margaret Hill in Georgetown, near Miss English's seminary. She taught a very good school for several years.

ALEXANDER HAYS'S SCHOOL,

was started on Ninth street west, near New York avenue. Mr. Hays was born in 1802, and belonged originally to the Fowler family in Maryland. When a boy he served for a time at the Washington Navy Yard, in the family of Captain Dove, of the navy, the father of Dr. Dove, of Washington, and it was in that family that he learned to read. Michael Tabbs had a school at that time at the Navy Yard, which he taught in the afternoons *under a large tree*, which stood near the old Masonic Hall. The colored children used to meet him there in large numbers daily, and while attending this singular school, Hays was at the same time taught by Mrs. Dove, with her children. This was half a century ago. In 1826 Hays went to live in the family of R. S. Coxe, the eminent Washington lawyer, who soon purchased him, paying Fowler $300 for him. Mr. Coxe did this at the express solicitation of Hays, and 17 years after he gave him his freedom—in 1843. While living with Mr. Coxe he had married Matilda Davis, the daughter of John Davis, who served as steward many years in the family of Mr. Seaton, of the National Intelligencer. The wedding was at Mr. Seaton's residence, and Mr. Coxe and family were present on the occasion. In 1836 he bought the house and lot which they still own and occupy, and in 1842, the year before he was free, Hays made his last payment and the place was conveyed to his wife. She was a free woman, and had opened a school in the house in 1841. Hays had many privileges while with Mr. Coxe, and with the proceeds of his wife's school they paid the purchase money ($550) and interest in seven years. Mr. Hays was taught reading, writing, and arithmetic by Mr. Coxe, his wife, and daughters, while a slave in their family. When the colored people were driven from the churches, in the years of the mobs, Mrs. Coxe organized a large colored Sabbath school in her own parlor, and maintained it for a long period, with the co-operation of Mr. Coxe and the daughters. Mr. Hays was a member of this school. He also attended day schools, when his work would allow of it. This was the education with which, in 1845, he ventured to take his wife's school in charge. He is a man of good sense, and his

school flourished. He put up an addition to his house, in order to make room for his increasing school, which was continued down to 1857—16 years from its opening. He had also a night school and taught music, and these two features of his school he has revived since the war. This school contained from 35 to 45 pupils. Rev. Dr. Samson, Mr. Seaton, and Mr. Coxe often visited his school and encouraged him in his excellent work. Thomas Tabbs used also to come into his school and give him aid and advice, as also did John McLeod.

JOSEPH T. MASON'S SCHOOL, IN GEORGETOWN,

was established in 1840, in the rear of Mount Zion church, in a house near where the large free school building for colored children now stands. Mr. Mason was a scholar in Prout's school, and in that of the elder Cook. He was an admirable disciplinarian, and his school, which rarely fell below a hundred members, was conducted with more than common system and thoroughness for more than a quarter of a century, until he became insane, a year or two before the war.

THOMAS H. MASON'S SCHOOL

was commenced in 1859, in his father's house, on L near Twenty-first street west, and has continued without interruption to the present time. This school, prior to the war, averaged about 100, but during and since the war it has been about 50. He is well educated and a very excellent teacher, was a scholar under both Johnson and Fleet, and finished his education at Oberlin. His father was a cousin to Joseph T. Mason.

MR. AND MRS. FLETCHER'S SCHOOL

was opened about 1854, in the building in which Middleton first taught, on I near Twenty-second street. Mr. Fletcher was an Englishman, a well-educated gentleman, and a thorough teacher. He was induced to open the school by the importunities of some aspiring colored young men in that part of the city, who desired first-rate instruction. He soon became the object of persecution, though he was a man of courtesy and excellent character. His school-house was finally set on fire and consumed, with all its books and furniture; but the school took, as its asylum, the basement of the John Wesley Church. The churches which they had been forced to build in the days of the mobs, when they were driven from the white churches which they had aided in building, proved of immense service to them in their subsequent struggles. Mrs. Fletcher kept a variety store, which was destroyed about the time the school was opened. She then became an assistant in her husband's school, which numbered over 150 pupils. In 1858 they were driven from the city, as persecution at that time was particularly violent against all white persons who instructed the colored people. This school was conducted with great thoroughness, and had two departments, Mrs. Fletcher, who was an accomplished person, having charge of the girls in a separate room.

ELIZA ANNE COOK,

a niece of Rev. John F. Cook, and one of his pupils, who has been teaching for about 15 years, should be mentioned. She attended Miss Miner's school for a time, and was afterwards at the Baltimore convent two years. She opened a school in her mother's house, and subsequently built a small school-house on the same lot, Sixteenth street, between K and L streets. With the exception of three years, during which she was teaching in the free Catholic school opened in the Smothers' school-house in 1859, and one year in the female school in charge of the colored sisters, she has maintained her own private school from 1854 down to the present time, her number at some periods being above 60, but usually not more than 25 or 30

MISS WASHINGTON'S SCHOOL.

In 1857 Annie E. Washington opened a select primary school in her mother's house, on K street, between Seventeenth and Eighteenth streets west. The mother, a widow woman, is a laundress, and by her own labor has given her children good advantages, though she had no such advantages herself. This daughter was educated chiefly under Rev. John F. Cook

and Miss Miner, with whom she was a favorite scholar. Her older sister was educated at the Baltimore convent. Annie E. Washington is a woman of native refinement, and has an excellent aptitude for teaching, as well as a good education. Her schools have always been conducted with system and superior judgment, giving universal satisfaction, the num ber of her pupils being limited only by the size of her room. In 1858 she moved to the basement of the Baptist church, corner of Nineteenth and I streets, to secure larger accommodations, and there she had a school of more than 60 scholars for several years.

A FREE CATHOLIC COLORED SCHOOL.

A free school was established in 1858 and maintained by the St. Vincent de Paul Society, an association of colored Catholics, in connection with the St. Matthew's church. It was organized under the direction of Father Walter and kept in the Smothers' school-house for two years, and was subsequently for one season maintained on a smaller scale in a house on L street, between Twelfth and Thirteenth streets west, till the association failed to give it the requisite pecuniary support after the war broke out. This school has already been mentioned.

OTHER SCHOOLS.

In 1843, Elizabeth Smith commenced a school for small children on the Island in Washington, and subsequently taught on Capitol hill. In 1860 she was the assistant of Rev. Wm. H. Hunter, who had a large school in Zion Wesley church, Georgetown, of which he was the pastor. She afterwards took the school into her own charge for a period and taught among the contrabands in various places during the war.

About 1850 Isabella Briscoe opened a school on Montgomery street near Mount Zion church, Georgetown. She was well educated and one of the best colored teachers in the District before the rebellion. Her school was always well patronized, and she continued teaching in the District up to 1868.

Charlotte Beams had a large school for a number of years, as early as 1850, in a building next to Galbraith chapel, I street north, between Fourth and Fifth west. It was exclusively a girl's school in its latter years. The teacher was a pupil of Enoch Ambush, who assisted her in establishing her school.

A year or two later Rev. James Shorter had a large school in the Israel Bethel church, and Miss Jackson taught another good school on Capitol Hill about the same time. The above mentioned were all colored teachers.

Among the excellent schools broken up at the opening of the war was that of Mrs. Charlotte Gordon, colored, on Eighth street, in the northern section of the city. It was in successful operation several years, and the number in attendance sometimes reached 150. Mrs. Gordon was assisted by her daughter.

In 1841 David Brown commenced teaching on D street south, between First and Second streets, island, and continued in the business till 1858, at which period he was placed in charge of the large Catholic free school, in the Smothers house, as has been stated.

CHURCHES, PAROCHIAL AND SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

No religious sect has, from the earliest history of this District, exhibited so true a Christian spirit towards the colored people as the Catholic. In Georgetown, Rev. Leonard Neale, D. D., the archbishop, who resided there at an early period, and his brother, Rev. Francis Neale, the founder and first pastor of Holy Trinity church, and Father Van Lommel, pastor of the same church in 1827, were all friends of the poor, showing no distinction on account of color. They established schools and gathered to them the ignorant and poor, both white and colored. Father Van Lommel himself taught a school in which the white and colored children were instructed together and gratuitously, in the house that Mrs. Commodore Decatur for many years afterwards occupied near the Georgetown college gate. That the Catholic church was true to the Christian doctrine of the unity of the human race and the equality of all mankind before the altar of worship, was shown in the labors of these representatives of its priesthood. In 1837, when the pro-slavery spirit was enjoying its greatest triumph in this country, Pope Gregory XVI issued his famous anti-slavery bull. He first quotes the

bull of 1537, by Paul III, addressed to the Cardinal Archbishop of Toledo, and another, still more comprehensive, by Urban VIII, of 1636, to the collector Jurius, of the Apostolic Chamber of Portugal, "most severely castigating, by name, those who presumed to subject either East or West Indians to slavery; to sell, buy, exchange, or give them away, to separate them from their wives and children, despoil them of their goods and property, to bring or transmit them to other places, or by any means deprive them of liberty, or retain them in slavery," and then proceeds to reprobate, by "apostolical authority, all the above-described offences as utterly unworthy of the Christian name," and, "under the same authority, to rigidly prohibit and interdict all and every individual, whether ecclesiastical or laical, from presuming to defend that commerce in negro slaves," and to declare that, after mature delib eration in council of their Eminences, the Cardinals of the Holy Catholic Church, he was admonished "to invoke in the Lord all Christians, of whatever condition, that none henceforth dare to subject to slavery, unjustly persecute, or despoil of their goods, Indians, negroes, or other classes of men, or be accessories to others, or furnish them aid or assistance in so doing."

Father McElroy, now a resident of Boston, eighty-seven years old, whose life has been as full of pious and benevolent deeds as it is of years, was the assistant pastor of Holy Trinity church of Georgetown, D. C., with Father De Theux, who in 1817 succeeded Father Francis Neale. In 1818 Father McElroy established a Sunday school for colored children, and labored with the utmost devotion to gather the poor and despised children under his instruction. The school was held Sunday afternoon, and was a large and interesting institution. It continued two hours each day, and the children were taught spelling, reading, writing and christian doctrine. Young men and women of the first standing in Georgetown were the teachers, under the superintendence of Father McElroy, and the school was maintained with great efficiency for many years, especially during the service of Father McElroy, who was there five years, till he went to Frederick, Md., in 1822. There are many colored men and women still living in this District, now furrowed and gray with age, who learned to read and write in that school, including some who were slaves at the time.

The Catholic church was as free in all its privileges to the black worshipper as to the white, and in the sanctuary there was no black gallery. It was so in St. Patrick's church, in Washington, under its founder, Father Matthew of blessed memory, who had the friendship of Jefferson and other distinguished public men of his time, and who recognized the poorest and most benighted negro of his parish as inferior to none in all the privileges and duties of the church. The colored people in those days, in all the Catholic churches, not only knelt side by side with the highest personages, but the pews were also free to all. Father John Donelan, the founder of St. Matthew's church, was equally Christian in his impartiality, and this has been the general treatment which the colored people have received from the Catholic church, the cases in which a priest has attempted to make a distinction having been very few and exceptional. The older and more intelligent colored people of the District will fully sustain this statement. The Sisters of the convent in Georgetown have also trained many colored girls in the refined and solid attainments of a good education. The parochial instruction of the churches has always embraced all the children, and it is believed that St. Aloysius church, the last that was built before the war, has not been in the least behind the earlier churches in this respect. Colored people have always held pews there on the same floor with the whites, and there is a large free female colored school in the parochial school building connected with this church, in which there is also a white female school numbering some 250 pupils. The St. Mary's Catholic church at Alexandria in the earlier years manifested a similar Christian spirit, and has continued to do so. The colored people occupied the same floor with the white, and the free pews were occupied without discrimination of color.

When the colored people were excluded from all the Protestant churches of the District in the years of the mobs, the Catholic people stood firm, allowing no molestation of their colored worshippers. When the Sabbath schools for colored children were broken up in every Protestant church in the District, every Catholic church steadily retained its colored children under the usual Sunday instruction, and these schools embraced all ages, from the mere

child to the hoary head. The above brief statements will explain why the colored Catholics here organized but one Catholic church, St. Martin's, though forming a considerable part of the colored population of the District.

The Protestant churches in the District, like the Catholic, seem at first to have had no separate galleries; and children in the Sabbath school, white and colored, sat in the same room on the same seats. This was the case in the First Baptist church in Washington, which was established in 1802, but at a later day this was changed, the galleries being assigned to the colored people. But most of the Protestant churches went so far as gradually to limit them to the back seats in the galleries, which so mortified their self-respect as to drive them, in spite of their poverty, to build humble religious homes of their own. When the new Baptist church was built on Tenth street, which was afterwards sold and converted into a theatre, afterwards known as Ford's Theatre, the gallery was given to the colored people. This was satisfactory to the majority, but some of the more spirited chafed under the new arrangement. The church, and its pastor, Rev. O. B. Brown, however, treated their colored members and worshippers with Christian charity. The pastor was a large-hearted Christian minister, who knew no distinction as to the color of a person's skin at the altar of worship. When they built on Tenth street, in 1833, the colored members bought the old church, corner of Nineteenth and I streets, for a chapel, in which to hold their social meetings. Soon afterwards they employed Rev. Mr. Nickens to preach for them temporarily, which resulted in about thirty of the colored members seceding, and organizing a church by themselves. These seceding members were expelled, and, as the church property was deeded to the *members of the church*, a controversy arose as to the title to the house, which is still litigated in chancery, between the mother church and her colored offspring.

Among the Methodists an alienation of feeling grew up at an earlier date than in the other churches. As early as 1820 the colored members of the Ebenezer church, on Fourth street east, near Virginia avenue, erected a log building in that vicinity, not far from the present Odd Fellows' lodge, for their social religious meetings and Sabbath school. About the same time some of the leading members, among them George Bell and George Hicks, already mentioned, becoming dissatisfied with their treatment, withdrew and organized a church in connection with the African Methodist Episcopal church. At first they worshipped in Basil Sim's rope-walk, First street east, near Pennsylvania avenue, but subsequently in Rev. Mr. Wheat's school-house on Capitol Hill, near Virginia avenue. They finally purchased the old First Presbyterian church, at foot of Capitol Hill, now known as the "Israel Bethel African Methodist Episcopal church." Some years later other members of the old Ebenezer church not liking their confined quarters in the gallery, and otherwise discontented, purchased a lot corner of C street south and Fifth street east, built a house of worship, and were organized as the "Little Ebenezer Methodist Episcopal church." About the year 1835 a third colonization from the original Ebenezer church took place. Among other grievances, the colored members were dissatisfied with their white pastors because they declined to take the colored children in their arms when administering the rite of baptism. In 1839 this alienation grew into an open rupture, when thirteen class leaders and one exhorter left the mother church, and, after purchasing a lot on the Island, erected a house and formed a colored church, independent of the Methodist Episcopal body, under the name of the Wesley Zion church, and employed a colored preacher. Among the prominent men in this separation, still living, were Enoch Ambush, the well-known schoolmaster, and Anthony Bowen, who for many years has been an estimable employé in the Department of the Interior. Mr. Bowen has been a local preacher for forty years, and under his guidance the St. Paul's colored church on the Island was organized, at first worshipping in E street chapel.

In a volume, by Rev. Benjamin T. Tanner, entitled "An Apology for African Methodism," published in Baltimore in 1867, the statement is made that while the Presbyterians, Lutherans, Congregationalists, and others have opened their Theological schools and colleges to colored men, the Methodist Episcopal denomination has refused them admission even in cases where the colored people have aided in establishing and supporting these schools.

In this connection it may not be inappropriate to refer to the formation of the "African Methodist Episcopal church." "In November, 1787, the colored people belonging to the

Methodist Society of Philadelphia convened together in order to take into consideration the evils under which they labored, arising from the unkind treatment of their white brethren, who considered them a nuisance in the house of worship, and even pulled them off their knees while in the act of prayer and ordered them to the back seats. For these and various other acts of unchristian conduct they considered it their duty to devise a plan in order to build a house of their own, to worship God 'under their own vine and fig tree.'" The above extract is taken from the historical chapter of the "Book of Church Discipline" of the "African Methodist Episcopal church," and the chapter is signed by Bishop Wm. P. Quinn, Bishop Daniel A. Payne, Bishop Alex. W. Wayman, and Bishop Jabez P. Campbell. Among other prominent men of Philadelphia, Dr. Benjamin Rush was the friend of the colored people, and Bishop White also, who ordained one of their own number, after the order of the Protestant Episcopal church, as their pastor. In 1793 those of Methodist proclivities having concluded to build a church, Rev. Richard Allen gave them the land for the purpose, and with a few others aided them in the work. Francis Asbury, always their friend, and then bishop of the Methodist Episcopal church, officiated at the consecration, and the house was named "Bethel." Thus matters stood until 1816. During this period the colored people of Baltimore, Washington, and other places were oppressed as in Philadelphia, and in April, 1816, they called a general convention in that city, which organized the "African Methodist Episcopal Church." At the same time the first bishop was ordained, Rev. William Allen, who in the year 1799 had been ordained as preacher by Bishop Asbury of the "Methodist Episcopal church."

One of the local preachers of this church, Rev. Thos. E. Green, now connected with the "Pisgah chapel," Washington, when a child was bound out by the orphans' court to Jacob Gideon, a well-known citizen of Washington, and he expresses himself greatly indebted to Mr. and Mrs. Gideon for their kind treatment and the excellent instruction given him.

The number of colored people connected with Protestant Episcopal churches of the District has always been quite small. Christ church, Navy Yard, the oldest church of this denomination in the District, was as impartial and kind in the treatment of its colored worshippers as were the other Protestant churches in their early history. When the Sabbath school was organized the colored children were gathered into it, occupying seats upon the same floor with the white children, and this has been the usual custom of these churches. In their worship the gallery, or a portion of it, has been assigned to the colored worshippers, who, at the administration of the sacrament, are wont to descend and approach the altar when the white communicants have retired. The banishment of the colored members to the back seats at the sacramental table is not, however, peculiar to this church. The Methodist Episcopal people, even in New England, have done likewise. Not long before the war one of the most gifted colored men in the country entered the Elm street Methodist Church in New Bedford, intending to unite with the church, but what occurred while he was present made him depart without doing as he had intended. The following is his statement, [Rev. Mr. Bonney was at that time the pastor:] "After the congregation was dismissed the half dozen colored members descended from the gallery and took a seat against the wall most distant from the altar. Brother Bonney was very animated, and sung very sweetly 'Salvation, 'tis a joyful sound;' and after serving the emblems to all the 'white sheep,' raising his voice to an unnatural pitch and walking to the corner where his black sheep seemed to have been penned, he beckoned with his hand, exclaiming, 'Come forward, colored friends! Come forward! You, too, have an interest in the blood of Christ. God is no respecter of persons. Come forward and take this holy sacrament to your comfort.'"

In Georgetown there seems to have been less of Christian brotherhood in the Episcopal churches towards the colored people than in Washington. In 1821 Rev. Stephen H. Tyng, D. D., and Bishop Charles P. Mac Ilvaine, both then just entered into holy orders, were in Georgetown; the former being pastor of St. John's and the latter of Christ church. These gifted and devout young men knew no distinction in their holy office founded upon the color of the skin, and did not fail to indicate their sentiments on the subject. When Mr. Tyng was invited to the pastorate of St. John's, the vestry made some repairs upon their church The colored people, who had hitherto entered the same front door with their white brethren

and sisters in order to pass up into their gallery, were now furnished a new ingress and egress. A stairway on the outside of the church was run up to a gallery window, which was converted into a door. It is the tradition that Mr. Tyng declined to accept the arrangement on the ground that the faith, which he preached, acknowledged no back stairs to heaven for the humble poor. "The niggers' back stairs to heaven," as the stairway was called, was not used, and it is believed that the colored people entirely abandoned the church because of the project. There was a deep feeling at this period in Georgetown, growing out of this matter of the staircase and the well known views of these two pastors.

The first attempt to found a colored Episcopal church in this District was made in 1867, and the little "St. Mary's chapel" on Twenty-third street west and a small church and congregation are the results. They are not, however, furnished a pastor of their own race—it may be that they have none such in their ministry. This little band of colored people are doing well. They have a large and flourishing Sabbath school, and are using much self-denial and energy in the maintenance of the interests of education in connection with their organization. The pastor is Rev. John M. E. McKee.

The Unitarian church, founded in 1820, and also the Friends' meeting and the Universalist church, have always been opposed to slavery, and never tolerated unchristian treatment of the colored people. The first named was a New England church in its spirit and membership, as it continues to be. The Orthodox Congregational church, resuscitated after the war or near its close, was always of like spirit.

The *Sabbath school* among the colored people in those times differed from the institution as organized among the whites, as it embraced young and old, and most of the time was given not to the studying of the Bible, but to learning to read. It was the only school which, for a time, they were allowed to enter, and was consequently of vital importance in the history of their education in the District. As the distinction of color in the church grew more prominent the colored Sabbath schools seem to have gradually lost favor, till in 1835 they were swept away as by a storm. The First Presbyterian church of Washington, which then worshipped in the edifice now occupied by the colored Israel Bethel church, at the foot of Capitol Hill, opened a Sunday school for colored people in 1826, which was held regularly every Sunday evening for many years, and in it many men and women, as well as children, learned their alphabet and to read the Bible. Michael Shiner, one of the most remarkable colored men of the District, who remembers almost everything that has occurred at the Navy Yard during his service of some 60 years there, is of this number. Rev. Reuben Post, then the pastor of the church, now Dr. Sunderland's, was the leader in this Sabbath school work, and his church and society fully supported him. There was a colored Sabbath school in the City Hall for a number of years prior to 1831. The Trinity church people were worshipping there in that period, and the school is believed to have been maintained mainly through the efforts of that society. Mr. C. H. Wiltberger and his wife, themselves slave-holders, were the teachers of the school from its organization till its dispersion at the time of the Snow riot.

Christ Church, at the Navy Yard, established a Sabbath school for colored persons some years before the war of 1812. Among those most active in its organization were Rev. Andrew Hunter, the chaplain; Rev. John Chalmers, pastor of the Methodist Ebenezer church; and Mr. John Coyle, an elder in the First Presbyterian church, and a man foremost in every humane and christian work. The school was first held in Christ church, but afterwards moved to a school-house on New Jersey Avenue, used by Rev. Mr. Hunter for a day school, opened by him about the year 1810. Here it was maintained for several years. Mr. Hunter, Mrs. Chalmers, Mrs. William Dougherty, and Mrs. Henry Ingle, the mother of Mrs. Wm. H. Campbell and Mrs. Harvey Lindsley, both of Washington, were the good women who entered heart and hand into these benevolent labors. There are still living in the District colored persons who learned to read and write under their instruction.

OBSERVATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS.

It has been seen that when the rebellion approached, John F. Cook, George F. T. Cook, Enoch Ambush, Miss Miner, Thomas H. Mason, Mrs. Charlotte Gordon, and the St. Vincent

de Paul Society had each a very large school in operation in Washington; Annie E. Washington had a fine select school for the younger class of pupils; Eliza J. Brooks and Elizabeth Smith had each a respectable school for primary scholars; 10 schools, with quite 1,100 scholars, in Washington. Isabella Briscoe, moreover, had quite a large school in Georgetown. In addition to these there were several small daily gatherings of children in private houses; also night schools, which were largely attended by colored men, women, and children.

In passing from the schools whose history embraces more than half a century under the old order of things, it is well to remark that the general character of both the schools and the teachers was of an inferior grade as compared with what followed, when the great band of accomplished teachers from the north came and took up the work in the District in the closing years of the war. Some of those earlier schools, however, have not been surpassed, it is believed, by any that have arisen under the new régime, and others were not much inferior to the old-fashioned district schools of the New England rural towns.*

It is worthy of observation, also, that in no case has a colored school ever failed for the want of scholars. The parents were always glad to send their children, and the children were always ready to go, even when too poor to be decently fed or clothed. When a school failed it was for want of money, and not for want of appreciation of the benefits of education. The same remarkable avidity for learning was then apparent as is now so manifest among the whole body of the colored population of this District.

The facts detailed in this narrative fully substantiate the following propositions:

First. The impression which prevails very generally that the colored people of this District before the war had no schools is unfounded and exceedingly unjust to them.

Second. Public sentiment in the earlier years of the District was not only tolerant of education among the colored people, but positively in favor of it, and it was a common thing for colored and white children to associate together in the same school.

Third. The attendance of colored children at school was as large before the war as it is now in proportion to the free colored population of the District at the respective periods.

Fourth. The colored people of the District have shown themselves capable, to a wonderful degree, of supporting and educating themselves, while at the same time contributing by taxation to the support of white schools, from which they were debarred, and that, too, when in numerous cases they had previously bought themselves and families from slavery at very great expense; their history furnishing an example of courage and success in the midst of trial and oppression scarcely equalled in the annals of mankind.

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* NOTE.—Since the sketches of the early schools were written, the first prospectus of Miss Jones' school (see page 13) has come to hand, and it is given below as indicating the praiseworthy and honorable ambition of many of the colored people.

Prospectus of St. Agnes' Academy, for colored girls, under the direction of Miss Arabella C. Jones, Washington city, March 10, 1852.

The object of this academy is of great importance, particularly to those who are devoid of schools in their vicinity, and also to society at large. Here the poor are educated gratuitously, the orphans clothed, educated, and a good trade given them. Females in this age are naturally destined to become either mothers of families or household servants. As mothers, is it not necessary that they should be skilled in habits of industry and modesty, in order to transmit it to posterity? As domestics, should they not be tutored to the virtues of honesty, integrity, and sobriety? Last, though not least, many of our citizens of color are emigrating to Liberia, and it is necessary, as well-wishers of our race, that our children be well educated, in order to impart their knowledge to the illiterate. Shall we, my friends, go there to teach, or be taught? As emigrants from a land of intelligence, I answer, to teach.

TERMS:

Boarding and tuition, quarterly	$18	in advance.
French	5	"
Music	10	"
Bedding	2	"
Use of piano	1	"

Parents who are not able to educate their children can address a letter to the proprietor. Scholars are to be provided with one-half dozen towels, all toilet articles, a napkin ring, and desert spoon.

The school is situated in a locality known as the Island. A large house in the city will be procured if duly patronized.

PERIOD II.—1861-1868.

1. CITIES OF WASHINGTON AND GEORGETOWN.

RELIEF SOCIETIES AND FIRST CONTRABAND SCHOOLS.

The first attempt to gather contrabands into schools in Washington, though not the first in the District,, some schools having been opened in the county still earlier by colored teachers, was made by the *American Tract Society* of New York. Several of its agents were here early in March, 1862. Mr. N. Du Bois, a clerk in the Interior Department, who was an active man in the work, kept a careful diary of those times, from which it appears that on Sunday afternoon, March 16, 1862, a meeting of contrabands was called in Duff Green's Row, Capitol Hill, then crowded with this class of people, held as captured material of war. Rev. H. W. Pierson, for some time President of Cumberland College, Ky., as an agent of this Tract Society, called the meeting, and there were present some sixty men, women, and children, fresh from Virginia plantations, all eager to learn. Mr. Pierson taught them with printed cards, having on them verses of scripture in large letters; and, using "the word method," was very successful, they being able, to their great delight, to read a whole verse in half an hour. These meetings were followed up daily. Two or three weeks later another school was started in the basement of the colored Union Bethel church, on M street, near Fifteenth street west, by Rev. George Shearer, who had come with Mr. Pierson from the Princeton Seminary as an associate. Elizabeth Smith, who had many years maintained a colored school near this church, went to the first meeting, and attracting the notice of Mr. Shearer by her great interest in his "word method" of teaching, was at once drafted into the work as the leading teacher. The school was held in the late afternoon and in the evening, two sessions daily, and she was always there, maintaining her own day school at the same time. Dr. Lorenzo D. Johnson, then clerk in a government department, was also present before the close of the first meeting, and making known his great interest in the enterprise, was selected to superintend the work, which he did with the utmost devotion till he was appointed assistant surgeon and assigned to duty at Lincoln hospital in August, 1862, after the second battle of Bull Run. There were many in those days whose philanthropy found expression in ardent words and eloquent resolutions; but Dr. Johnson was peculiarly a man of action. This school speedily overflowed, and they went into the hall of the Bethel Society, in the rear of their church, continuing the excellent work till November, when it was found advisable to convert it into a day school with a regular teacher. This was done by transferring the scholars to the house of Elizabeth Smith, who, opening an additional room, incorporated them with her own school. Dr. Johnson paid her for the house and services fifteen dollars a quarter, while he continued to exercise authority over the school, down to June, 1863. Subsequently she received nothing, though the school was continued through the war, aided to some extent by the African Civilization Society.

The Tract Society had its seat of operations at Duff Green's Row till July 5, 1862, when it took up its quarters at what were then known as McLellan barracks, a group of horse-stables, with some small officers' quarters, which were roughly transformed into the homes of the contrabands with their managers and teachers. General James Wadsworth, then in command of the District, took the profoundest interest in the schools at that place, and was a very frequent visitor and their generous supporter. The camp was at a later day called Camp Barker, and is now the seat of the fine schools and industrial operations of the New England Friends' Mission, at the junction of Twelfth street west, R north, and Vermont avenue. The work here was prosecuted with great vigor and discretion, and on Thanksgiving day, 1862, they held the first public entertainment ever given by a contraband school in the District. Senator Pomeroy, of Kansas, was present, and addressed them in favor of the scheme of a colored colony in Central America, which had then recently been recommended by President Lincoln. Another remarkable occasion was when the Proclamation of Emancipation took effect, the whole congregated multitude of contrabands, young and old, awaiting upon their knees at midnight the signal of the moment between December

31, 1862, and January 1, 1863, which was to usher in their freedom! Scenes like this occurred in many other places in the District on that occasion. In June, 1863, the Tract Society divided its force, Mr. A. M. Sperry remaining in charge of the Camp Barker school; and one portion, under the charge of Rev. D. B. Nichols, going to Arlington Heights, where Freedmen's Village was then building. There they dwelt in tents, hovels, and out doors till the autumn, when they got into more comfortable quarters. It was at this village that the first thoroughly systematic and genuine contraband school was established within the sight of the national Capitol. The schools in Washington were always of a mixed character, comprising many scholars, young and old, who had long lived in the District, and who had gathered some scraps of knowledge. At Freedmen's Village a spacious school-house was erected, and in the late autumn of 1863, there was a school numbering some 250 children, all fresh from the plantations. Mr. H. E. Simmons, assisted by his wife, was the teacher, and he was a master of his business in the best sense of the term. The school attracted the attention of all really careful observers of the times in this District. Secretary Seward, with his wife and his daughter Fannie, were constant visitors there, as they had been in other years at Miss Miner's school. Mr. Seward went there with the foreign ministers and great public characters who visited the capital in those times, taking them into the school to show them a practical exemplification of the native powers of the negro in his most untutored condition. Senators and representatives also went there to see the marvellous spectacle, and those who watched the school most carefully were the most surprised, so signal were the results. This school at one time comprised some 400 contraband children, and was continued through the war, the work being turned into the hands of the American Missionary Society, 1865, and the village entirely broken up in 1868. Miss Sallie L. Daffin, a native of Philadelphia and a graduate of the "Institute for Colored Youth" of that city, a woman of superior talent, was one of the most useful teachers at the Freedmen's Village.

The National Freedmen's Relief Association, organized in Washington April 9, 1862, had two evening-schools, one at the Bethel church already noticed, and another at the Ebenezer church, under its general management and support that year. In November, 1863, they opened another day-school, in addition to that of Miss Smith's, with two teachers, and in December still another with two teachers, of whom one was colored. Mr. George T. Needham was one of the foremost in organizing and conducting both the evening and day schools at this time. This association was composed mostly of those persons resident in the District, who, realizing the great necessities developed by the war, united temporarily for the emergency, until more systematic and permanent aid could come from the north. The work they initiated was of the greatest service, and not the least portion of it was that of enlisting the sympathies of their friends in other parts of the country.

In June, 1863, *Dr. Johnson organized a school* at Lincoln hospital, seconded by Dr. Magee, the surgeon in charge. It was opened in the chapel, and Miss Laura Gates, of Pennsylvania, whose brother commanded the company of Veteran Reserves on duty there, was employed as teacher. She was allowed one ration from the hospital and $20 a month, which monthly allowance was paid by Dr. Johnson for two months. He also procured books and clothing from northern friends and contributions to pay the teacher. Another teacher was subsequently employed. The school was for the contraband people about the hospital, and comprised all ages, numbering about 50.

The American Tract Society of Boston was represented in the year 1862 and 1863 by their agent, Rev. J. W. Alvord, who rendered an important service in furnishing the excellent school and religious books, which the society had very wisely compiled and published for schools of that class then organizing in the District. Mr. Alvord was afterwards appointed to and still holds the responsible position of general superintendent of the educational work of the Freedmen's Bureau throughout all the southern States.

THE APPEAL TO THE COUNTRY.

In the vain hope that Congress would give substantial aid to the cause, the friends of colored schools had struggled through more than two years, doing something to meet the stupendous emergency. In the first months of 1864 the extraordinary condition of things

was brought to the notice of the country through the public press. It was estimated that there were in the District and vicinity 30,000 or 40,000 colored people from the plantations, all anxious for instruction, while but 2,000 or 3,000, at most, were provided with the slightest privileges of an educational kind. A very large number of government clerks and other friends of the cause in Washington, who had been sustaining night schools through the previous year, at this time organized an "Association of Volunteer Teachers," and sent forth an appeal under its sanction, setting forth in clear and forcible language the facts in the case. This appeal, dated April 16, 1864, was written by A. E. Newton, who had been in the work as a teacher and who was destined to be an eminently wise and conspicuous leader in the great work which was then opening in the District.

RELIEF SOCIETIES CONTINUED.

The American Missionary Association sent its agents in the summer of 1862, but finding the Tract Society of New York on the ground in full force they retired without further demonstrations that year. In February, 1864, they sent Mr. William J. Wilson, a well known colored teacher of Brooklyn, N. Y., to enter upon the work. He immediately started a school in the hall of Asbury church. Mr. A. M. Sperry, who, assisted by Miss Georgiana Willets, had been in charge of the Tract Society's work at Camp Barker after Mr. Nichols took charge at Freedmen's Village, being, with his assistant, ordered south by the society in June, 1864, surrendered his school to Mr. Wilson, who immediately assumed charge, with his wife as assistant, continuing energetically in that work till the camp broke up in the autumn of 1866. The school was held in the chapel which the Tract Society built, and which the Missionary Association purchased at this time. It had one spacious hall and two recitation rooms, and here a school averaging at least 250 scholars was kept up for more than two years, the number sometimes reaching 400 men, women, and children. It was probably the largest school ever seen in a single room in the District, and, considering its magnitude and miscellaneous nature, was eminently successful under the vigorous and intelligent management of those teachers, but it was not possible to attain such results as were developed under the system of graded schools organized in 1865 by the Pennsylvania and New York Relief Societies under Mr. A. E. Newton. Mr. Wilson went from Camp Barker to the Third street Baptist church in the autumn of 1866, opening there a large school, which was continued for one year by his wife and daughter under the auspices of the Missionary Association, and with excellent success. In November, 1864, this society had in operation the school at Camp Barker, a large school in Georgetown, another on the Island in Washington, and a fourth in Soldiers' Free Library, embracing 11 teachers, with two evening schools, in all embracing quite 1,000 scholars. This association was organized September 2, 1849, and originated in a dissatisfaction with the neutral policy of other missionary societies on the slavery question.

The Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association, in response to the "teachers'" appeal, widely disseminated through the northern States, came resolutely upon the ground, and commenced operations in May, 1864, in the Union Wesley church, Twenty-third street west, and in June opened another school in the Zion Wesley church, Island, with two teachers in each, under the superintendence of Mr. Rogers, an excellent young man from Massachusetts, who died that season of typhoid fever. In the autumn they established a school in Galbraith chapel, L street between Fourth and Fifth, and still another in Georgetown in the Mount Zion church, the Miss Chamberlains taking in charge these two last-named schools. In the Mount Zion church school a second and third teacher were soon added. In December, 1864, the society bought a house and stable on L street near Nineteenth street west, and having fitted up the latter, with an industrial establishment attached, at a cost of about $3,000, opened two schools, using the house for the teachers' home. January 1, 1865, Mr. A. E. Newton became the superintendent, also opening their schools in Alexandria, and at this time and the following winter the society did the largest work of any organization, and did not withdraw from the field until 1868. Some of the first merchants and men of wealth of Philadelphia were at the bottom of these operations, among whom may be mentioned J. Miller McKim, an old anti-slavery man; the brothers Marmaduke Cope and Francis R. Cope, Friends, well known for their works of benevolence. The president of the society was

Stephen Caldwell, at that period acting as president of the United States revenue commission. The secretary was James Rhoads, also conspicuous in many of the best efforts to improve the African race.

The Philadelphia Friends' Freedmen's Relief Association was here with like spirit in the same month, starting their first school in Union Wesley church, Twenty-third street west. They soon bought a lot on Nineteenth street near the boundary, and built a large school-house, costing $6,000, which before winter was filled with scholars under an admirable corps of teachers. The location, however, did not prove to be a favorable one, and in 1866 the lot and house were sold and the school given up.

The African Civilization Society was also at work in the early summer, opening a school in the hall of the Union Bethel church, on M street near Fifteenth street. In 1865 and 1866 Rev. Benjamin W. Arnett, colored and a native of Pennsylvania, conducted a large school supported by this society.

The Reformed Presbyterian Mission, in the course of the same summer, purchased a tract of land on First street west between N and O, (Island,) and erected sixteen dwellings, with a chapel for religious and educational purposes. This location was in the extreme southern section of the city, where the colored population was large and mostly made up of contrabands, as it still continues to be. A large school was soon organized under the direction of Rev. J. Bayliss, who was succeeded by Rev. J. M. Armour. In the early part of 1867 Rev. J. M. Johnston was made superintendent, and in the autumn of that year the school was removed to a barrack building on Sixth street west near M street south. It is divided into four departments, with nearly 200 scholars, under the care of excellent teachers—Miss Sarah E. Moore, of East Craftsbury, Vermont; Miss Helen M. Johnston, Miss Kate E. Trumbull, and Miss Eunice A. Jameson, of Logan county, Ohio. Miss Moore entered upon the work in 1865, the others in 1867. Religious services and a large Sabbath school, under eight teachers, are held on Sundays. Nearly all the families represented in the school belonged to the slave population of Virginia, and the improvement that has been wrought in both children and parents by the persevering labors of this mission forms one of the most interesting and encouraging chapters in the educational work in the District.

The Old School Presbyterian Mission in 1864 opened a school in Georgetown, in the basement of the Presbyterian church on Bridge street, and another in Lincoln Hospital chapel, east of the Capitol. These were flourishing and useful schools, and were continued until February, 1867. The first superintendent was Rev. Mr. Aiken, who was succeeded by Dr. John A. E. Walk. Among the teachers in the Georgetown school was Miss Emma L. Crane, now in charge of the grammar school in the Brick school-house, Island.

In May, 1864, there were in operation 12 day schools, with 25 teachers and about 1,300 scholars; also, 36 night schools, with 36 teachers and about 1,350 scholars. The night schools were generally continued with interest through the year, though some of those depending on volunteer teachers expired from neglect. The Volunteer Association of Teachers did good service, but was disbanded in the spring of 1865. (This association was made up mostly of department clerks, and was quite distinct from that organized afterwards among the regular teachers of Washington, Georgetown, and Alexandria.) The night teachers were paid $10 a month through private contributions. In the autumn of 1864, and through the winter, aid came with great generosity from the north.

The New York Freedmen's Relief Association was actively engaged in the work in 1864 with a vigor not inferior to that of any other organization in the field. For three years their schools were widely known for the large and generous scale on which they were operated, and for their excellent character. Their M street school, as it was called, comprising from eight to ten departments, with an average attendance of over six hundred scholars, and directed by Mr. A. E. Newton, excited the deepest interest among all who were observant friends of the cause in those years. One of the first teachers sent by this association was Rev. B. W. Pond, of Maine, who opened a school early in the summer of 1864 in the basement of Asbury church, Eleventh and K streets. This was a pay school, a small charge for tuition being made, but many who were unable to meet this expense were admitted. In the following winter two portable houses were sent from Boston by the association, into which the school

was moved after their erection on M street near Massachusetts avenue. In 1865 Mr. Pond was sent by the association to North Carolina as superintendent of their operations there, and he was succeeded by Miss Julia A. Lord, who was at that time teaching in the Lincoln Institute, on the Island. When the hospital barracks, near by, at the corner of M and Fourteenth streets, were taken by the association, Miss Lord was placed in charge of the grammar school, and the portable buildings were used for the large infant department. The grammar school furnished to the Howard University, when its preparatory department was opened in May, 1867, a larger number of scholars than any other school in the city. Of that department Miss Lord is now one of the principals.

The New England Freedmen's Aid Commission, supported by the Baptists of Boston, established the "Boston School," so called, corner of Nineteenth and I streets, in September, 1864. In November, 1864, this school was graded, Miss R. S. Capron, of Massachusetts, being its principal till the ensuing January, when Miss Lucy A. Flagg, a young lady of much talent and remarkable capability in her work, succeeded to the place, continuing there till her health failed in 1866. In the spring of that year the school was transferred to the American Baptist Home Missionary Society of Boston, and by them organized as a Normal school, and still later converted into "The Wayland Theological Seminary." The above Commission was a different organization from the New England Freedmen's Aid Society.

The New England Freedmen's Aid Society did an excellent work in taking charge of the first colored public school ever opened in the District, and at that time the only one. It was opened March 1, 1864, in the colored Ebenezer church, Capitol Hill, but in May, 1865, was removed to the school building erected for them on C street. They added two teachers and two schools, supporting the four teachers and filling the house with scholars, the average attendance being over 300. The first teachers were Miss Emma V. Brown, colored, one of Miss Miner's favorite scholars and also her assistant, and Miss Frances W. Perkins, of New Haven, Connecticut. Miss Brown was afterwards placed by the trustees in charge of the O street grammar school, which she conducted in a most praiseworthy manner, until failing health, last year, compelled her to resign. As is hereafter mentioned in connection with the history of the public schools, Miss Perkins was instrumental in obtaining funds for erecting this building, the first public school house in the District.

The New England Friends' Mission also came in 1864, and still continues its very excellent work. In the autumn of that year they purchased a large tract of land on Thirteenth street between R and S north, built a store, and furnished goods at cost to the colored people. In the following winter they opened schools in the government buildings, which were turned over to them, teaching a large school of women to sew and the children to braid straw. A day school was organized in the autumn of 1865, and in the winter a second was opened, the two comprising some 150 children, with two teachers. In 1866 and 1867 there were five teachers, with two hundred scholars. At the present time this school is arranged in four departments, under the care of Miss H. S. Macomber, of New Bedford, Massachusetts, a lady of cultivation, and an admirable principal, with four excellent assistants, all ladies of refinement—Miss Mary C. Lawton and Miss Susan H. Pierce, of New Bedford; Miss Mary E. Oliver and Miss Mary E. Gove, of Lynn, Massachusetts. The important work of visiting the colored families and children at their homes is committed to Miss Sarah E. Wall, of Worcester, Massachusetts, who has labored here assiduously for five years for the good of the colored people. She is also in charge of the sewing department, an important branch of the industrial work. The school now numbers more than 250, and is full to overflowing, rendering it necessary to refuse many applications almost daily. A flourishing Sabbath school has also been maintained from the beginning, averaging about 150 scholars, with ten or twelve teachers. In 1865 more land was purchased and several houses erected, which were sold on easy terms, as intended, to industrious colored families, the monthly rent being credited as purchase money. The school is supported by the New England Friends' yearly meeting, and in an unobtrusive and judicious manner is accomplishing great and permanent good. Among its generous and active supporters from the first has been Hon. Joseph Grinnell, of New Bedford, who often comes to visit it, giving his personal attention to its support and management. The Trustees of the public schools have aided this school so far as to

furnish fuel the past year. From the organization of the school in October, 1865, to June, 1867, Richard Battey, from Blackstone, Mass., was the superintendent; since which time Mr. and Mrs. John C. Gove, from Lynn, Mass., have had the general management. About two-thirds of the scholars are boys.

"*The Washington Christian Union*," an organization of this city, now actively engaged in educational work among the colored people, originated in or grew out of the "Young Men's Unitarian Association, which was formed February 3, 1866, its object being general missionary and christian work among the needy of all classes. Early in 1867, as members of other denominations had for some time been their co-workers and given substantial aid, and also for the purpose of extending their work and making it more effective, it was judged advisable to adopt a new name for the Association, and invite the co-operation of all Christian and benevolent people. At the same time the pressing necessities existing among the freedmen in the District claimed all the resources and enlisted the sympathies of the "Union." Accordingly, on the 2d of May of that year, (1867,) a night school especially for adult colored persons, at first consisting of 15 scholars, but the number soon ranging from 100 to 150, wa opened at the Lincoln Institute, or E street chapel, on the Island, and was conducted by volunteer teachers. In the autumn the Trustees of colored public schools gave them the use of two rooms in the new brick school-house corner of Ninth and E streets, into which they moved about November 1, the rent of the Lincoln Institute having been paid by the "Freedmen's Bureau." The school is still continued at the same place with gratifying success, though the number of scholars has somewhat decreased. Mr. W. H. Treadway, of the Treasury Department, has had the immediate charge of the school, aided by other members of the "Union."

The first superintendent appointed by the "Christian Union" was Mr. W. A. White, but he was soon succeeded by Mr. J. R. Fletcher, of the Treasury Department, who was then conducting an independent night school and a Sabbath school, in the Free Library building, Judiciary Square. In the autumn Mr. Fletcher was made and still continues General Superintendent of all the educational work of the society, and in January, 1868, his night school was formally included in its operations.

Another night school has just been opened (January, 1869,) in the O street colored school-house, which numbers over 200 scholars of all ages, children, parents, and grandparents seated together learning to read and write. The president of the Union, Mr. James M. Blanchard, late of the Patent Office, has charge of this school, assisted by nine or ten excellent teachers.

These night schools have done and are doing a very important work, most of those attending them being intelligent and ambitious adult scholars, who are unable to attend the day schools. All the labor of instruction and of general management has been done from the first by volunteer, unpaid teachers. The officers of the society are, James M. Blanchard, President; John E. Mason and J. M. Jayne, Vice-Presidents; F. S. Nichols, Secretary; W. H. Treadway, Corresponding Secretary.

The Universalists of Maine.—One of the best day schools in the District, though continued for less than two years, was that in the Lincoln Institute in 1867 and 1868, taught by *Miss Julia C. Chase*, of South Livermore, Maine, and supported by the *Universalists* of that State. The school numbered about 50, and perhaps in no school in the District have the scholars been more attached to their teacher or made more rapid progress. Miss Chase came in March, 1866, teaching through the remainder of that school year in the school of the New York Freedmen's Association, in the Capitol Hill barracks. In the following winter she opened her own school on the Island, and taught until June, 1868. Her success, like that of Miss Elwell in the Fourteenth street school, shows how much good can be accomplished by one faithful teacher. The Lincoln Institute building, or E street chapel, was built in 1858 by what is now known as the St. Paul's African Methodist Episcopal church, which in 1862 moved into their new edifice on E street between Ninth and Tenth streets.

Miss Elwell's school.—Among the teachers of the *New York Freedmen's Relief Association* school on M street, corner of Fourteenth street, in 1865 and 1866, was Miss Rebecca R. Elwell, of Hartford, Connecticut. In the autumn of 1867 she was engaged by the *Hartford*

Relief Society, and opened a school in Carroll Hall, on Fourteenth street near Pennsylvania avenue. The next year she moved down Fourteenth street nearer the canal, in the section known as "Murder Bay," where she still remains. Her school room is in a small Baptist church, and, without an assistant, she has charge of about 70 colored children, most of them belonging to the poorest classes, and gathered from the hovels and by-ways of the city. Among the benevolent operations of the District, there is no one demanding more self-denying labor than this; but in the remarkable love of the scholars for their teacher, as well as in their improvement, she finds a rich reward. Her records show many rare cases of faithful attendance and good conduct, and the desire for knowledge among these more unfortunate colored children is fully equal to that shown among the more favored. Several of the boys, from ten to twelve years of age, have been marked only once or twice for either absence or tardiness during a whole year, and even those resulting sometimes from sickness. This school was last year organized as one of the public schools, the Trustees providing furniture, books, fuel, &c., but the salary is still paid by the Hartford Relief Society. Miss Elwell commenced her benevolent work early in 1865, in connection with the Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association, on the Island.

The Associations maintained through the school year 1864-'65, in the two cities, 27 day schools, comprising 3,588 scholars under the charge of 64 teachers, and 18 night schools with 1,020 scholars and 46 teachers. Nearly all the Societies continued their labors during the two following years, and two additional Societies joined in the work.

The following tables give the names of most if not all of the Associations, and the extent of their operations. The numbers given are in some cases only general estimates or averages, but are based on trustworthy information, and even where the fullest records are preserved there were necessarily great fluctuations from month to month:

Schools of the Relief Societies, May, 1864.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
National Freedmen's Relief Association, District of Columbia	5	11	500
American Tract Society, N. Y.	1	2	100
African Civilization Society	1	2	100
Reformed Presbyterian Mission, (one night school)	2	4	200
Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association	1	2	150
Philadelphia Friends' Freedmen's Relief Association	1	2	150
Dr. L. D. Johnson, (one night school)	2	2	100
Trustees of Colored Public schools	1	2	100
Volunteer Teachers' Association, (night schools)	12	34	1,250
Total	26	61	2,650

Day Schools, 1864-'65.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association	6	14	816
New York Freedmen's Relief Association	5	9	450
American Missionary Association, New York	4	11	732
Philadelphia Friends' Freedmen's Relief Association	2	6	360
African Civilization Society, New York	2	3	180
Old School Presbyterian Mission	2	5	350
Reformed Presbyterian Mission, Pittsburg	1	4	200
New England Freedmen's Aid Commission, Boston	2	4	160
New England Freedmen's Aid Society, Boston, [took charge of public school]	3	4	200
American Free Baptist Mission Society, New York	1	1	80
Private school, Miss Goodenow, Maine	1	1	60
Total	29	62	3,588

Night Schools, 1864-'65.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
Volunteer Teachers' Association	10	22	500
Old School Presbyterian	2	7	100
American Missionary Association	4	8	270
Soldiers' Free Library	1	6	100
Reformed Presbyterian Mission	1	3	50
Total	18	46	1,020

During the above school year of 1864-'65, there were also in operation six private colored schools taught by colored teachers, with an average attendance of 340 scholars. It has been stated that the American Tract Society, N. Y., partially in the autumn of 1863 and finally in 1864, withdrew from their extended field of operations in Washington that they might concentrate their force at the Freedmen's Village, Arlington, where the need of humane and christian work was so great.

Day Schools, May, 1865. (*Near Washington.*)

	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
American Tract Society at Freedmen's Village	1	3	242
Miss Emily Howland, near Arlington	1	1	100
Miss Atkinson, at Camp Wadsworth	1	1	50
Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association at Alexandria	1	3	180
New England Freedmen's Aid Society	1	3	170
New York Freedmen's Relief Society	2	4	240
Government Superintendent of Freedmen	3	10	269
Reformed Presbyterian Mission, Xenia, Ohio	1	5	240
Private Colored Schools	8	12	600
Total	19	42	2,091

Day Schools, 1865–'66.

	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association, Philadelphia	9	17	858
New York Freedmen's Relief Association, New York	8	12	604
American Missionary Association, New York	8	11	594
American Baptist Home Missionary Society, New York	3	7	284
Philadelphia Friends' Freedmen's Relief Association	2	6	376
New England Freedmen's Aid Society	4	4	315
New England Friends' Mission	2	3	180
Old School Presbyterian Mission, Pittsburg	2	5	373
Reformed Presbyterian Mission	1	3	186
African Civilization Society, New York	2	2	108
Bangor Freedmen's Relief Associaton	1	1	52
Total	42	71	3,930

In May, 1865, the Volunteer Teachers' Association was disbanded, and their ten *Night Schools*, with 625 scholars, were continued by the teachers of the day schools.

Day Schools, 1866–1867.

In the autumn of 1866 there was a consolidation of the three Relief and Aid Societies of New York, Pennsylvania, and New England, for the purpose of more systematic operations. They had their headquarters at New York city, with branch offices at Boston, New York, and Philadelphia. In 1866–'67 the records show as follows:

	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.
New York Branch Freedmen's Union Commission	15	17	1,041
Pennsylvania Branch Freedmen's Union Commission	15	17	849
New England Branch Freedmen's Union Commission	4	4	217
American Missionary Association	8	9	507
American Baptist Home Missionary Society	3	6	101
New England Friends' Mission	2	5	267
Reformed Presbyterian Mission	5	5	297
Bangor Freedmen's Aid Society	1	1	74
Theological Institute and University, Rev. Dr. Turney	2	5	75
St. Martin's Church, colored, Catholic	2	4	350
Trustees of Colored Schools	5	7	450
Total	62	80	4,228

In the autumn of 1867, these aid organizations nearly all concluded to withdraw from the field, upon the supposition that the Trustees of colored schools were able to fully assume their work. Mr. A. E. Newton, who had been for three years in the work, persistently urged otherwise, and the New York and Pennsylvania "branches," of which he had been the superintendent, consented to return each 8 teachers; the New England Friends, 5; the Reformed Presbyterian Mission, 2; the Hartford, the Bangor, and the Holliston, Mass. Associations each, 1; the Universalists of Maine, 1; the New England F. A. Commission and the Rochester Anti-Slavery Society, each a teacher of sewing. Total, 29. In February, 1867, there was 24 night schools in successful operation.

The following is a general estimate of the expenditures of the leading benevolent agencies:

Pennsylvania F. R. Association, (Pa. branch committee)	$32,500
New York F. R. Association, (N. Y. branch committee)	24,000
New England F. A. Society, (N. E. branch committee)	6,000
American Missionary Association	14,500
Philadelphia Friends	13,500
New England Friends	7,000
Reformed Presbyterian Mission	11,500
O. S. Presbyterian Mission	6,500
American Baptist Home Missionary Society, (including N. E. F. A. Commission)	8,000
African Civilization Society	3,000
American Free Baptist Mission	1,000
National F. R. Association, D. C. (contributed from the north)	1,500
American Tract Society	1,000
Miscellaneous contributions	5,000
Total Northern aid in the four years	135,000

This estimate, made by superintendent Newton, a man of great precision, does not embrace the very extensive donations of books, school furniture, and clothing. The expenditure was divided in the several years about as follows: 1863-4, $8,500; 1864-5, $39,000; 1865-6, $35,500; 1866-7, $35,000; 1867-8, $17,000. Total, $135,000. Add to this amount $25,000 contributed in books, school furniture, and clothing, which is undoubtedly an under estimate, and there is the sum of $160,000 which was, with open hands and hearts, poured into the noble and triumphant work of these years by the patriotic North, and that too while the same agencies were extending their beneficence in almost all parts of the south.

The character of the teachers sent into this work by these benevolent agencies was of the highest order, a large proportion of them young women of solid and refined culture, apt to teach, experienced in the vocation, and all deeply interested in the self-denying labor. Mr. Newton was the leading spirit, and was admirably fitted for the position. While a clerk in the Quartermaster's office he commenced his work as the teacher of a night-school. In January, 1866, he was appointed superintendent by the Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association, subsequently receiving the same appointment from the New York Freedmen's Relief Association. Having resigned his clerkship, he gave himself wholly to the schools of these and other societies till, in the autumn of 1867, he was also made superintendent of the colored public schools by the trustees, fulfilling all these arduous and complicated trusts with extraordinary efficiency—giving place to a new superintendent, appointed by the trustees last year. The teachers in November, 1865, were organized into an association for the purpose of securing more system and harmonious action. This association met monthly, and the whole body of teachers—nearly all females—were invariably present, and their meetings were continued for two years, accomplishing a vast amount of good. The first teacher who had great success in bringing order out of chaos was Miss Lucy A. Flagg, of Massachusetts, who made the Boston school, corner of 19th and I street, in 1865, a model of order and thoroughness. The New York school, at the junction of 14th and M streets, was however the first of these schools in establishing something like a graded system in the true sense of the term. This school not only had better buildings than the Boston school, but it also had Mr. Newton from the first to the last as its special superintendent. In Miss Julia A. Lord, the principal of its highest department, it had also a teacher eminently fitted for her place, as in fact were all the other nine teachers during those years. Nor should the name of Eliza A. Chamberlain, of Massachusetts, be omitted, who came here in 1866 and entered into the work in Georgetown with the greatest zeal. Her superior qualifications find an ample witness in the school in which she still continues to act as principal in that city.

THE COLORED ORPHANS' HOME.

This is one of the most interesting and useful institutions of an educational nature connected with the colored people that has been established in this District. Its origin was singular. Late in the autumn of 1862, the contraband families, which had gathered in great numbers in the contraband camps of Washington, were transferred to Arlington Heights by order of the War Office. The order, which was to transfer all the *families*, was executed, leaving some 40 or 50 orphan children, belonging to *no family*, in the abandoned camps in utter desolation. This contraband camp was subsequently called Camp Barker, and was on the north side of the city, between Twelfth and Thirteenth streets. The ground is now occupied by the New England Friends' school. The benevolent women of the city immediately made these poor outcasts temporarily comfortable in the old camp, and went resolutely to work to provide for them a Christian home. They formed an association, and fed, clothed, sheltered, taught them, and ultimately built an asylum for them and other colored orphans. The original meeting was at the rooms of Mrs. James W. Grimes, January 31, 1863. Mrs. B. F. Wade, Mrs. James Harlan, Mrs. S. C. Pomeroy, Mrs. Henry Wilson, Mrs. A. H. Gibbons, Mrs. Daniel Breed, and Mrs. J. F. Potter, were present. Mrs. Pomeroy was selected to preside, and they proceeded directly to the work of establishing "an Asylum for aged and destitute Colored Refugees and Colored Orphans," of which classes there were multitudes then "collected in the contraband camps in and around Washington." The next meeting was at the residence of Sayles J. Bowen, February 5, when articles of association, presented by

Mrs. Gibbons, of New York, were adopted, and an organization effected, with the following officers: Mrs. Pomeroy, president; Mrs. Grimes, vice-president; Mrs. Mary E. Webster, of Connecticut, treasurer; Mrs. Daniel Breed, secretary. The association was incorporated by Act of Congress approved February 16, 1863; and on the same day an organization, under the charter, was effected at the residence of Daniel Breed; the officers above named as chosen under the temporary organization being all re-elected, together with the following board of managers: Mrs. Henry Wilson and Miss A. M. Hooper, Massachusetts; Mrs. Harriet Underhill, Mrs. Louisa Howells, Mrs. W. R. Johnson, Miss Mary A. Donaldson, and Mrs. Rufus Leighton, of Washington; and Miss Emily Howland, of New York. Since then the successive boards of officers have been as follows:

1864.—Mrs. T. D. Eliot, president; Mrs. A. M. Gangewer, vice-president; Mrs. W. R. Johnson, treasurer; Miss Emily Howland, secretary. Executive committee: Mrs. Henry Wilson, Mrs. A. H. Gibbons, Miss M. A. Donaldson, Mrs. L. Howells, Mrs. G. E. Baker, Mrs. Samuel Wilkinson, Miss Anna M. Hooper, Mrs. C. C. Leighton, Mrs. F. T. Brown Trustees: Sayles J. Bowen, A. M. Gangewer, George E. Baker.

1865.—Miss Margaret Robinson, president; Mrs. M. C. Hart, vice-president; Mrs. Germond Crandell, treasurer; Mrs. W. L. Nicholson, secretary. Executive committee: Mrs. Jas. M. Blanchard, Mrs. H. Underhill, Mrs. Geo. W. McLellan, Mrs. S. P. Bliss, Miss S. P. Searle, Miss Eliza Heacock, Mrs. Geo. B. Whiting, Mrs. Chas. Faxon, Mrs. Stephen D. Charles. Trustees: Geo. E. Baker, A. M. Gangewer, John Joliffe.

1866.—Mrs. B. F. Wade, president; Mrs. Geo. W. McLellan, vice-president; Mrs. Germond Crandell, treasurer; Miss Eliza Heacock, secretary. Executive committee: Mrs. S. C. Pomeroy, Mrs. Lyman Trumbull, Mrs. Susan Wilson, Mrs. Gen. O. O. Howard, Mrs. H. Underhill, Mrs. D. N. Cooley, Miss Louise S. Swan, Miss D. P. Baker, Mrs. Dr. Parker. Trustees: A. M. Gangewer, S. J. Bowen, Charles King.

1867.—Mrs. B. F. Wade, president; Mrs. Geo. W. McLellan, vice-president; Mrs. Germond Crandell, treasurer; Miss Eliza Heacock, secretary. Executive committee: Mrs. S. C. Pomeroy, Mrs. Lyman Trumbull, Mrs. W. F. Nelson, Mrs. Gen. O. O. Howard, Mrs. H. Underhill; Miss S. G. Searle, Miss L. S. Swan, Mrs. J. M. Blanchard, Mrs. R. M. Bigelow.

1868.—Mrs. S. C. Pomeroy, president; Mrs. Geo. W. McLellan, vice-president; Mrs. Germond Crandell, treasurer; Miss Eliza Heacock, secretary. Executive committee: Mrs. Gen. O. O. Howard, Mrs. Oakes Ames, Mrs. R. M. Bigelow, Mrs. H. Underhill, Mrs. W. F. Nelson, Mrs. H. E. Paine, Miss Louise S. Swan, Miss Sarah P. Searle, Mrs. J. M. Blanchard. Trustees: Sayles J. Bowen, Charles King, Geo. W. McLellan.

1869.—Mrs. S. C. Pomeroy, president; Mrs. George W. McLellan, vice-president; Mrs. Germond Crandell, treasurer; Mrs. Hiram Pitts, secretary. Executive committee: Mrs. Gen. O. O. Howard, Mrs. Rev. Sella Martin, Mrs. R. M. Bigelow, Mrs. Harriet Underhill, Mrs. W. F. Nelson, Miss Susan Walker, Miss Louise S. Swan, Mrs. W. F. Bascom, Mrs. J. Blanchard. Trustees: Sayles J. Bowen, Charles King, George W. McLellan.

The first donations to the association were received in April, 1863—$100 from James Arnold, of New Bedford, and $50 from Emily Howland, whose generosity had been for many years well-nigh omnipresent where money and work were demanded in behalf of the neglected race. The National Freedmen's Relief Association soon after gave the association $1,000. At a meeting of the executive committee or board of managers, May 8th, action was taken to secure a building, a committee being raised for that duty, and Daniel Breed was solicited to examine the title to a certain residence on Georgetown Heights; and on June 2 he reported to a meeting of the executive board that it stood in the name of Richard S. Cox, who had at the opening of the rebellion abandoned his property in Georgetown, gone to Virginia, and as a major in the confederate service taken up arms against the Union under circumstances peculiarly disgraceful and aggravating, being without the excuse of State allegiance urged by so many. This action was suggested by the Secretary of War, who, when the association called on him for a house in which to take care of these children, directed them to look up some place abandoned by those who had gone into the rebellion. Through the efforts of the society an order was at once issued by the Secretary of War, which on the 1st day of June placed the association in possession of a spacious residence of some dozen rooms, well furnished, with about 80 acres of land, including an excellent orchard. Mrs. Pomeroy, who was authorized to take possession of the premises by the Secretary of War, being sick upon what proved her death-bed, Mrs. Daniel Breed, the secretary, was deputed to act in her place in assuming the possession. Accordingly, she and her husband, Dr. Breed, entered the premises and made them their temporary quarters during the gathering in of the

children and the organization of the institution. The house was occupied by a brother-in-law of R. S. Cox when seized by the military authorities. On the arrival of Dr. and Mrs. Breed the guard withdrew, and without human protection they safely passed the first night, though in imminent danger not only of violence but of their lives.

Soon after moving into their Home, a frame building was put up for a kitchen and cook-room, at a cost of $150, the work being done by "contraband carpenters;" and in the autumn of 1863 a laundry was built, and the carriage house fixed up for a dormitory. In the spring of 1866 water was introduced into the premises from the reservoir, which contributed much to the health of the inmates, who had previously suffered severely from diseases produced by want of cleanliness and proper sleeping apartments. The new builddings, which had been erected by the Freedmen's Bureau, were at this time ready for occupation, and had been furnished with a good supply of bedsteads from the Office of Medical Stores of the War Department. New clothing was also furnished, and a thorough system instituted in everything, the excellent results of which were soon manifest in the condition of the children. Rations and a surgeon had been furnished, by the order of the Secretary of War, from February, 1864, down to the summer of 1865, and was continued through the month of May by the influence of Senator Pomeroy. In June, the attention of General O. O. Howard was called to the Home, who sent an inspector to examine the institution. The report was of the most commendatory nature, and the rations were continued through his orders, the association offering to receive any children the Bureau might intrust to them.

It was at this period that the association began to anticipate disturbance from R. S. Cox, who, having returned from the confederate army, was appealing to the President for pardon and the consequent restoration of the property then held by the Home. In July, 1866, Cox addressed a letter to the association, offering them $1,000 to vacate the premises, which proposition was declined. At this time the Attorney General assured the association that no pardon would be granted to Cox until an arrangement satisfactory to them should be effected. It was deemed advisable at that time to present a concise and exact statement showing the aggravated nature of Cox's disloyalty, and to present the same to the President, which was accordingly done. The paper was prepared in the form of a protest against the restoration of the property, and the main facts presented were these: That in 1861 Cox was a clerk in the Paymaster General's office, and, refusing to take the oath of allegiance, without resigning went south and served in the rebel army, with the rank of major, till the surrender of Lee. Cox held the commission of colonel of the 8th regiment of the District militia when he went south, having been placed at the head of that regiment by Floyd, just before the inauguration of President Lincoln, in place of Colonel Cruikshank, a man of undoubted loyalty and capability. In September, 1865, the Attorney General, Mr. Speed, issued an order for the process of confiscation, in the case of Cox, to proceed; and the association employed counsel to assist in the prosecution. It became evident, however, in the course of the winter of 1866, that Cox was receiving encouragement from the administration, and the earnest women interested in this Asylum resolved to go in person to the President, and present a statement of the strong claims of their Institution for protection in the possession of the property abandoned by its disloyal owner under circumstances which seemed to them to place him beyond the reach of all wise executive clemency. On the day fixed for the interview an assemblage of nearly a hundred ladies of the first social and intellectual standing in the National Capital gathered at the Executive mansion. The Secretary of War, Mr. Stanton, who believed in the righteousness of their purpose and who was an efficient friend of the Asylum in many emergencies, was present to give the ladies an introduction to the President. Mrs. Senator Trumbull was selected to make the appeal, and she performed the duty with remarkable clearness and force of statement and striking dignity of manner. She began by affirming that "treason is the greatest crime known to the law, and should be made odious," adroitly weaving her argument from the language in which the President had put himself on record so abundantly both in his own State and after becoming the Chief Magistrate of the country. After receiving a courteous but indefinite reply, the ladies withdrew, fully satisfied that an unconditional pardon would be granted to Cox. In the object sought and in the

circumstances of the occasion, the delegation was one of the most remarkable that ever presented a petition at the Presidential mansion, and loyal men and women will long believe that it was deference to traitors which withheld a compliance with the request of the petitioners. In the summer the Attorney General signified to the association that he was in favor of pardoning Cox. It is due to Mr. Speed to say that, in taking this ground, he assigned as his reason that the class of rebels to which Cox belonged had been embraced in the President's scheme, and that he could see no just reason for making this an exceptional case. In June the pardon was granted, and on August 17 General Howard informed the association that the President had requested him to procure a place for the orphans, in order to restore the estate to Cox.

The association went immediately to the preparation of a new Home. They bought a valuable tract, consisting of five lots on the extension of Eighth street, in Washington, just beyond the boundary, paying $2,500 for the property; and the Freedmen's Bureau, under the guidance of General O. O. Howard, proceeded without delay to build a spacious, well planned, two-story frame structure for the Home. Congress, October 2, 1866, appropriated $5,000 for the use of the association, and from this sum they paid for the land. On the 6th of November, when the time given to move by the President had expired, the Secretary of War, seeing that the new Home was yet untenantable, assumed the authority to say that they should not be disturbed for another month. On the 7th of December Cox went to the Home, with officers, took off the doors and hinges, and removed all the furniture, rendering it unsafe and impossible for the occupants to remain. General Howard in this emergency offered to furnish them such quarters as could be found till the new Home was completed, but the association decided to move at once to the unfinished house. Cox laid claim to the frame building which had been built by the association, but the question was promptly settled by General Howard, who sent a sufficient force to remove it rapidly from the premises. Cox subsequently brought an action against the association for damages, in the sum of $10,000, although the association had expended $3,000 in improving the property, these improvements including the introduction of water into the buildings. The suit, however, was dropped. In the summer of 1867 the Bureau finished the house, which makes a very excellent Home. The grounds were, during the same period, terraced, and a fine lot for a garden separately enclosed, in which are raised sufficient vegetables for the family during the summer. The parlor was handsomely furnished last year by the exertions of Mrs. Madison, an efficient and benevolent colored woman of Washington, who gathered the money for the purpose among her friends. The haste with which the association was compelled to take its children to the new unfinished home in December, 1865, caused some unusual sickness, and, it was believed, hastened death in several cases. With this exception health has prevailed in the Asylum to an uncommon degree.

The Home is governed by a matron, who is subject to the direction of an executive committee, from whom she holds her office. The first matron was Mrs. Hull, chosen June 2, 1863, the day after the Home was moved to Georgetown, her service continuing only to the 25th of July following, when Miss Page, of Washington, took the place in the emergency. Miss Wilbur, of Rochester, was immediately elected; but declining, the office was filled by Miss Jeannette Jackson, who, assuming charge September 18, 1863, was exceedingly successful. The association, when, by reason of ill health, she resigned, January 27, 1864, expressed their deep sense of her superior work in a formal resolution of the executive board. It being at that time deemed desirable to have a man and wife in charge, Mr. J. B. Walt and wife were elected to the duties. They served acceptably for several months, resigning the charge to Mrs. Lucy L. Coleman, in the summer of 1864. In September, 1864, Mrs. Coleman resigned, and was succeeded by Miss Read, who also resigned January 16, 1865, Mrs. C. J. B. Nichols, of Connecticut, being elected as matron on the same day. Mrs. Nichols continued in charge with much capacity and success till, called to other duties, she resigned February 6, 1866. Her successor was Miss Eunice L. Strong, of Ohio, who filled the arduous place from February, 1866, to October, 1868, with the greatest fidelity and good judgment, her resignation causing universal regret among the friends of the asylum.

She was succeeded by Mrs. Olive Freeman, who is managing the affairs of the institution with much wisdom and success at the present time.

No assistant matron was employed in the Home till the Educational Commission of Boston, in May, 1864, kindly volunteered to send Mrs. Carr to the institution for that duty. Mrs. Carr remained in the Home in various duties till February, 1866. In this period Miss Seymour served for a time as assistant matron, resigning in June, 1866, by reason of ill health. Subsequently Mrs. Songers, of New York, was filling that position, and in 1867 she was in charge of the industrial school. In June, 1866, the Young Ladies' Christian Union, of Worcester, Massachusetts, sent Miss Hattie Stickney, of New Hampshire, to the Home as assistant matron, and still continue to support her in that position, which she fills with the highest success and approbation.

The Providence Colored Orphan Asylum in April, 1863, offered to adopt into their asylum in Rhode Island 12 colored children—orphans desired—which proposition was accepted, the children being sent as soon as suitable selections could be made.

The school was organized early in June, 1863, as soon as the children were gathered into their home on Georgetown Heights, and it has been continued till now with the utmost efficiency and success. Miss Emma Brown, a very capable colored young lady of Georgetown, took charge of the school when it was first organized, and continued there with admirable success during all her summer vacation, she being at that time a teacher in one of the Washington free schools. Miss Maria R. Mann succeeded her in September, 1863, remaining till January 11, 1865. During her service much exertion was used to secure a good school-house, the school at first being held in the parlor, and subsequently in a very inconvenient temporary structure. In the autumn of 1863 Miss Mann visited Boston under the sanction of the asylum, and in its service received from Boston friends $600 in money, besides many school-books, maps, cards, and some school charts. She also purchased about 30 second-hand school desks at $2 50 each. The school-room at Georgetown, as already stated, was always inconvenient, small, and exposed to interruptions by persons passing through the house.

In December, 1863, the school numbered 22 children, and in the beginning of January, 1864, there were 37 scholars, at which time the asylum, which had now been at Georgetown six months, contained two aged women and 62 children. In May succeeding there were but 40 children, ranging from one year or less to twelve years of age, quite one-third being at that time, as previously, below the school age. The temporary buildings in the form of barracks—dining room, laundry, school-room, and dormitory—had been completed when the new year, 1864, opened. It is proper to state that when Miss Maria R. Mann's connection with the school was dissolved, in January, 1865, she deemed it just to withhold from the Home the funds and property which she had collected in Boston and elsewhere for school purposes, including a portable school-house sent from Boston, which had been for some months stored in Washington. In this action she was sustained by her friends who had contributed largely to the funds.

Miss Mann was succeeded temporarily by Miss Harding and Mrs. Carr, but in February the Freedmen's Aid Society of Worcester, Massachusetts, through the kind offices of Mrs. A. P. Earle of that city, sent Miss Sarah Robinson as a teacher, paying her salary. Under her care the school was maintained in its excellent condition and numbered at that period 46 scholars.

At the close of the summer term, June, 1865, Miss Robinson was compelled to relinquish her work by reason of ill health, much to the regret of the asylum. At the opening of the autumn term, however, the institution had the excellent fortune to secure the services of Miss Susan Towle, of Bangor, Maine. The Bangor Freedmen's Aid Association, learning that Miss Towle was giving her services, and thinking it unjust for her to do so, offered to pay her a salary, which they still continue to do.

The number of boys in the Home at the close of 1866 was 42, the number of girls 34; the number of children received during the year 1867 was 168, and the number remaining at the close of the year was 87. At the close of the year 1868 there were 89 inmates, (boys 53, girls 27, aged women 9,) some 25 being below school age. This is, without any excep-

tion, one of the best conducted and most admirable colored schools within the District. The school-room is spacious, handsomely supplied with furniture, convenient, cheerful in its appearance, in a healthy location, and the scholars, some 50 or 60 in number, progressing with uncommon rapidity. There is an industrial department connected with the school, in which the children are taught sewing, knitting, and straw-braiding, the large children being also each day employed in the labors of the household.

The institution is not limited to receiving orphan children, but also offers a home to destitute children at the request of the parents, on their making a written surrender of their claim; also on the request of one parent, in case of gross neglect or habitual drunkenness on the part of the other. The trustees are also authorized to bind out such children as may be deemed capable of learning trades, or of becoming useful in other occupations. The school is so divided that each child who is old enough attends the school daily. During the last year the school, in all its branches, has been managed by Miss Towle.

This institution has struggled hard to maintain its work and build a Home for a class whose claims upon the benevolent are very great. The women who have engaged in this noble work cannot all be mentioned in this condensed history. Many of them are seen in the lists of the officers, nearly all of whom were active, though some of the most efficient of the band do not appear in those lists. It will be deemed only a meed of justice, however, to mention Miss Eliza Heacock, of Philadelphia, whose unremitting work for several years as secretary is recognized by all who are familiar with the history of the association. Her fidelity in the preservation of the records, which in the struggles through which the Asylum has passed has been neither a small nor unimportant duty, extended to many other labors, contributing to the welfare, pecuniarily and otherwise, of the institution.

The Society of Friends in various States deserve to be mentioned for their large contributions in money and in laborers. Of those who started the institution none were more laborious and effective than Mrs. S. C. Pomeroy, Mrs. John F. Potter, Mrs. Daniel Breed, and Mrs. Lyman Trumbull, all of whom have passed to their reward, their mantles falling, it can be truly said, upon those who are still carrying onward wisely and well this elevated Christian enterprise.

The Freedmen's Bureau has been the arm of strength to the association in every emergency, and what these children of desolation are to do when the rations of the Bureau cease does not yet appear, though it is not to be doubted that they and their Home will be maintained by the government and by the fostering hands of humane men and women.

It was feared that the aid from the Freedmen's Bureau would be withdrawn January 1, 1869, under the limitations fixed by act of Congress to take effect at that date in the powers and work of the Bureau; but this misfortune has been for a time deferred by the action of the Commissioner in annexing the Home to the freedmen's hospital of the District, "so far as may be necessary for providing medical attendance, medicine, and rations for the inmates." At no distant day, however, the association will have to depend entirely on private benefactions.

Though attention has been almost exclusively directed to this Asylum as a home for the orphan, there have been aged and infirm women in its care from the first month of its existence, a very few in the first years, not usually in any period numbering above a dozen at a time.

Both Mrs. Potter and Mrs. Pomeroy died in 1863, the first year of the association. The annual report says:

"There were with us in the beginning two leading minds, especially distinguished by unselfish devotion to this holy cause; Mrs. Potter, of Wisconsin, and Mrs. Pomeroy, of Kansas, two of the originators of this enterprise, have passed from works to reward. Mrs. Potter left us early, but not until the good work had felt the impetus of her earnest spirit. The loss of our president, Mrs. Pomeroy, we have great reason to deplore. The Home has been justly called her monument. Declining the rest and change she needed, she remained with us during the summer's heat to aid in our work, still laboring with us even when life was waning, and her parting spirit sent us back a blessing with the prophet words, 'the Home will succeed.' We remember her words: ''Tis for a race, for millions we are working: let us forget ourselves.'"

In 1866 the association "sustained the loss of another of its original projectors and most earnest friends," Mrs. Gulielma Breed, of Washington. The annual report further adds:

"After a life of active usefulness in various departments, and many years of heroic and unflagging devotion to the cause of the oppressed and downtrodden, she was called to her reward. In the day when the record of those who have ministered unto Christ in the person of his needy ones shall be made up, many a sable son and daughter of Ethiopia will rise up and call her blessed."

Last year (1868) the association was again called to mourn over the death of a distinguished member, Mrs. Trumbull. The report continues:

"During the past year one of the earliest and warmest friends of the association, Mrs. Lyman Trumbull, of Illinois, has been called to her heavenly home. Although some months previous to her decease she had withdrawn from our membership, we knew that it was not from want of sympathy with our cause, but that her position as president of another and equally important charity claimed all the attention that her delicate health permitted her to bestow. As a beloved and valued officer of the association, and a liberal contributor to its funds, a friend wise in counsel, gentle and lovely in spirit, her name will ever be held in grateful remembrance by those who had the pleasure of being connected with her in this work of labor and love. 'The sacred memory of the just shall flourish though they sleep in dust.'"

MISS WASHINGTON AND MISS JONES.

Miss Washington's excellent school has already been referred to under Period I. Subsequently she moved to a house on L street near her mother's, remaining there till 1861, when she opened a school in the hall over the feed store of Alfred Jones, in company with Matilda Jones, a daughter of the owner of the building. Miss Jones was one of the most talented of Miss Miner's scholars, and was her assistant in 1859. She went to Oberlin through Miss Miner's influence. They continued the school with eminent success three years, averaging more than a hundred scholars through that period. In the spring of 1864 Miss Jones went back to Oberlin to finish her studies, and Miss Washington went in September to the Baptist church corner of Nineteenth and I streets, to take charge of the Boston School when it was first opened. When, afterwards, this school was under the charge of Miss Capron and Miss Flagg, Miss Washington became an assistant under these white teachers, and Miss Jones, returning in 1865 from Oberlin, joined the school as associate with Miss Washington, the three ladies making a corps of teachers not surpassed by any other in the District. Miss Jones became subsequently the wife of Rev. S. W. Madden, pastor of the First Baptist church in Alexandria. When the Boston School was disbanded in 1867, Miss Washington became connected with the public schools, in which she is still doing admirable service as a teacher.

ST. ALOYSIUS' SCHOOL FOR GIRLS.

There are in the District but five colored schools exclusively for girls. Mrs. Ellen B. Wood came here from Philadelphia, where she had been teaching many years, and started a school in 1863 on Fifteenth street, opposite Scott square, in the western part of the city; moving to E street north, between First and Second streets west, in 1864, and thence to the corner of Third street west and G street north in 1867. The school has now taken up its home in two very good rooms, recently finished for the purpose, in the Parochial School building connected with St. Aloysius church, under the auspices of which the school is now conducted. Mrs. Wood was born in Hayti, but coming early to Philadelphia was educated with white children in that city, excepting in French, which she learned in a colored school under a Haytien teacher. She taught a mixed colored and white school in Camden, New Jersey, for a period, and afterwards built up a large colored school in Philadelphia, which numbered a hundred pupils, when it was surrendered into the hands of the Sisters of Providence in 1862. Her work in Washington has grown from a few pupils into a large school with two departments, the average number being about 80 girls. The assistant, Elizabeth Brown, a native of Philadelphia, was educated at the convent in Baltimore, where she spent five years at St. Frances Academy. She is well-educated, and competent to teach Latin, French, and music, as well as the primary branches. This school is free to all who are unable to pay.

SAINT MARTIN'S SCHOOLS.

St. Martin's school for girls is under the charge of two teachers from Baltimore. The principal, Mary S. Noel, was a member of the sisterhood of the Baltimore convent, but has been detached to engage in teaching. The assistant, Miss Julia Smith, was educated at the St. Frances Academy. St. Martin's school was established in the summer of 1866 through the exertions of Rev. Charles T. White, D. D., pastor of St. Matthew's church, and is not yet fully systematised. The female academy, which is designed to be a seminary of the higher grade, has hitherto, for want of accommodations, been conducted in connection with the parochial female school of St. Martin's (colored) church. It is now in contemplation to have them separated. These schools at present occupy a large building at the junction of L street north and Vermont avenue; the academy comprising at the present time more than 40 and the parochial school 45 pupils. There is also an academy for boys and a parochial school for boys, each numbering about 30 scholars. The principal is Mr. John McCosker, who was educated at the Georgetown College. A small night school for adults is also kept up.

MISS MANN'S SCHOOL.

After Miss Mann gave up the charge of the Orphan Asylum school in Georgetown, in January, 1865, she established a private school, near the corner of 17th and M streets, for older colored children of both sexes, intending to give it the character of a Normal school, as far as the material of the school would allow. In the summer of 1867, however, the Trustees arranged with Miss Mann to connect the school with the public schools of the District, giving it the rank of a high school. It now numbers about fifty scholars, those more advanced being sent to it both from Georgetown and Washington. It has been conducted with system, thoroughness, and energy, and there are several girls of the school, who will soon be fitted to act as teachers. At the opening of the year 1869, its connection with the public schools was dissolved by the action of the Trustees, and it is therefore at present a private and independent school.

J. R. FLETCHER'S SCHOOLS.

In the spring of 1864 Mr. J. M. Perkins started an evening school and a Sabbath school in the Soldiers' Free Library building in Judiciary Square; both which passed into the hands of Mr. J. R. Fletcher, of the Treasury Department, in the following autumn. Mr. Fletcher is an enthusiastic and thorough teacher, and familiar with the best methods of the Massachusetts schools. Under his excellent management the schools rapidly increased, and soon reached their present numbers, about 75 in the evening school and 110 in the Sabbath school; three-fourths of whom were slaves before the war. The free contributions from the scholars have paid for a part of the expenses, and he has been aided in part by one or two Aid Societies and by his personal friends, in addition to what he himself has expended. For example, the American Tract Society of Boston furnished the fuel during the first winter and the American Missionary Association the second winter, and the Unitarian Church has made some contributions. Teachers of different denominations have aided him, as he desired to make it a *union* and unsectarian work. In January, 1868, Mr. Fletcher having previously been made general Superintendent of the schools under the direction of the "Washington Christian Union," his night school was included in their work, they assuming the responsibility of making up any deficit that might arise in the support of the school. It has been his aim to draw to the school older and more advanced pupils, and he has recently organized an adult class of 25 scholars in the hope, eventually, of establishing a thorough Normal course, and fitting such a class, or a portion of them, to be useful and well informed teachers—at present one of the most important objects in the education of the colored people. The Sabbath school is one of the most flourishing and best organized in the District, and is quite independent of any aid or church society. It is called the "Puritan Free Mission Sabbath School."

JOSEPH AMBUSH'S AND OTHER SCHOOLS.

Joseph Ambush, a colored man, free born, opened a school in 1862, July 1, on New York avenue between Fourth and Fifth streets, which soon averaged, during a part of the year,

75 scholars, and now averages nearly that number. Mr. Ambush's father was a slave. He himself attended John F. Cook's school, and for many years was a servant in the family of Commissary General George Gibson, in whose family he received a good deal of instruction. In 1867 he moved his school to the school room connected with Asbury church, corner of Eleventh and K streets. More than half the scholars belong to contraband families, most of them quite poor, but they all appear very well, and the school is well conducted. Mr. Ambush is a nephew of Enoch Ambush, already mentioned. He speaks of General Gibson and his family as being very kind to him, and always ready to aid him in his efforts to get an education.

Mrs. C. W. Grove, in 1863, came from New York city and opened a private school on I street between Nineteenth and Twentieth streets. In the following summer she was employed by the Pennsylvania Freedmen's Aid Society in their school in Galbraith chapel, where she remained until June, 1867, when she was engaged by the Trustees of the colored public schools, at first teaching in the school on Twenty-fourth and F streets, and afterwards in the M street school. About the last of December, 1868, her connection with the public school ceased by order of the Trustees, and she soon opened a private school on Twenty-third street near the Circle.

Mrs. Louisa Ricks, who came to Washington from Texas, opened a school for girls about two years ago in the barrack building on I street near Seventeeth street west. She is assisted by Miss Eva Dickinson from Connecticut, who teaches music on the piano, the school being provided with a good instrument. The scholars number about 50, and 16 are taking music lessons.

January 4, 1869, Rev. Chauncey Leonard, pastor of the Second Baptist church, (colored,) opened a day school at the corner of Third and G streets, and has an average attendance of fifty-five scholars of both sexes, with one assistant teacher. Most of the scholars pay a small tuition fee, but the receipts do not cover the expenses of the school, and the balance is paid by Rev. Mr. Leonard, in addition to his services as teacher.

COLFAX INDUSTRIAL MISSION.

This institution owes its origin to an unpretending association of the teachers of the Sabbath school at Wisewell barracks, which held its first meeting November 7, 1867, at those barracks, on the corner 7th and O streets. The Sabbath school was organized by these teachers in the autumn of 1866, the American Tract Society having discontinued its work at that place in the previous spring. The Sabbath school was under the superintendence of John A. Cole, and still remains under his supervision. The leading purpose of the teachers was to maintain an Industrial school, which had been supported by the Tract Society. On the 20th of May, 1868, with the plan of securing a more permanent place for their school, they adopted a constitution and entered into a full organization, with the following officers: John A. Cole, President; Charles H. Bliss, Vice President; S. C. Hotchkiss, treasurer; Miss J. M. Alvord, secretary; John A. Cole, Rev. G. A. Hall, Samuel Barron, John H. Cook, Charles H. Bliss, trustees. The committee who prepared the constitution consisted of E. Whittlesey, Charles H. Bliss, Rev. J. W. Alvord. At the same meeting a committee, consisting of Mr. Alvord, Rev. John Kimball, and Mr. Wolcott, was appointed to make inquiries and report as to a lot upon which to build a house. They reported, at a meeting, May 9th, 1868, that a suitable lot had been found, and that the American Missionary association would furnish the requisite funds for its purchase. The lot, about one hundred feet square, on the corner of R and Eleventh streets, was purchased for $2,500, and the Missionary Association furnished $1,600 in part payment. Messrs. Cole, Bliss, and Barron were added to the committee, and they were now recognized as the building committee.

The edifice, which was opened with the new year, is about 45 by 95 feet, two stories, and is composed of the same material as the Howard University. It was erected by the Freedmen's bureau and when completed will have cost about $20,000. The lower story consists of one school room capable of seating eight or nine hundred persons, with two recitation

rooms, the upper story comprising a large industrial room, and some eight or ten smaller rooms for various kinds of industrial employment.

The Sunday school of this Association has an average attendance of more than six hundred scholars of all ages, and the industrial school, held every Saturday, averages about 200 girls, who are taught various kinds of work upon cloth, as well as useful occupations connected with house-keeping. These schools are in the care of an association of ladies with the following officers: Mrs. C. P. Bliss, President; Mrs. E. W. Robinson, Vice President; Miss Ella Cole, treasurer, Miss J. M. Alvord, secretary. These schools were moved to the new building on new year's day, 1869, and the American Missionary Association took it in charge, furnishing a missionary, Rev. G. N. Marden, of Orland, Maine, who conducts the benevolent work. The Colored Mechanic's Association is to have its headquarters here, and besides the schools and Sunday worship, there are to be lectures upon useful subjects. Miss Ella Cole, formerly of the Christian Commission, is at present in the service of the Missionary association. A night school has been organized, and is attended by over 200 scholars, who pay a small tuition fee, 25 cents a month. The Trustees propose to establish an Industrial school for boys, with shops and utensils for teaching useful trades; also a school for adult women. Mr. John A. Cole is the present Superintendent of the Institution. The Executive Committee consists of the Trustees, with eight others, E. Whittlesey, Rev. J. W. Alvord, Rev. John Kimball, Rev. G. N. Marden, S. C. Hotchkiss, A. S. Pratt, A. P. Eastman, Warren Brown. Steps have been taken to secure a charter for the institution.

MISS WALKER'S INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

Among the Industrial schools for the freedmen, that of Miss Susan Walker is a prominent and very useful one. Though strictly outside the city limits, it may very properly be included among the schools of Washington. Miss Walker is a cousin of Rev. James Walker, D. D., for many years president of Harvard College, and a sister of Judge Walker, the late eminent lawyer and jurist of Cincinnati, and at one time a partner of Chief Justice Chase. On the breaking out of the war she devoted herself to the welfare of the soldiers in hospitals and to the freedmen, being one of the first who in 1862 went to Port Royal for the relief of the freedmen, who had gathered there in great numbers and were in a suffering condition. In 1865 she was urged, and in September was formally appointed, to organize an industrial school among the freedmen at Campbell barracks, near the terminus of the Seventh street railroad. December 1 the school was opened in one of the barrack buildings, and soon Miss Walker had under training, six hours a day, about 70 scholars, mostly women, who were taught various kinds of plain sewing, she preparing the work for them, cutting the garments, &c., in the evening. As these women could not afford to take the time even for instruction, unless receiving some remuneration, Miss Walker adopted the plan of paying them proportionately from the articles of clothing made. In September of the next year, 1866, a regiment of cavalry took up its quarters near her school, causing her great annoyance and much anxiety, as well as disturbing the school work. The officer in command gave her assurance of the fullest protection, but the soldiers finally broke into the school-house, and destroyed or took away private property and private papers, a summary way of declaring their creed on the subject of educating contrabands. In November the school was removed to Wisewell barracks, and speedily reorganized with an increase of scholars. The general plan and purpose of Miss Walker in this most unpretentious but most useful work are best seen in the following extract from her report of 1866 and 1867: "During the session of three months instruction and employment were given to 315 women and 12 men and boys; 819 garments, consisting of every variety of clothing for men, women, and children, were made in the school. The Bureau furnished material for 70 pairs of pants, 60 pairs of drawers, and 57 shirts, for the making of which $60 were received. The surgeon-in-chief of the Bureau paid from eight to ten rations per month for work done for the hospital. These rations were divided as part payment among the women, who during the winter desired food rather than clothing; 600 garments were also given as additional payment. Service places in and around Washington were found for 100 women, and 30 others were provided with employment out of the District. The Bureau provides school room and fuel. The teacher gives her time and service, and

provides material from such sources as she can command. The results of the two years are most gratifying. With few exceptions the women had but recently exchanged the shovel and the hoe for the needle and thimble. They had not ventured to use the scissors. In a few weeks, however, they have learned to cut and make a variety of garments. During the first school year ten freedwomen, 'field hands' in slavery, cut and made, economically and neatly, 300 pairs of men's pants. Others have learned to do fine sewing, and have made fine linen shirts in the best manner. To-day a woman came to thank me for teaching her, as she now earns $3 a week with her needle. She prefers it to the shovel. The school was commenced with the desire that, if possible, no money should be expended for teaching. With the exception of one month, during which a refugee from New Orleans was placed in the school as an assistant, the teaching and charge of the school has been a free gift, gladly offered. As fast as women learn to be useful they are required to teach others. The purpose of the school is *to help the freedwomen to help themselves.* It is not so much to furnish employment and do a large quantity of work, as to teach them how to do well whatever they undertake. The object is to aid them to become self-supporting and independent; to encourage in them habits of industry, economy, and cleanliness; to elevate them in character and condition; and to inspire an ambition for self-improvement." In August, 1867, Miss Walker, to secure a permanent location for her school, bought a lot near the spot where she first opened it, and on this lot the Bureau erected a commodious building, to which the school was moved in April, 1868. It is situated near the base of the ridge of land on which the Howard University is built. In the first four months of that year, while still at Wisewell barracks, 1,745 garments were made specially for the Bureau, which supplied the material. During the last year Miss Walker has given one hour a day to instructing a portion of the scholars in reading and writing. The importance of this and every well-managed industrial school, in advancing the best interests of the freedmen, can hardly be over-estimated. Mrs. Doolittle, wife of Prof. M. H. Doolittle, of the Naval Observatory, established and carried on in Georgetown in 1865–'66 a large and very successful industrial school for freedwomen, giving instruction to 120, mostly adults, and there are others who have done and are doing much good in this important department of benevolent work.

THE TWO NATIONAL THEOLOGICAL INSTITUTES AND UNIVERSITIES.

The first attempt to organize an institution to train colored men for the ministry was commenced in January, 1865, by Rev. Edmund Turney, D.D., a Calvinist Baptist clergyman of some eminence in the denomination. Dr. Turney came here in that month, and through his activity a meeting was held in the First Baptist Church, on the first day of February, to discuss the subject, and at an adjourned meeting on the 13th of the same month the plan of a seminary, under the name of the "National Theological Institute for Colored Ministers," was completed, and Dr. Turney was elected president. It was chartered by Congress, under that name, May 10, 1866; and by an amendatory act, March 2, 1867, the institution was expanded into a University, embracing in its designs of culture "others than those connected with the Christian ministry." This enlargement produced a rupture in the association. The Boston Baptist people, mostly clergymen, wished the institution to be confined exclusively to the education of ministers and teachers, and a portion of the executive committee of the corporation, claiming to be the executive board, and acting in harmony with the Boston friends, met at Newark, New Jersey, in May, 1867, and by formal vote resolved to hold the new powers "in abeyance," to transfer the "institute" and the seat of its operations from Washington to Boston, which transfer in a circular they subsequently announced had been done. The portion of the executive committee in favor of the "university" plan resisted the Newark movement, and carrying the question to the Court of this District were fully sustained by its decisions in their resistance, the Court deciding that the corporation by the terms of its charter, must reside here, and ordering the funds of the corporation, which had been tranferred to Boston, to be returned. The decision of the Court is as follows:

"The corporate functions of said corporation were, by said act, intended to be exercised in said District, and that the books, funds, and assets of said corporation should be within the jurisdiction of this Court," and it ordered that "the defendants, or such of them as hold

or have control of said books, funds, and assets beyond said jurisdiction, return the same to the said jurisdiction, to the end that the same may be subject to the further order of this Court," May 26, 1868. The Court has no knowledge at this time, January, 1869, that the order has been obeyed.

In March, 1867, the Freedmen's Bureau turned over to the institution ten thousand dollars from the refugees and freedmen's fund, under the act of Congress authorizing the Bureau to assist in the establishment of institutions of learning for the benefit of the colored people. It is understood, however, that the Bureau took the ground that it was authorized so to do under the amendment, which transformed the institution from a Theological Seminary into a school of general culture. This donation is the bone of contention between these two rival parties, who are aiming at the same beneficent object.

Meanwhile the Boston section of the double-headed University, which, like Dr. Turney's, claims to be "The National Theological Institute and University," completed their organization. This new school was put into operation last autumn, under the instruction of Rev. G. M. P. King, a young man of excellent qualities, from the State of Maine, and, with a female assistant, he has now in his school upwards of 40 men, ranging from 18 years of age up to 45, and a small class of girls who are preparing to become teachers. The Soldiers' Free Library Building, on Judiciary Square, is their school house, and a large barrack building on I street, near Seventeenth, is the home of the young men—serving for dormitories and study rooms, with cooking quarters and dining hall attached—all fitted up in a comfortable manner, capable of accommodating 35 students. Sixteen are studying for the ministry.

The first two years of Dr. Turney's work in this District attracted much attention, and the success with which he trained his theological class received the marked commendation of all friends of the cause here and elsewhere. His operations, down to March 1, 1867, gave the Boston friends special satisfaction, as appears from the very high encomiums which were at that period accorded to him by nearly all the leading Baptist clergymen of Boston and vicinity, in a circular issued by the managers of the enterprise. Dr. Turney's University scheme embraces the plan of a central school in the District of Columbia, with subordinate institutions of a normal, preparatory, and industrial character, established at desirable points throughout the south. During his first year his work here included a series of night-schools for men and women, who were intending to teach or preach, and this work he prosecuted with great assiduity, showing faith in his cause and in the mode chosen to promote it. In March, 1868, his second year, he opened a day school in a large building on Louisiana avenue, near Seventh street, and continued it till September, 1867, when it was removed to a spacious government structure, corner of Twenty-second street west and I north, where it has been to the present time. This school was large, some 45 in number, at its opening, and has so continued. About thirty-five young men are pursuing Theological studies. The system of subordinate schools in the region bordering upon the city and District has been maintained from the beginning with persistency, and his friends here and abroad are firm in his support. This University is the first one, designed specifically for freedmen, ever incorporated in the country. In August, 1867, he published a plan of a "Female Collegiate Institute," with a full board of instruction. Dr. Turney has an evening school in his school building of about 30 scholars, not including theological students, and in February, 1869, he opened another evening school in the Fifth Colored Baptist church on Verment avenue, commencing with 30 men, many of whom had been his pupils. This school is under his personal instruction. In the same building a school for colored women, now numbering 25 scholars, is held two afternoons a week, under the management of Dr. Turney, but taught by Miss Lavinia Warner, colored. On Capitol Hill he has established an afternoon school, numbering about 25 scholars, including some of his theological students, one of whom, Washington Waller, has the personal charge of the school, which is taught five afternoons in the week. This same teacher has an evening school of about 15 scholars in the small colored Baptist church on Fourteenth street, at "Murder Bay." John Johnson, another of Dr. Turney's scholars, has a small evening school in the Pennsylvania Friend's building, on Nineteenth street west, near the boundary. Dr. Turney has also a school five evenings in the week at Freedmen's Village, Arlington, under his direction. Robert S. Laws, a scholar in the Wayland Theological Seminary and who preaches at Arlington, has the

supervision of this school, which averages about 100 scholars. Mrs. Ellen Reeves, sister of Mr. W. Syphax, is the teacher. This is the only school now at Arlington, but a day school is about to be started under the direction of Dr. Turney, with Miss Julia Howard, a white teacher from Boston, as the instructor. In organizing and encouraging these night and afternoon schools, Dr. Turney has been doing a very useful work.

WAYLAND THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY.

This institution had its origin in the "Boston School," which was established in the basement of the First Colored Baptist Church, corner of Nineteenth and I streets, in September, 1864, by the New England Freedmen's Aid Commmission, an association of prominent benevolent persons of the Baptist denomination in Boston, and is not to be confounded with the New England Freedmen's Aid Society. The seminary was eminently successful, being very fortunate in its teacher, Lucy A. Flagg, and her assistants. Early in 1866 the above named Aid Commission arranged with the American Baptist Home Missionary Society to take the school, and in May the Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau offered that society a large government building for its use. The offer was accepted; a fine lot adjoining the church was purchased by the society; the barrack structure was transferred to the lot by the Bureau, and the school opened in the autumn as a Normal School. In July, 1867, it was converted into a Theological Seminary proper, under the remarkably judicious charge of Reverend S. B. Gregory, President, assisted by Mrs. S. B. Gregory and Miss Sarah Utley, all from New York State, and it has been doing a work, for the past two years, of great value to the cause, securing the respect of all who have enjoyed or observed its mode of instruction. The present number of students is about 36.

When the American Baptist Home Missionary Society was putting the Wayland School into operation in the spring of 1866, the managers of the "National Institute and University" solicited the society to assume the charge of the University, and make Dr. Turney president. The proposition was accepted by the society, but Dr. Turney declined to co-operate with the Home Missionary Society. This is believed to be a correct statement of the very unfortunate course of events which have resulted in the establishment in Washington of three separate Theological schools, under the auspices of one religious denomination. It should be stated however, that "The Wayland Seminary" is not identified with the very unfortunate alienation.

THE HOWARD UNIVERSITY.

The originators of this institution were a small band of men earnestly enlisted in the work of elevating the colored race. They were all northern men, and nearly all of them connected with the New Congregational Church and Society of Washington. The credit of originating the scheme belongs to Reverend B. F. Morris, of Cincinnati, Ohio, who was at that time in government employment in the District, and who subsequently, in a fit of melancholy, committed suicide at Springfield, Ohio. Mr. Morris was the son of Thomas Morris, one of the early anti-slavery men, a native of Virginia, who, while a senator in Congress from Ohio, from 1833 to 1839, was one of the bold, able, and foremost champions of freedom. Isaac N. Morris, a member of the House of Representatives from Illinois, during the thirty-fifth and the thirty-sixth Congress, and Jonathan D. Morris, who was a member of the thirty-first Congress from Ohio, are sons of Thomas Morris. Reverend B. F. Morris possessed a mind of remarkable originality, and was a man of generous and philanthropic sentiments. His original idea was to found an institution to train colored men for teachers and preachers. He presented his plan to his pastor, Reverend Charles B. Boynton, D. D., who entered cordially into the scheme, and subsequently to other friends. At this time Mr. H. A. Brewster also was considering a plan for a missionary association, with the same object in view, and how the project of the latter was turned to the purposes of the former, appears in the proceedings of the preliminary meetings, of which the following is a condensed history:

On the 20th of November, 1866, the first meeting was held, which initiated this great educational enterprise, and was suggested at a prayer meeting of the Congregational church held in the Columbia College Law Building, at which time Mr. Brewster made remarks on

the importance of doing something for the education of the colored race. Some twenty persons were present, nearly all members of the newly organized Congregational church, and in sympathy with Mr. Morris, who had come to the meeting to assist in turning the work in that direction. The record of this meeting says: "By invitation of H. A. Brewster a meeting was held at his house for the purpose of considering missionary interests as related to the prerogatives and responsibilities of the First Congregational church, and, if found expedient, to devise ways and means for the promotion of the same." Reverend Charles B. Boynton, D. D., after opening the meeting with prayer, called upon Reverend Benjamin F. Morris, who set forth his plan of a theological seminary, having in view the training of colored men for the ministry, Mr. Brewster having previously explained the purpose of the meeting. The views of Mr. Morris, which he stated to be "the result of reflection and consultation with other brethren," were unanimously accepted, the name of "Howard Theological Seminary" being adopted for the institution, and the following officers elected: Chairman of meeting, H. A. Brewster; Secretary, E. M. Cushman; Trustees of seminary, O. O. Howard, C. B. Boynton, D. B. Nichols, B. F. Morris, H. A. Brewster, H. Barber, J. B. Hutchinson, R. H. Stevens, Henry Wilson, Samuel C. Pomeroy, B. C. Cook; committee on organization, C. B. Boynton, B. F. Morris, D. B. Nichols. In the course of the meeting, General Howard offered to build a seminary structure from the educational funds of the Freedmen's Bureau if the association would furnish a lot; and Mr. Brewster thereupon gave his verbal guarantee that the lot should be secured. At the second meeting, December 6, the report of the committee on organization was submitted by Mr. Nichols, and on his motion the name of the seminary was changed to that of "The Howard Normal and Theological Institute for the education of Teachers and Preachers." This change of name originated with Senator S. C. Pomeroy, who urged the establishment of a Normal Department, which appears to have especially contributed to the change of plan from a school of Theology to that of a school of general learning. Senator Pomeroy urged, among other arguments in favor of the normal feature, that it would place the seminary in a position to share in the bounty which Congress was destined, as he believed, to bestow for the encouragement of this class of professional schools. This was apparently the controlling idea in his mind in suggesting the expansion of the plan. Mr. Nichols seems to have been the foremost to favor Mr. Pomeroy's views; and it should be added that the motions in the meeting pertaining to the name of the institution in all its modifications, including its final and permanent form, are to be mainly accredited to him. It should still further be stated that in his report on organization, presented at this meeting, Mr. Nichols used the term "collegiate" in the name which he proposed for the institution, though nothing appears indicating the idea of any distinct enlargement of the range of culture beyond what had been previously contemplated. The suggestions of Senator Pomeroy seem to have so modified the views of all the others that the report of Mr. Nichols did not assume any formal importance in the organization of the institution, though it embodied some excellent features, which were adopted. Prof. Silas L. Loomis, M. D., now connected with the Medical department of the University, who was present at the second meeting, urged the establishment of a department to train the students in letter writing, and suggested a professorship of Belles Lettres to that end. He also suggested, in connection with a plan of medical instruction, the name of Howard to be applied to the institution. The fact seems to be that both the name and the plan were gradually developed in the general discussion at the meetings and elsewhere, and that neither the one nor the other originated with any one individual. The original purpose was to build a school essentially Congregational in its character, and exclusively under the control and guidance of the Washington Congregational church, and much resistance was encountered, as the plan developed, by those who became the advocates of an expanded scheme. Senators S. C. Pomeroy and Henry Wilson seem to have been among the most judicious and influential actors and counsellors in the whole task.

The following committees were then elected: Finance, J. B. Johnson, H. A. Brewster, W. G. Finney; building and grounds, O. O. Howard, S. C. Pomeroy, H. Barber—S. L. Loomis being added at the next meeting; library, D. B. Nichols, B. F. Morris, E. Ketchum. At the third meeting, December 18, the various committees reported; that upon building and

grounds being authorized to purchase the property near the terminus of the Seventh street railroad, as proposed. A committee, consisting of Senator Wilson, Senator Pomeroy, and Hon. B. C. Cooke, was chosen to obtain a charter. The Board of Trustees was increased to 15 by the addition of W. F. Bascom, C. H. Howard, E. H. Robinson, and E. M. Cushman, a still further increase being made at the next meeting by the addition of S L. Loomis, J. B. Johnson, and W. G. Finney. At the fourth meeting, January 8, 1867, the following officers were elected: C. B. Boynton, President Board of Trustees; H. A. Brewster, Vice President; E. M. Cushman, Secretary; J. B. Hutchinson, Treasurer; D. B. Nichols, Superintendent of institution and Librarian. At this meeting, after remarks by C. H. Howard, C. B. Boynton, and H. A. Brewster, on the subject of the name of the institution, on motion of D. B. Nichols, seconded by Dr. Boynton, who urged with much earnestness the propriety of sending down the name of Howard to the coming centuries in connection with the institution, the name was again changed to that of "The Howard University," under which it was chartered. Measures were also adopted looking to the organization of a Medical and Law department.

At the second meeting of the Board of Trustees the establishment of an Agricultural department was a topic of discussion. General O. O. Howard introduced the matter of the "Miner Institution," which incorporated and holding property in the city of Washington, has in view purposes cognate to those of the Howard University, and suggested the leasing of the property of that institution at six per cent. per annum upon the purchase price. At this meeting, in connection with the report of S. L. Loomis, embracing a plan of a Medical department, and on motion of D. B. Nichols it was made a condition of eligibility to a place in the board of instruction in the University that the candidate "furnish satisfactory evidence of Christian character." This provision was subsequently struck out and the following substituted: "*Resolved*, That every person elected to any position in the Howard University shall be a member of some Evangelical church," a change which, it is understood, the Trustees have determined to modify.

At the sixth meeting, being the third of the Board of Trustees, Dr. Boynton presented the outlines of the charter of the Michigan University as a basis for that of the Howard University. General O. O. Howard then presented the bill which Senator Wilson had introduced into the United States Senate to incorporate the Howard University; General O. O. Howard and Senator Wilson being appointed a committee to revise and present it in its revised form to Congress. The question whether provision by the charter should be made for the admission of females, was freely and with lively interest discussed at this time, the prevailing sentiment being that no distinction should be made. General O. O. Howard was among those not favoring the admission of females. It was also voted to lease the property purchased by the bounty funds at $1,200 per annum, lease to date from January 26, 1867; and that a Normal and Preparatory school be forthwith opened.

The original purpose in founding this Institution was to educate the colored race exclusively; to train men for preachers, teachers and missionaries, both in this country and in Africa. This was distinctly set forth in the plan of organization, as reported by Reverend D. B. Nichols at an early preliminary meeting. Senator Pomeroy and Dr. Boynton took ground in favor of the expanded scheme as embodied in the charter, which was drafted by Dr. Boynton, and which extends the privileges of the institution to both sexes and all colors. It has already been stated that General Howard was averse to this feature, which contemplated the union of the sexes and colors in the school, and so expressed himself at the time the provisions of the charter were discussed. It is an interesting fact to observe that while Oberlin College embarked on its work as a school for white scholars, and was changed to embrace colored, the Howard University started as exclusively a colored school, and was soon enlarged, and opened its door to all. It is perhaps hardly necessary to add that General O. O. Howard has been from the beginning, through all its stages, the great sustaining pillar of the enterprise.

Subjoined is the charter as it was passed by Congress and sanctioned by the President, March 2, 1867:

"ACT to incorporate the Howard University.

"*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress Assembled,* That there be established, and is hereby established, in the District of Columbia, a University for the education of youth in the liberal arts and sciences, under the name, style, and title of 'The Howard University.'

"SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That Samuel C. Pomeroy, Charles B. Boynton, Oliver O. Howard, Burton C. Cook, Charles H. Howard, James B. Hutchinson, Henry A. Brewster, Benjamin F. Morris, Danforth B. Nichols, William G. Finney, Roswell H. Stevens, E. M. Cushman, Hiram Barber, E. W. Robinson, W. F. Bascom, J. B. Johnson, and Silas L. Loomis be, and they are hereby declared to be a body politic and corporate, with perpetual succession in deed or in law, to all intents and purposes whatsoever, by the name, style, and title of "The Howard University," by which name and title they and their successors shall be competent at law and in equity to take to themselves and their successors, for the use of said University, any estate whatsoever in any messuage, lands, tenements, hereditaments, goods, chattels, moneys, and other effects, by gift, devise, grant, donation, bargain, sale, conveyance, assurance, or will; and the same to grant, bargain, sell, transfer, assign, convey, assure, demise, declare to use and farm let, and to place out on interest, for the use of said University, in such manner as to them or a majority of them shall be deemed most beneficial to said institution; and to receive the same, their rents, issues and profits, income and interest, and to apply the same for the proper use and benefit of said University; and by the same name to sue and be sued, to implead and be impleaded in any court of law and equity, in all manner of suits, actions, and proceedings whatsoever, and generally, by and in the same name, to do and transact all and every the business touching or concerning the premises: *Provided,* That the same do not exceed the value of fifty thousand dollars annual net income over and above and exclusive of the receipts for the education and support of the students of said University.

"SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the first meeting of said corporators shall be holden at the time and place at which a majority of the persons herein above named shall assemble for that purpose; and six day's notice shall be given each of said corporators, at which meeting said corporators may enact by-laws, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, regulating the government of the corporation.

"SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the government of the University shall be vested in a Board of Trustees of not less than thirteen members, who shall be elected by the corporators at their first meeting. Said Board of Trustees shall have perpetual succession in deed or in law, and in them shall be vested the power hereinbefore granted to the corporation. They shall adopt a common seal, which they may alter at pleasure, under and by which all deeds, diplomas, and acts of the University shall pass and be authenticated. They shall elect a President, Secretary, and a Treasurer. The treasurer shall give such bonds as the Board of Trustees may direct. The said Board shall also appoint the professors and tutors, prescribing the number, and determining the amount of their respective salaries. They shall also appoint such other officers, agents, or employés as the wants of the University may from time to time demand, in all cases fixing their compensation. All meetings of said Board may be called in such manner as the Trustees shall prescribe, and nine of them so assembled shall constitute a quorum to do business, and a less number may adjourn from time to time.

"SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted,* That the University shall consist of the following departments, and such others as the Board of Trustees may establish: First, Normal; second, Collegiate; third, Theological; fourth, Law; fifth, Medicine; sixth, Agricultural.

"SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted,* That the immediate government of the several departments, subject to the control of the Trustees, shall be intrusted to their respective faculties; but the Trustees shall regulate the course of instruction, prescribe, with the advice of the professors, the necessary text-books, confer such degrees and grant such diplomas as are usually conferred and granted in other universities.

"SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted,* That the Board of Trustees shall have the power to remove any professor or tutor, or other officer connected with the institution, when in their judgment the interests of the University shall require it.

"SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted,* That the Board of Trustees shall make an annual report, making an exhibit of the affairs of the University.

"SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted,* That no misnomer of the said corporation shall defeat or annul any donation, gift, grant, devise, or bequest to or from the said corporation.

"SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted,* That the said corporation shall not employ its funds or income, or any part thereof, in banking operations, or for any purpose or object other than those expressed in the first section of this act; and that nothing in this act contained shall be so construed as to prevent Congress from altering, amending, or repealing the same.

"Approved March 2, 1867."

The corporators held a meeting March 19, 1868, and organized in the choice of a Board of Trustees, President, Secretary, and Treasurer, and a committee to prepare a code of by-laws—the executive committee, under the by-laws, being chosen at a subsequent meeting, May 6, 1867. This committee originally consisted of Charles B. Boynton, D. D., President of the

University and *ex officio* chairman; O. O. Howard, William F. Bascom, and E. W. Robinson; and to them were confided the supervision of the building operations and financial affairs of the corporation.

The following is a list of the trustees and other officers of the institution, together with dates of their election:

Trustees.—Hon. Samuel C. Pomeroy, United States senator from Kansas, March 19, 1867; Rev. Charles B. Boynton, D. D., Chaplain of the House of Representatives, and pastor of First Congregational church, Washington, D. C., March 19, 1867; Major General Oliver O. Howard, United States army, March 19, 1867; Hon. Burton C. Cook, member, from Illinois, of the United States House of Representatives, March 19, 1867; Brigadier General Charles H. Howard, United States volunteers, March 19, 1867; J. B. Hutchinson, esq., March 19, 1867; Henry A. Brewster, esq., March 19, 1867; Rev. Benjamin F. Morris, March 19, 1867; Rev. Danforth B. Nichols, March 19, 1867; William G. Finney, esq., March 19, 1867; Roswell H. Stevens, esq., March 19, 1867; E. M. Cushman, esq., March 19, 1867; Dr. Hiram Barber, March 19, 1867; Rev. E. W. Robinson, March 19, 1867; William F. Bascom, esq., March 19, 1867; James B. Johnson, esq., March 19, 1867; Dr. Silas L. Loomis, March 19, 1867; General George W. Balloch, March 19, 1867; Rev. Henry Highland Garnett, late pastor of the Fifteenth Street Presbyterian church, of colored people, Washington, D. C., April 8, 1867; Rev. Byron Sunderland, D. D., pastor of the First Presbyterian church, Washington, D. C., April 22, 1867; Rev. D. W. Anderson, pastor First Baptist church, of colored people, Washington, D. C., April 6, 1868; Judge Hugh L. Bond, Baltimore, May 4, 1868; Rev. J. W. Alvord, May 4, 1868.

Trustees resigned.—Rev. Charles B. Boynton, D. D., January 11, 1868; J. B. Hutchinson, esq., March 2, 1868; E. M. Cushman, esq., March 2, 1868.

Trustee deceased.—Rev. Benjamin F. Morris, June 28, 1867.

Presidents of the University.—Rev. Charles B. Boynton, D. D., March 19, 1867; resigned and ceased to act as Trustee, August 27, 1867; Rev. Byron Sunderland, D. D., August 27, 1867.

Secretaries of the Board.—E. M. Cushman, esq., March 19, 1867; resignation accepted December 20, 1867; E. W. Robinson, elected December 29, 1867.

Treasurer of the Board.—General George W. Balloch, March 19, 1867.

Collegiate Department.—General Eliphalet Whittlesey, Professor of Rhetoric and Belles-lettres, September 21, 1868; William F. Bascom, A. M., Professor of Greek and Latin, September 22, 1868.

Law Department.—Hon. A. G. Riddle, December 29, 1868; John M. Langston, esq., Professor, October 12, 1868.

Medical Department.—The President, *ex-officio* chairman; Silas L. Loomis, M. D., Dean; Joseph Taber Johnson, M. D., Secretary and Treasurer. Faculty.—Silas L. Loomis, M. D., Professor of Chemistry and Toxicology, May 4, 1868; Robert Reyburn, M. D , Professor of Anatomy, May 4, 1868; Joseph Taber Johnson, M. D., Professor of Materia Medica and Therapeutics, May 4, 1868; Lafayette C. Loomis, M. D., Professor of Physiology and Microscopy, September 21, 1868; Alexander T. Augusta, M. B., Demonstrator of Anatomy, September 21, 1868.

Standing Committee on Agriculture.—D. B. Nichols, October 12, 1868; J. W. Alvord, October 12, 1868; General George W. Balloch, October 12, 1868.

This committee was appointed with a view to the improvement of the university reservation, to the employment of students who may desire by labor to defray in part their expenses, and to the ultimate complete organization of the Agricultural Department. The need of an Education Society, to give aid to deserving and indigent youth—especially colored youth, who are almost without exception poor—is felt by the Board; but for the present the subject of aiding students, particularly by providing them labor, is referred to this committee.

Librarian.—Danforth B. Nichols, April 8, 1867.

Preparatory and Normal Department.—Principals.—E. F. Williams, from May 2, 1867; John H. Combs, September 10, 1867; A. L. Barber, April 13, 1868. Female Principal, Miss Julia A. Lord, June 25, 1867.

At the late meeting, December 29, 1868, the board elected Brigadier General Charles H. Howard to the chair of modern languages, which he declined, and at the same time a committee was chosen with the purpose in view to secure, if possible, the services of Major General O. O. Howard as President of the University. It should be here stated that the Presidency of the Board of Trustees and the Presidency of the University, originally constituting a single office, have been separated.

The University site.—The site for the university was purchased by the trustees of John A. Smith, for $147,500. The price was originally fixed at $150,000, the number of acres being by estimate 150. Thomas Coyle, however, holding the right by lease to take sand from the

hill for a term of years, the owner of the land, after a protracted negotiation, finally made the proposition to deduct $2,500 from the price on account of the encumbrance, and this offer was accepted. The deed was made April 28, 1866, but was not finally executed and delivered till May 25, ensuing. The Trustees subsequently paid Thomas Coyle $5,000 for a surrender of his lease. The terms of the purchase were $20,000 cash, the balance payable in 10 equal annual instalments, and the interest on the whole unpaid principal payable semi-annually. Originally, 50 acres were appropriated for university grounds. Subsequently 10 acres were added, and still later an additional 10 acres for the park was set aside, making in all, in round numbers, 70 acres. The remaining 80 acres were laid off in lots, and mostly sold, making it certain that their proceeds will pay the entire original purchase.

The University buildings.—These buildings consist of a spacious university edifice proper four stories high, imposing in external appearance, commodious in its internal plan, and standing upon a commanding and handsome as well as healthy location, looking down upon the city and a broad expanse of the country, including many miles of the winding Potomac. There is also an ample dormitory, capable of accommodating the teachers and 300 scholars with board and lodging; three stories and basement, with every appointment belonging to a first-class structure for such purpose. A very large and commodious medical building is erecting on the premises, three stories in height, and corresponding in architecture and appearance with the other structures. The Normal and Preparatory department moved into the apartments in the University building, designed for that purpose, early in November last, and the teachers and students entered the dormitory with the opening of the new year of 1869. In the appendix will be found a note upon the material of which the buildings are made.

The cost of the university structure and dormitory, when fully completed, will be quite $100,000. The Freedmen's Bureau is building these, as also the medical building, in pursuance of an act of Congress approved March 2, 1868, authorizing the Bureau thus to aid the cause of education from the freedmen and refugees' fund, the aid in this case being justified by the fact that the University is intended to embrace within its benefits the children of freedmen and refugees. "The refugees' and freedmen's fund" embraces all moneys belonging to the government which come into the custody of the Bureau through the incidents of the war, comprising among other items those arising from rents, fines, and sales of old property. The name is used to distinguish it from the regular appropriation. Other fine school structures, similar to these university buildings, though not in any case on so large a scale, have been erected at important points in the south from the same funds. These buildings are held in the actual or constructive possession of the government, to await the direction of Congress, the expectation being that the Commissioner will be ordered to surrender them as the property of the associations upon whose lands they stand, with the limitation that they are to be forever used for educational purposes. Where the principle of the common law is restrained by no statute, it is clear that the government has no valid claim upon these buildings, as they become a part of the realty.

Normal and Preparatory Department.—This department was opened on the second day of May, 1867, in a comfortable building which, with three acres of land, had been purchased by the authorities of the Freedmen's Bureau, by deed dated December 21, 1866, for the sum of $12,000. The funds used in this purchase consisted of the retained bounty which accumulated under an order of Major General B. F. Butler, issued in 1864, at the period when State agents from the north were enlisting colored soldiers in his department in Virginia and North Carolina during the war. The purpose of the order was to save for these enlisted soldiers and their families a portion—one-third—of the large State bounty which they were receiving and wasting in dissipation. When General Howard took charge of freedmen's affairs, this retained fund, then in the hands of numerous officers, was immediately ordered into the custody of the Bureau, to be held for the benefit of the colored race, and subject to the call of legal claimants. This building and land were purchased with money from this fund, and has been rented since January 1, 1867, to the Howard University at $1,200 per annum. The most of this retained bounty, which, when called into the possession of the Bureau, amounted to some $150,000, has since been paid to the legal claimants, reducing the amount in August

last to about $30,000; and if the portion invested in this property shall ever be legally claimed it will be at once refunded, the investment being exceedingly judicious in a pecuniary as well as in every other point of view. This money is not in any sense public funds, and is not so regarded at the Treasury Department. It is simply money belonging to colored soldiers, held in trust, subject to their call; and its investment in a mode not only to return fair interest but also to aid in educating the colored race, can be deemed by just men only in the light of a wise and beneficent disposition of the matter on the part of General O. O. Howard. The house was well repaired by the Bureau, and since the school has vacated the premises they have been occupied by the Medical Department.

The Normal and Preparatory Department has been eminently successful. It opened with five scholars in May, 1867, and so rapidly increased in numbers that it became necessary to employ a second teacher, the first quarter closing with an excellent school, the whole number for the period on the register being 83, of whom 26 were females, not including a night school of 11 scholars, under a good teacher. At the close of the first quarter the principal, Rev. Edward F. Williams, a graduate of Yale College and Princeton Theological Seminary, who had given the very highest satisfaction, resigned, in order to embark in his profession, and was succeeded by John H. Combs, A. M., a graduate of Williams College, who served from October, 1867, till April, 1868, when he gave place to A. L. Barber, a graduate of Oberlin, and a gentleman eminently adequate to the position. Miss Julia A. Lord, of Portland, Maine, the female principal, has continued to serve in this position, with the same superior efficiency which distinguished her labors in the colored grammar school of Washington, from which she was called to this place. The total number of students for the year ending in June, 1868, was 127, and the exercises of the first anniversary fully satisfied the expectations of the most sanguine friends. The fall term of 1868 proved still more satisfactory, commencing with more than 60 scholars and the number soon reaching 110, most of whom are pay scholars. Of the whole number only 12 are white. The school, since taking possession of its new and very handsome and commodious quarters in the university building, has put on new strength, and an assistant teacher, a colored young man of good qualifications, has been added to the corps of instruction. The large classes in grammar, philosophy, arithmetic, algebra, and other advanced English branches, as well as the three classes in Latin, numbering in all about 30, and a small class in Greek, progress with as much rapidity and thoroughness as do scholars in the same branches in other schools of this advanced grade, and this statement is based upon extensive personal knowledge of this as well as other schools of the higher class in the District. Tuition is free to such as cannot afford to pay.

The Medical Department.—The Medical Department was organized by the election of three members of its faculty in the early part of May, 1868, and in the month of September a fourth professorship was filled. The list of the university officers and faculties, to be found on a previous page, furnishes the facts in these cases. In September, also, Dr. Alexander T. Augusta, a distinguished colored physician of Washington, was elected as Demonstrator of Anatomy. Dr. Augusta is a gentleman of decided abilities, and is thoroughly educated in his profession. He is a native of Norfolk, Virginia, free-born, and served his apprenticeship as a barber in that city, subsequently working as a journeyman at his trade. In his boyhood he learned by stealth to read a little, and subsequently acquired, while working at his trade, some additional knowledge. At a later period he read medicine for a time in the office of a respectable physician in Philadelphia, but he could get no access to the medical college of that city by reason of his color. He went to California to get money to prosecute his purpose, and was highly successful. On his return he made another effort to find entrance to a Medical College, and was repulsed both in Philadelphia and in Chicago. He finally went to the University of Toronto, and was cordially welcomed to the Medical College of that very distinguished institution, second to no university in British America, and after some half a dozen years of laborious academic, classical as well as professional study he received the degree of Bachelor of Medicine, with the full honors of the college. During the war he was a surgeon in the army, and while stationed at Savannah, Georgia, in charge of a hospital in that city, he was repeatedly associated in professional relations with medical gentlemen of the first eminence in that city, who treated him with uniform courtesy. They often

came to his hospital to observe cases interesting to the profession, and to join with him in uncommon surgical operations; facts honorable alike to both parties. Dr. Augusta is the only colored gentleman connected with the medical faculty, so far as it has yet been organized, and for this reason, as well as for the essential interest which marks his career, reference is here made to him. It is a suggestive fact that after such struggles to gain access to a medical school for his own culture, he should thus be called as a teacher in the first school of medical science founded for his race in America.

The first session of this Department was inaugurated in a lecture by Professor L. C. Loomis, which, in order to accommodate the very large audience certain to be called forth on the novel occasion, was delivered in the audience room of the new Congregational church. The session was announced to open on the 28th of October, but arrangements were not complete for the lecture till the succeeding week, and it was delivered November 4, 1868. Since that date the course of lectures has proceeded regularly, three each day of the week, distributed among the six members of the faculty. The class numbered six in December, and a considerable accession was expected with the beginning of the winter session, at the opening of the new year. The college is at present occupying the large building on Seventh street, recently vacated by the Normal and Preparatory Department when that school took up its permanent residence in the university edifice. This is a temporary arrangement, for two or three months only, while the very spacious and handsome medical college structure near that location is finishing. On the same square two large edifices are nearly completed, into which the Freedmen's general hospital—Campbell hospital, as it is commonly called—comprising several hundred patients, is to be transferred, from the old barrack buildings situated in that immediate vicinity. This hospital, which is freely open to the medical students of the college for purposes of instruction, contributes vastly to the value of the course of instruction.

The present course of lectures embraces in its plan Chemistry, Anatomy, Materia Medica, Physiology, and clinical lectures upon operative Surgery—the four main fundamental branches of medicine—and an attendance upon the course, together with study and recitations under a respectable practising physician during the entire year, will be regarded by the University as equivalent to one year in the Medical College. Very superior and ample chemical apparatus, and a complete cabinet of Materia Medica have recently been received.

Other Departments.—The Trustees appointed a committee, June 25, 1867, to report a plan for the organization of a Theological Department, but no action has yet been made public. Initiatory steps were also taken toward establishing a Law Department, and, in October last, John M. Langston, a graduate of Oberlin, a colored gentleman of superior attainments, was elected professor. December 30, 1868, the trustees publicly announced that the Department was organized, and a regular course of lectures would commence January 4, 1869, the faculty to consist of Professor Langston and Hon. A. G. Riddle, an eminent lawyer of Washington, and formerly a member of Congress from Ohio. On the evening of March 31, 1869, the first session of this Department closed with public exercises, in which the class of 15 colored and one white student all participated. The essays and discussions showed much study and thought, and were highly respectable as literary productions, most favorably impressing all who heard them. These students represent nearly a dozen States, and several are liberally educated. They all showed a manly grappling with their work, and the professors have ample reason to be satisfied with the opening term.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND EARLIEST LEGISLATION FOR THE CRISIS.

The abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia took effect on the 16th of April, 1862, and on the 21st of May, a little more than a month later, Congress, believing that with their freedom the subjects of slavery must be educated for their new condition, passed an Act requiring "ten per centum of taxes collected from persons of color in Washington and Georgetown to be set apart for the purpose of initiating a system of primary schools for the education of colored children" residing in these cities. This Act made the boards of Trustees of the two cities the custodians, in their respective cities, of the funds arising both from this tax and from contributions, the two species of funds however to be kept separate. The special friends of

colored schools in the District, entertaining solicitude as to the execution of this law in good faith by the Trustees of the public schools, communicated their apprehensions to the friends of the cause in Congress, and on the 11th of July ensuing Congress passed another Act, under which the work of establishing colored schools was confided to a "Board of Trustees for Colored Schools for Washington and Georgetown." This board, consisting of three members, is appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, the term of one member expiring annually. The members of the first board, who held the office by the terms of the law one, two, and three years, respectively, were Daniel Breed, Zenas C. Robbins, and S. J. Bowen. Under this Act the municipal authorities of the two cities accredited to the colored school fund for the first two years as follows:

	1862.	1863.	Total.
In Washington	$256 25	$410 89	$667 14
In Georgetown	....	69 72	69 72
Total for the two cities			736 86

In 1862 no separate registry was kept of the taxes of colored people in either city, and the sum accredited for that year in Washington was a rough estimate. In 1863 there was a separate registration, but the friends of the colored schools regarded it as incomplete, and the fund not at all equal to what was justly due, as they had confidently expected full $3,000 annually.

The Act of 1862 thus proving a failure, another Act was passed and approved June 25, 1864, repealing the ten per centum clause of the Act of 1862 and providing, instead of that feature, that such a proportion of all the school funds raised in Washington and Georgetown should be set apart for colored schools as the number of colored children might bear to the whole number of children, taking the last reported census of children *between the ages of six and seventeen* as the basis of the calculation. It was also provided that the moneys accruing from fines, penalties, and forfeitures under United States laws in the District should be apportioned for school purposes in the same manner. This Act was also, like the other, construed by the municipal authorities in such manner as to deprive the colored schools of a large portion of the funds which the friends of those schools believed the act intended to give them. On the 23d of July, 1866, Congress further enacted that the previous Act should "be so construed as to require the cities of Washington and Georgetown to pay over to the Trustees of the colored schools of said cities such a proportionate part of all moneys received or expended for school or educational purposes in said cities, including the cost of sites, buildings, improvements, furniture, and books, and all other expenditures on account of schools, as the colored children, between the ages of six and seventeen years in the respective cities, bear to the whole number of children, white and colored, between the same ages; that the money shall be considered due and payable to said Trustees on the first day of October of each year; and if not then paid over to them, interest at the rate of ten per centum per annum on the amount unpaid may be demanded and collected." This Act seems to have accomplished the purpose for which it was designed, the funds which it brought into the hands of the Trustees in 1867 enabling them to inaugurate something in the nature of a system of public colored schools in the two cities. The main object of the bill was to provide for the establishment of primary free schools throughout the county of Washington, in the District, outside of the two cities. It was prepared by Senator Patterson, of New Hampshire, at that time a member of the House, and it was a section incorporated in it pertaining to the division of the school money in the cities of Washington and Georgetown that first effectually placed in the hands of the colored people the funds that belonged to them. To Senator Patterson belongs the honor of obtaining this meed of justice for this long abused class.

THE FIRST PUBLIC COLORED SCHOOL

in the District of Columbia was opened on the 1st of March, 1864, in the Ebenezer Church, the original colored church of Washington—the earliest sanctuary of their religion thus becoming the earliest home of their free public school. Miss Emma V. Brown, of Georgetown, an educated, capable colored girl, was appointed the teacher, at a salary of $400, and Miss Frances W. Perkins, a generous, spirited young woman, from New Haven, Connecticut, went into the work with Miss Brown, at first without compensation, though she was soon supported by the New England Freedmen's Aid Society of Boston. The school commencing with 40 scholars, rose immediately to more than 100, and the house was soon so thronged that many applicants were daily refused. It was through the exertions of this volunteer teacher, Miss Perkins, that in 1865

FIRST PUBLIC SCHOOL-HOUSE FOR COLORED CHILDREN.

in the District was built. Through her solicitations, in the summer of 1864 and while at work in the Ebenezer Church, a woman of large benevolence in New Haven, Connecticut, Mrs. ——— Parker, placed at her disposal $1,000, to aid in building a house for this school. The Trustees, encouraged by this donation, gathered what they could from other sources, and after securing with some difficulty a lot, 42 by 120 feet, for the purpose, on C street south, between Second and Third streets, Capitol Hill, erected in the winter a frame building, 42 feet square, two stories, and two school-rooms on each floor. The school was moved into it May 1, 1865, on which occasion there were formal dedication exercises, an address being delivered by Rev. Henry Highland Garnet, D. D., then pastor of the Fifteenth street Presbyterian Church, now president of Avery College, Allegheny City, Pennsylvania.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS CONTINUED.

These schools, which began in the Ebenezer church in a single room, with two teachers, in March, 1864, and in the spring of 1865 moved into the first school house built for public schools in the District, were increased by the Aid Societies to four schools and as many teachers in 1866, and to five schools with seven teachers by the Trustees in the summer of 1867. In the autumn of the last named year the Trustees commenced their school year with 31 teachers, four more being soon added, making for nearly the whole of that year 35 teachers, while through the winter and spring months the number was 41, the Aid Societies furnishing at the same time 28, making a total of 69 teachers. The average number through the school year of 1867-'68, was 61.

The largest number of public schools sustained by the Trustees in the school year of 1867-'68, was 41; average number 39; largest number by other parties 25; average number 21; largest number of scholars belonging to the schools in any month, (February,) 2,969; average number belonging to the schools from November 1 to June 30, 2,826; average attendance for the same period, 2,523; per cent. of average attendance in all schools for the year, 89. In these statistics the schools of the Trustees and of the societies are combined, as they were all under the control of Mr. Newton and all subjected to the same regulations. It will be seen that the attendance, considering the material, was very excellent, and such was the case during all the years of his superintendence. The following figures are important in this connection:

Total colored population in Washington, November, 1867	31,937
Total colored population in Georgetown, November, 1867	3,284
Total	35,221
Increase since 1860 in Washington	20,954
Increase in Georgetown since 1860	1,349
Total	22,303
Number of colored children between the ages of 6 and 17, in Washington	8,401
Number of colored children between the ages of 6 and 17, in Georgetown	894
Total	9,295

It thus appears that the largest number of scholars in school in any month last year was much less than one third the number of colored children in the District between the ages of 6 and 17, and when it is considered that very many above 17 years of age are embraced in the number in school, it seems safe to say that not more than one third of the children within the specified ages were at any time last year attending school, including both public and private. It may be added that the records of the present year present a still more painful condition of things growing out of the withdrawal of nearly all foreign aid.

Recapitulation of Census returns.

The following statement shows the movement of the population of the District, including the town and county of Alexandria before their retrocession to Virginia.

Year.	Whites.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1800	10,066	783	3,244	14,093
1810	16,079	2,549	5,395	24,023
1820	22,614	4,048	6,377	33,029
1830	27,563	6,152	6,119	39,836
1840	30,657	8,361	4,696	43,912
1850	37,941	10,059	3,687	51,687
1860	60,764	11,131	3,185	75,080
1867	88,327	38,663	....	126,990

As Alexandria, with the other portion of the District as originally constituted south of the Potomac, was retroceded to Virginia in 1846, the population of the retroceded territory in 1850 is subjoined, also the population of the cities of Washington and Georgetown separately for 1850 and 1860.

	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1850.				
Alexandria	7,299	1,413	1,382	10,094
Washington	29,730	8,158	2,113	40,001
Georgetown	6,080	1,561	725	8,366
Remainder of District	2,131	340	849	3,320
1860.				
Washington	50,139	9,209	1,774	61,122
Georgetown	6,798	1,358	577	8,733
Remainder of District	3,827	564	834	5,225

It will be seen from the above figures that the free colored population of the two cities in 1860 was 10,567, and as in that year there were full 1,200 colored children in the schools of the cities, it follows that there was about one child in school to nine of the free colored population. In 1867, the colored population of the two cities was 35,221. With the same proportion of children in school as in 1860, there would be with this population, about 3,900 under instruction, which is very nearly the number now in the schools of the cities. This shows that the facilities for instruction are about the same now for the colored children as before the war. The school-houses and methods of instruction, however, are now much better than in 1860, but the proportion of children actually reached by the privileges seems to be without enlargement.

SCHOOL PROPERTY BELONGING TO TRUSTEES OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The schools, when the Northern societies came here during the war, were at first held in the basements and lecture halls of colored churches. A few school-houses were soon built in a temporary way, and as the war drew near its end the barrack buildings were liberally turned over by the government for such use, and these buildings still constitute the largest portion of the school accommodations. These school rooms were rough and inconvenient, and still continue to be so. The houses built last year are, however, furnished with modern school furniture, as were a few of the old buildings previously, and these are quite commodious and comfortable. The following is a general description of the school property belonging to the trustees of colored schools at this time:

District 1.—Square 182, M street, near 17th. Land about 22,800 feet. Temporary frame building, 48x72 feet two stories; 8 rooms, 444 seats.

District 2.—Square 511, O street, between 4th and 5th. Land about 8,640 feet. Brick school-house 45x88 feet, two stories; eight rooms each 22x38 feet; 444 seats.

District 2.—Square 985, corner 12th street east and D north. Land about 10,000 feet; donated by government. Frame building, four rooms; would seat 200 scholars.

District 3.—Square 762, C street south, between 2d and 3d streets east. Land about 6,300 feet; frame building, four rooms, 200 seats.

District 4.—Square 412, corner 9th and E streets south. Land about 8,000 feet; brick house, same as in district two.

District 4.—Square 663, Delaware avenue, between H and I streets south. Land about 7'550 feet; temporary frame building belonging to government, two rooms, would seat 200 scholars.

District 5.—Georgetown, east street. Land about 5,800 feet; frame building; two stories, eight rooms, 444 seats; bad location; the best that could be obtained for the purpose when bought.

The two brick houses (the one in district 2, and the other in district 4) were built last year, the contract price being some $7,200 each, and when furnished and ready for occupation cost each not far from $9,000. Erected in haste they are not what, with more time, the authorities would have made them. Besides the above specified lots and buildings, the Trustees are erecting a four-story brick edifice which they have appropriately named "The Stevens School-House," in honor of Thaddeus Stevens, of Penn. The name was suggested by Mr. William Syphax, then chairman of the board, in the following resolution, offered by him September 4, 1868: "*Resolved*, That the New school-house on Twenty-first street be called the 'Stevens School-house' in honor of the late Hon. Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania, the champion of free schools for all." The building is located in square 72, 21st street, between K and L, on a lot embracing about 11,765 feet. House 48x88 feet; 12 rooms with the one story for a hall, or 16 rooms without hall, each room seating 60 scholars. The original plan was to make the lower story a hall, to be let for public purposes, but it is believed that the Trustees will decide to use this very desirable part of the building for school purposes, which will accord with the law governing the use of the school funds. The cost of the house, finished and furnished, including lot, will probably be about $35,000. The house, furniture, and lot in Georgetown may be estimated at $5,000; the house, furniture, and lot on M street at $4,000; and the house, furniture, and lot on C street, Capitol Hill, at $3,500.

TRUSTEES OF THE COLORED SCHOOLS.

The following shows the names of those who have served as Trustees together with the period of their service. The act of Congress establishing the board, provides that they shall be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior. The original board was appointed July 1, 1862, consisting of S. J. Bowen, Daniel Breed, and Zenas C. Robbins. Mr. Bowen served two terms of three years each, and was succeeded last year (1868) by William Syphax, a well-known and intelligent colored citizen of Washington, who is doing his work with fidelity and excellent judgment as chairman of the board. He was born at Arlington, on the estate of Mr. Custis, who manumitted the mother and family when this son was a child, giving them a house and small tract of land on the border of the estate, which was confirmed to them by the Thirty-ninth Congress. Mr. Breed served two terms, the first being a term of one year, and was succeeded by Albert G. Hull, the present City Collector, whose term ex-

pires in 1869. Mr. Robbins served one term of two years and was succeeded in the next term of three years by Rufus Laten, resigned, Stephen J. W. Tabor, resigned, J. McClary Perkins, removed, and G. E. Baker, who completed the term. Alfred Jones, a prominent colored merchant of Washington, was appointed in 1867, his term expiring in 1870, and is the treasurer of the board.

THE TEACHERS.

The Trustees at this time, January, 1869, report fifty schools in successful operation, forty three in Washington and seven in Georgetown. The superintendent, Mr. George F. T. Cook, had been ten years the teacher of a large colored private school in Washington when appointed to his new position, and is well educated. The schools are all in charge of female teachers, fifty in number, of whom twenty-five are white and twenty-five colored. The majority of the white teachers have been in these schools from the beginning of the new order of things, in 1865, and are remarkably capable and efficient. There are also some very superior colored teachers. Without in any degree disparaging others, mention may properly be made of Miss Sarah L. Iredell, who has charge of the school in what is known as the brick school house on the Island, (Washington.) She was educated at the Institute for colored youth in Philadelphia, where she graduated with the highest honors. The character of her scholarship is by no means ordinary or superficial, as the classical course of that excellent Institution includes the reading of Virgil's Aeneid, the Odes of Horace, Cicero's Orations, the Greek Testament, and Xenophon's Anabasis.

Among the superior colored teachers, the name of Miss Emma Brown may be given. She has already been mentioned in connection with the Georgetown schools, and was educated at Oberlin. There are also other colored teachers, educated at the above-named places, or at the Baltimore convent, or elsewhere, who, in ability and attainment, are quite equal to holding important positions in their profession. Eighteen of the colored teachers are natives of this District, the others being from the north, as also are all the white teachers. Sixty scholars are assigned to each teacher under the regulations of the Board of Trustees, but in some localities this number is exceeded. The school rolls now show an average of about fifty-five to each school, making a total of about 2,750 on the rolls, with an average attendance of about 2,500. There are eight schools in each of the three large school-houses and in the new building, the Stevens school house, there will be twelve. December 1, 1868, was the time fixed for the completion of the Stevens school house, but at this date, January, 1869, much remains to be done, and owing to want of funds, the Trustees have been obliged to suspend some portions of the work. This is greatly to be regretted, as the building is so much needed. If opened at the time expected, every room would have been at once occupied, to the great benefit of those schools and scholars for whom it is intended.* The teacher in each of these buildings, who has the care of the highest school, has also the special direction of all the schools in the building. The pay of the teachers is fixed at $50 per month, with $8 per month additional for those who are in charge of the large buildings. The Trustees, conceding this compensation to be inadequate to secure and retain first-rate teachers, hope ere long to be able to make it larger.

It should be especially stated that the Trustees have made it a principle in selecting teachers, to seek for those having the best qualifications, without regard to color, subjecting all alike to a rigid examination. In a circular issued September 10, 1868, the Trustees say:

"It is our determination to elevate the character of the schools by insisting on a high standard of qualifications in the teachers. This can be done only by employing the best teachers that our money will procure, irrespective of color. While we think it right to give preference in our schools to colored teachers, *their qualifications being equal*, yet we deem it a violation of our official oath to employ inferior teachers when superior ones can be had for the same money. It is no discredit to admit that the number of colored teachers, at least in this District, who can compete successfully with those of the hitherto more favored class, especially those from the northern States, is at present small. When our young men and women shall have enjoyed equal advantages for a sufficient length of time, we may expect this will be changed. The present duty of the Trustees plainly is to employ the best teachers who offer themselves.

* NOTE.—Since the above was in type this school-house has been completed and opened.

"The children of the people of color, for the most part, can attend school for but a few years, when they must seek employment by which to obtain a livelihood; it is, therefore, of the highest importance that they should make the most of their brief time in school. They should have the best of teachers and the best methods. The methods of teaching have, within the past few years, been as much improved as have those of travel by the introduction of steam. Teachers, who may have the same amount of learning, differ greatly in their ability to teach and train young minds. A skilful teacher, using the best modern methods, will accomplish more in one year, and do it far better, than a poor teacher will accomplish in three years. We deem it, therefore, little short of a *crime* against those for whose education we are made responsible to knowingly employ inferior teachers when better ones can be had, however worthy and deserving the former may be in other respects."

CHARACTER OF THE SCHOOLS.

Of these public schools, five are classified as grammar schools. There was some extravagance in the representations which attended the earlier efforts in the contraband schools. The avidity for instruction and the advancement made by these wild children from the plantations filled the northern teachers, who engaged in the interesting work of first gathering them into places of instruction, with so much astonishment and enthusiasm that in the novel and exciting work unreasonable expectations were in some degree indulged. There were also many children of the District who mingled in those early free schools, who had already been rudely taught some of the first elements. The teachers, not knowing that there were many of this class in the District, oftentimes supposed that the children learned under their instruction what in fact they had learned before. With these considerations fully in view, however, it may still be justly affirmed that the progress of these colored children has been equally as rapid as that of the white. They seem to succeed in mathematics and other studies, which demand the exercise of the reasoning faculty, quite as well as do the children of the lower classes among the white population, and the schools in all the grades justify the best hopes which have been cherished by their friends, furnishing abundant grounds for faith in the capacity of the race to rise to the highest range of intellectual culture, and most certainly of faith in their capacity to become sufficiently intelligent to discharge well the prerogatives of good citizens. The whole body of white teachers, who have taught colored children in this District, since the war, are unanimous in the opinion that the black children learn just as rapidly and thoroughly as do children of any other color. Thoughtful, fair minded men and women, who have carefully watched these schools are compelled, no matter what their prepossessions, to corroborate this judgment of the teachers. These statements are made with deliberation, and are authorized by the result of very large personal observation of the schools, as well as large personal acquaintance with the teachers, on the part of the person who makes them. These facts impose upon the country an imperative and stupendous work. They show that we have a million of colored children, almost entirely untaught, yet capable, and intensely eager to learn. These children must be educated or the country can scarcely stand. How can you build the house of which you have never laid the foundation. Take no timely precaution against the contagion to which youth is exposed, and no future care will cure the malady. Emphatically is this the case with these children, who have come up out of servitude and are subjected to the most untoward home influences. They will soon be out of the reach of a teacher. Once they are grown they will never submit again to become children. So sensible of this were the wise Lacedemonians that when they were required to give fifty children as hostages they chose rather to give fifty of the most eminent men in the State, whose principles were already formed, than children to whom the want of early instruction would be a loss entirely irreparable. It would be, according to the beautiful expression of Pericles, like cutting off the season of spring altogether from the year.

SCHOOL FUNDS AND THE FREEDMEN'S BUREAU.

In has been seen in these pages that much assistance, both in money and material, and in many forms has been contributed to the work of colored education in the District by the Freedmen's Bureau. In the annual reports of the Bureau these contributions to the cause are designated as derived from funds bearing different names, and as the nature of these

funds is not well understood a concise statement of their origin may be found useful in this connection.

Refugees and Freedmen's Fund.—When the war closed there were found large sums of money in the hands of various military officers, the accumulations resulting from incidents of the conflict. When the Freedmen's Bureau was organized these funds were all called into the custody of its accounting officer, and to distinguish them from those derived from the regular appropriations by Congress for the support of the Bureau, are described by the Commission as the Refugees and Freedmen's funds, derived from miscellaneous sources. The chief of these sources were the tax on cotton, wages retained from the freedmen employed by the government during the war, for the relief of destitute freedmen's families, fines in the provost courts, taxes levied upon the planters and men of wealth in New Orleans, and other parts of Louisiana, for the support of colored schools, proceeds of confiscated property, marriage certificates, and contracts. During the first year after the war closed a considerable amount was received from the produce of farms and other abandoned lands, from rents of buildings and lands held as abandoned, in all amounting to nearly a million of dollars. The taxes upon cotton, wages of Freedmen withheld, fines in provost courts, and donations above specified, and moneys from sales of confiscated property, marriage certificates, and contracts, are generalized in the reports as the Freedmen's fund, but are all embraced under the name of Refugees and Freedmen's fund. This fund, which has been constantly receiving additions, from the miscellaneous sources, as well as suffering depletions from its donations, was reduced in August last to about $16,000. In the general appropriation act, approved March 2, 1867, is the following clause: "*Provided*, That the Commissioner be hereby authorised to apply any balance on hand at this date, of the Refugees and Freedmen's fund, accounted for in his last annual report, to aid educational institutions actually incorporated for loyal refugees and freedmen." Under this provision contributions have been made to such institutions in this District, as follows:

The Howard University, Congregationalist, $25,000; National Theological Institute University, Baptist, $10,600; St. Martin's Female Academy, Catholic, $2,000.

Retained Bounty Fund.—This is a fund which accumulated under an order of Major General B. F. Butler, issued in 1864, while he was in command of the department embracing a portion of Virginia and North Carolina. It was an order fraught with wisdom. This department was, at the time, thronged with State agents, offering very large bounties for contraband recruits to fill the State quotas. This order required the State agent or other person not enlisting recruits under the direct orders of the War Department, to pay one third of the bounty, in case of each recruit, into the hands of the superintendent of recruiting, and that, in default of such payment, the recruit should have his papers so certified that he could not be counted in any State quota. The object was to save the money for the benefit of the recruit and his family. When General Howard came to take charge of the Bureau, he very discreetly ordered all the fund, which was then scattered in the hands of many officers, into the custody of the Bureau. It amounted at that time to $115,236 49, and was embraced under the general name of Refugees and Freedmen's fund, but as it is in no sense public money, but essentially funds belonging to individuals, held in trust by the government, it has been kept separate and paid over to the legal claimants as fast as found. The balance still unclaimed, at the close of August last, was $24,963 83. The Bureau has used $12,000 of this unclaimed sum in the purchase of the building in which the preparatory department of the Howard University was at first held, and in which the medical department is now temporarily located. It is leased to the University at an annual rent of ten per cent on its cost, thus aiding the cause of the colored race, at the same time that a liberal interest is accumulating on the fund. The property has largely enhanced in value since the purchase.

School Fund.—This has been treated as a local fund by the Bureau, each assistant committeeman expending it in the district in which it may have accrued. It is derived from a provision in the act of Congress of July 16, 1866, which declares that "the commissioner shall have power to seize, hold, lease or sell all buildings and tenements, and any lands appertaining to the same, or otherwise formerly held under color of title by the late so-called confederate states and not heretofore disposed of by the United States, and buildings or

lands held in trust for the same by any person or persons, and to use the same, or appropriate the proceeds derived therefrom, to the education of the freed people." Nothing has been received from this source in this District, and nothing expended.

The General appropriation.—The act of March 2, 1867, appropriated "for buildings for schools and asylums, including construction, rental, and repairs, five hundred thousand dollars." It is from this appropriation that the assistance in erecting houses has been extended in various ways to the Trustees of Public Colored Schools of the District, and to nearly all the private enterprises in the District looking to the education of the colored people. Among the donations to the public schools of the District were two sums of twenty-five hundred dollars each, given in aid of the two branch school buildings erected in Washington in the autumn of 1867. Liberal assistance has also been given these schools in the form of lumber and old barrack buildings. From this appropriation also the Howard University buildings are erecting, and the Colfax Industrial building, and aid has been given to nearly all the schools of the District which have the education of the colored people specially in view.

LEGISLATION 1868–'69.

In the early part of July, 1868, some of the friends of education in Washington conceiving it to be for the interest of the schools to have them all, both white and colored, under the supervision of a single board of trustees, proposed to the Committee on the District in the Senate to transfer all the duties of the trustees of colored schools in Washington and Georgetown to the trustees of white schools, abolishing the board of trustees of colored schools, but leaving the schools themselves without any change in relations and condition. The members of the committee in the Senate understanding from the representations that this plan was in accordance with the wishes of the leading colored people of the two cities, through Mr. Patterson, of New Hampshire, presented to the Senate July 3d the following bill, which was passed without discussion or dissent:

"*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled*, That the several acts of Congress authorizing the appointment and defining the duties of a board of trustees of colored schools in the cities of Washington and Georgetown, in the District of Columbia, be, and the same are hereby, so modified as to transfer all the duties heretofore imposed by said acts on said trustees of colored schools to the trustees of public schools in said cities. All laws and parts of laws inconsistent herewith are hereby repealed."

It should be stated in justice to Mr. Patterson that he had nothing to do with the matter in committee, and presented the bill under the suggestions of the other members of the committee who more especially had the matter in charge. When this action of the Senate was announced the colored people specially interested in the schools went immediately to the Committee on the District in the House and made their remonstrance against the measure, and the bill, sent to the Committee on the District in the House, lay there till February last, the colored people, and in fact most of those originally proposing the measure to the Senate, supposing, as it appears, that it would receive no further attention. It was, however, February, 1869, reported to the House, and passed, as in the Senate, without debate or opposition. Its passage, however, created great excitement among the colored people of the District, the great mass of whom seemed to be utterly opposed to the measure. They held a public meeting and took formal action expressive of their views, and on the succeeding Sabbath the matter was presented in all the colored churches of the two cities, an overwhelming majority being found unqualifiedly opposed to the act. At the public meeting above referred to, held in the Israel Bethel church February 9, 1869, at which Mr. John F. Cook presided, the following resolutions were passed:

"Whereas by an act of Congress of May 21, 1862, provision was made for initiating a system of primary schools for the education of colored children in the cities of Washington and Georgetown, and the execution of the law was committed to the boards of trustees of public schools; and whereas by said boards positively refusing said executive trust, it was made necessary that Congress, by another act July 11, 1862, should place the execution of the law in charge of a separate board of three trustees of colored schools, to be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior; and whereas that officer, in such appointments, has rendered perfect satisfaction to us as a people, and we have been generally satisfied with the faithfulness of said trustees of colored schools in the discharge of this trust; and whereas the act

recently passed by Congress transferring this duty from the trustees of colored schools to the trustees of public schools, thus subjecting it to the chances of being again refused, or at least being negligently or indifferently executed by persons whose positions are held by tenure of local politics and the prejudices consequent thereunto: Therefore,

"*Resolved*, That we, the colored citizens of Washington and Georgetown, D. C., deeply regret the action of Congress in making this transfer of the schools for colored children to the trustees of public schools until some more perfect system can be established in the District of Columbia."

"*Resolved*, That we, the colored citizens of Washington and Georgetown, District of Columbia, do hereby tender our thanks to Messrs. Albert G. Hall, Alfred Jones, and William Syphax, trustees of our schools, for the faithful performance of the trust committed to them, and do assure them of our hearty co-operation in all their efforts to promote the educational interests of our children."

The above resolutions were passed by almost a unanimous vote. The only opposition made to the action was based upon the idea that it was indiscreet for the colored people to array themselves against the action of Congress, which was controlled in its measures by the friends of the colored race. The measure in itself was not defended at all. Similar resolutions were adopted at crowded meetings held at the Nineteenth street Baptist church, at Asbury chapel, Union Bethel church, the Third Baptist church, the Ebenezer church, and other churches. The last meeting was held at the Fifteenth street Presbyterian church to take final action on the matter. The pastor, Rev. J. Stella Martin, addressed the congregation, and the following resolution was adopted, but one person voting in the negative:

"*Resolved*, That we are in favor of free schools and equal school rights, under a school system embracing white and colored children, and therefore we deprecate any legislation that does not abolish *in toto* the present system, built upon distinctions of race and color. We especially deprecate the bill transferring the powers from the board for colored schools, because it leaves it optional with the board to be appointed under that bill, should it become a law, to continue colored schools; and also because the apportionment of the proposed board will be controlled by local politics, which one year may put in our friends, and the next year our enemies, which last, having the power of keeping up distractions in schools, gives every reason to believe they will use that power. We therefore petition Congress most respectfully to reserve all legislation on the subject till such time as they can pass a bill which will make us in the matter of school rights equal with all others *before the law;* that we may not be dependent upon personal favor in a matter so vital, nor exposed to political hostility in circumstances where we are powerless."

On the 13th of February, 1869, the President returned the bill without his signature, with his reasons as follows:

"The accompanying paper (preamble and resolutions of the colored people on the subject) exhibits the fact that the legislation which the bill proposes is contrary to the wishes of the colored residents of Washington and Georgetown, and that they prefer that the schools for their children should be under the management of trustees selected by the Secretary of the Interior, whose term of office is for four years, rather than subject to the control of bodies whose tenure of office, depending merely upon political considerations, may be annually affected by the elections which take place in the two cities.

"The colored people of Washington and Georgetown are at present not represented by a person of their own race in either of the boards of trustees of public schools appointed by the municipal authorities. Of the three trustees, however, who, under the act of July 11, 1862, compose the board of trustees of the schools for colored children, two are persons of color. The resolutions transmitted herewith show that they have performed their trust in a manner entirely satisfactory to the colored people of the two cities, and no good reason is known to the Executive why the duties which now devolve upon them should be transferred as proposed in the bill.

"With these brief suggestions, the bill is respectfully returned, and the consideration of Congress invited to the accompanying preamble and resolutions.

"ANDREW JOHNSON.

"WASHINGTON, D. C., *February* 13, 1869."

With the facts which had been disclosed in relation to this matter in view, Congress declined to act further upon the measure, and thus it ended.

SUMMARY.

Private and incorporated educational institutions for colored persons, Washington and Georgetown, January, 1869.

Name.	Location.	Sex.	Scholars.
Howard University, Normal and Preparatory Department	Seventh street and boundary	Mixed	112
Howard University Law school		Males	16
Howard University Medical school		Males	8
Howard University Collegiate Department		Male	1
Wayland Theological Seminary	Nineteenth and I streets	Males	36
National Theological Institute and University, Rev. E. Turney, D. D.	I street, near Twenty-third	Males	45
National Theological Institute and University, Rev. G. M. P. King.	Judiciary Square	Mixed	50
New England Friends' Mission school	Thirteenth street west, and S	Mixed	250
Colfax Industrial school	R and Eleventh streets	Girls	200
Miss Walker's Industrial School	Near boundary, Fifth street	Women	70
Orphan Asylum school	Eighth street, near boundary	Mixed	55
St. Aloysius's Parochial school	First street, between I and K	Girls	80
St. Martin's Academy	Vermont Avenue and L street	Girls	40
St. Martin's Parochial school	Vermont Avenue and L street	Girls	45
St. Martin's Academy	Fifteenth street, bet. L and M	Boys	30
St. Martin's Parochial school	Fifteenth street, bet. L and M	Boys	30
Reformed Presbyterian Mission school	Sixth street west near M south	Mixed	200
Miss Maria R. Mann's school	Seventeenth and M streets	Mixed	50
Miss E. A. Cook's school	Sixteenth street, bet. K and L	Mixed	30
Thomas H. Mason's school	L street, near Twenty-first west	Mixed	50
Joseph Ambush's school	Eleventh and K streets	Mixed	65
Mrs. C. W. Grove's school	Twenty-third street and Circle	Girls	20
Mrs. Louisa Ricks's school	I street, near Seventeenth	Girls	50
Rev. E. Turney's school—Miss L. Warner, teacher	Baptist Church, Vt. Avenue	Women	25
Rev. E. Turney's school—W. Waller, teacher	Fourth street east, near D south	Mixed	15
Rev. Chauncey Leonard's school	Third and G streets	Mixed	55
Total			1,628
NIGHT SCHOOLS.			
Colfax Industrial school	R and Eleventh streets	Mixed	212
Washington Christian Union	O street, bet. Fourth and Fifth	Mixed	200
Washington Christian Union	E street, Island	Mixed	50
J. R. Fletcher's school, (Washington Christian Union)	Judiciary Square	Mixed	75
Rev. E. Turney's school	I street, near Twenty-third	Men	30
Rev. E. Turney's school	Baptist Church, Vt. Avenue	Men	30
Rev. E. Turney's school—W. Waller, teacher	Baptist Church, Fourteenth st	Men	15
Rev. E. Turney's school—John Johnson, teacher	Nineteenth st. west, near b'dry	Men	20
Rev. E. Turney's school—Mrs. Ellen Reeves, teacher	Arlington*	Mixed	100
St. Martin's school	Fifteenth street, bet. L and M	Males	15
Rev. Chauncey Leonard	Corner Third and G streets	Mixed	25
Henry Thorps	Near Navy Department	Males	20
Total			792

* Not in the District.

Colored Public Schools, Washington and Georgetown, January, 1869.

Location.	Buildings, property of—	No. of rooms.	No. of teachers.	Grade. Primary.	Secondary.	Intermediate.	Grammar.	Mixed.	Average attendance.
M street, near Seventeenth street	Trustees	8	8	2	2	2	1	1	400
Corner Seventeenth and I streets	Government	4	3	1	1	1	....	....	162
Corner Twenty-fourth and F streets	Government	4	2	1	1	....	....	....	100
Fourteenth street, near canal	Rel. denomination	1	1	1	....	....	....	....	70
Corner Thirteenth and S streets	N. E. Friends	4	5	2	1	1	....	1	220
L street, near Sixteenth street	Private	1	1	....	....	....	....	....	50
O street, between Fourth and Fifth streets	Trustees	8	8	3	2	2	1	....	400
C street south, near Second street east	Trustees	4	4	1	1	1	1	....	220
Corner D street north and Twelfth street east	Government	4	1	....	....	....	....	1	60
Corner E street south and Ninth street west	Trustees	8	8	3	2	2	1	....	400
Delaware Avenue, H and I streets south	Trustees	2	2	1	....	....	....	1	100
Georgetown, East street	Trustees	8	7	3	2	1	1	....	350
Total		56	50	18	12	10	5	4	2,532

Teachers of Colored Public Schools.

Names.	White.	Colored.	Location of schools.	State.	Began teaching in the District.
Miss Sarah G. Brown	1	....	M street, near Seventeenth street..	Massachusetts ...	1867
Mrs. Anna P. Spencer	....	1	........do	New Jersey	1868
Miss M. E. Brooks	....	1	........do	Maryland	1868
Miss Helen A. Simmons	1	....	........do	Connecticut	1865
Mrs. M. C. Hart	1	....	........do	Massachusetts	1868
Miss Mary E. Garrett	....	1	........do	Dist. Columbia	1868
Miss Laura V. Fisher	....	1	........do	........do	1867
Miss Abby S. Simmons	1	....	........do	Connecticut	1865
Miss Annie E. Washington	....	1	Corner Seventeenth and I streets .	Dist. Columbia	1857
Miss C. A. Jones	....	1	........do	...... do	1867
Miss Lucy A. Barbour	....	1	........do	...... do	1867
Miss Mary F. Kiger	....	1	Corner Twenty-fourth and F sts..	...... do	1867
Miss G. I. Fleet	....	1	........do	...... do	1867
Miss R. H. Elwell	1	....	Fourteenth street, near canal	Connecticut	1865
Miss H. S. Macomber	1	....	Corner Thirteenth and S streets...	Massachusetts	1867
Miss Mary E. Oliver	1	....	........do	...... do	1867
Miss Mary E. Gove	1	....	........do	...... do	1866
Miss Mary C. Lawton	1	....	........do	...... do	1868
Miss S. H. Pierce	1	....	........do	...... do	1867
Mrs. Nancy Warrick*	....	1	L street, near Sixteenth street	Dist. Columbia	1861
Miss Emma J. Hutchins	1	....	O st., bet. Fourth and Fifth sts. ..	New Hampshire	1868
Miss Laura W. Stebbins	1	....	........do	Massachusetts	1864
Mrs. E. H. Disbrow	1	....	........do	...... do	1866
Miss C. F. Withington	1	....	........do	Dist. Columbia	1868
Miss Annie L. Foote	....	1	........do	...... do	1867
Miss Annie M. Wilson	....	1	........do	New York	1868
Miss Maria A. Dorster	....	1	........do	Massachusetts	1865
Miss Rachel J. Cook	....	1	........do	Dist. Columbia	1867
Miss K. G. Crane	1	....	C st. south, near Second st. east	Maine	1865
Miss Sarah Purvis	....	1	........do	Pennsylvania	1868
Miss Christiana Nichols	....	1	........do	Dist. Columbia	1868
Miss Helen M. Gordon	1	....	........do	Massachusetts	1865
Miss Grace A. Dyson	....	1	Cor. D st. north and Twelfth st. east	Dist. Columbia	1867
Miss E. L. Crane	1	....	Cor. E st. north and Ninth st. west.	Vermont	1865
Miss Sarah L. Iredell	....	1	........do	Pennsylvania	1868
Miss M. R. Nason	1	....	........do	Massachusetts	1867
Miss Emma Prentiss	1	....	........do	Ohio	1868
Mrs. E. J. Brooks	....	1	........do	Dist. Columbia	1867
Miss G. Withington	1	....	........do	Massachusetts	1867
Miss Mary R. Goines	....	1	........do	Dist. Columbia	1867
Miss Mary E. Reed	....	1	........do	...... do	1868
Miss Eliza G. Randall	1	....	Delaware av., near H st. south...	Vermont	1867
Miss Anna V. Tompkins	....	1	........do	Dist. Columbia	1868
Miss E. A. Chamberlain	1	....	East street, Georgetown	Massachusetts	1864
Miss P. T. Chamberlain	1	....	........do	...... do	1864
Miss C. W. Moore	1	....	........do	New Jersey	1864
Miss Julia Luckett	....	1	........do	Canada	1868
Miss Mary A. Coakley	....	1	........do	Dist. Columbia	1868
Miss Sophia P. Parsons	1	....	........do	New York	1865
Miss Martha C. Simms	....	1	........do	Dist. Columbia	1868
Total	25	25			

* Mrs. Warrick, an excellent colored teacher, has been already mentioned under her maiden name of Nancy Waugh, as teacher with Rev. Chauncey Leonard in the Smother's school-house, at the time it was destroyed by incendiaries in 1863. Soon after that event she opened a private school in the Nineteenth-street Baptist church, subsequently removing it to L street, near Sixteenth street, where she continues to teach, having from 40 to 50 scholars. During most of the present school year, 1868–'69, her school-house has been used by the Trustees of the colored public schools, as they were needing more room, and she was also employed by them to conduct the school. In April, 1869, she resumed her private school.

2. COLORED SCHOOLS OF WASHINGTON COUNTY.

LEGISLATION—1856, 1862.

The earliest attempt to establish a system of free schools in the District outside the cities was embraced in an Act of Congress approved August 11, 1856. This Act, however, was not to become valid unless approved by "a vote of the majority of those persons residing and paying taxes within the limits of the District in which the poll is opened," the act providing for the division of the territory into seven school districts. The result was the rejection of the act in every district. The women, who were entitled to the franchise under the act, generally voting, it is believed, with the majority. The 36th section provided that "those who are for this act shall write on their ballots 'school,' and those opposed 'no school.'" It resulted that those who wrote "no school" had it all their own way, and as this was the first experiment in giving the franchise to women by Congress the result is the more curious. Mr. De Vere Burr, of district 5, was one of the commissioners under the law of 1856 and a warm friend of the cause. In that district three women voted, Mrs. Ann McDaniel, a large tax payer, who voted "school," and Mrs. Emily Beall and Mrs. Washington Berry, who voted "no school."

Thus the matter rested till March 19, 1862, when Mr. Grimes, chairman of the District committee of the Senate, introduced into that body a copy of the act of 1856, with the section making it optional with the voters of the districts to accept its provisions omitted. It was referred to the District committee, who made no changes in its provisions, except such as restricted the taxation exclusively to property owned by white people. This exemption was not a new proposition in the Senate, as the same principle was asserted in a bill for the encouragement of free schools in Washington, which passed the Senate in May, 1858, but which went to the House District Committee, and was there buried. It proposed in substance to create a new school fund amounting to $50,000 from the fines and forfeitures in the District, and to pay annually from the United States treasury to the support of the schools of the city as much as the city raised for the same purpose annually, not exceeding $20,000 a year. When this bill was reported to the Senate by Mr. Brown, of Mississippi, chairman of the District Committee, Mr. John P. Hale, May 15, 1858, moved an additional section in amendment as follows: "*And be it further enacted,* That all taxes levied on the estates of colored persons in the city of Washington shall be devoted to the support of schools for the education of colored children, under the direction of the government of the city." In offering the amendment Mr. Hale, in terms of conciliation, but of melancholy significance, appealed to the reason and humanity of the party then reigning in that body as follows:

"I desire to state that several of these individuals have spoken of it to me as a case of extreme hardship that the colored population here are taxed for the support of schools—and it forms no inconsiderable amount of the taxes contributed—and whilst they are compelled to pay taxes, their children have not the slightest benefit of the schools. I do not propose to establish any mixed schools or anything else, but to donate the taxes collected from this class to the education of their own children under the direction of the city government, and it seems to me to be a matter of such plain justice that it will hardly be denied. *They are an oppressed and degraded people,* and I think it hardly comports with the magnanimity of their superiors to collect their money and to use it to educate their own children. I hope that this proposition will commend itself to the chairman (Mr. Albert G. Brown, of Mississippi) of the District Committee."

Senator Brown, with large and enlightened ideas pertaining to free schools for his own race, was not willing to give the slightest aid, even indirectly, to encourage free schools for the colored race. "The city authorities have never made provision for the education of colored people," said he, "and I do not believe they ever will." He would not consent to tax the colored people to aid in their enlightenment, but would exempt their property from taxation for support of education. Mr. Hale, anxious to secure any relief, however small, the dominant power would give, immediately offered the following modification of his amendment, which was accepted without debate:

"SECTION —. *And be it further enacted,* That the estates of colored persons in the District

of Columbia shall be entirely exempted from all taxes levied for schools and school-houses in the District."

The Act of May 20, 1862, which, as has been stated, was copied mainly from the act of August 11, 1856, embraced amendments confining the taxation for white schools and school houses to property belonging to white persons, in accordance with Mr. Hale's amendment though confined to the territory outside the cities. This bill, referred to the District Committee March 19, 1862, was reported March 24 by the chairman, Mr. Grimes, with the modifications above indicated, and when the bill was under discussion in final debate, April 4, he offered as an amendment the following, which was adopted as the thirty-fifth section of the act:

"SECTION 35. *And be it further enacted*, That the said levy court may, in its discretion, and if it shall be deemed by said court best for the interest and welfare of the colored people residing in such county, levy an annual tax of one-eighth of one per cent. on all the taxable property in said county outside the limits of the cities of Washington and Georgetown, owned by persons of color, for the purpose of initiating a system of education of colored children in said county, which tax shall be collected in the same manner as the tax named in section thirteen of this act. And it shall be the duty of the trustees elected under section nine to provide suitable and convenient rooms for holding schools for colored children, to employ teachers therefor, and to appropriate the proceeds of said tax to the payment of teachers' wages, rent of school rooms, and other necessary expenses pertaining to said schools; to exercise a general supervision over them, to establish proper discipline, and to endeavor to promote a full, equal, and useful instruction of the colored children in said county. It shall be lawful for such trustees to impose a tax of not more than fifty cents per month on the parent or guardian of each child attending such schools, to be applied to the payment of the expenses of the school of which such child shall be an attendant, and in the exercise of this power the trustees may from time to time discontinue the payment altogether, or may graduate the tax according to the ability of the child and the wants of the school. And said trustees are authorized to receive any donations or contributions that may be made for the benefit of said schools by persons disposed to aid in the elevation of the colored population in the District of Columbia, and to apply the same in such manner as in their opinion shall be best calculated to effect the object of the donors, said trustees being required to account for all funds received by them, and to report to the commissioners in accordance with the provisions of section twenty-two of this act."

The Act was entitled, "An Act to provide for the public instruction of youth in primary schools throughout the county of Washington, in the District of Columbia, without the limits of the cities of Washington and Georgetown," the same as the act of 1856. Both acts provided for the appointment of "seven intelligent inhabitants of the said county," outside the cities, by the levy court as school commissioners, and for the division by them of the territory under their jurisdiction into seven school districts, which districts were empowered to raise money by taxation to build school-houses and supply furniture. The levy court was required annually to impose a tax of one-eighth of one per cent. on all the assessable property in said territory "owned by white persons." The individual districts were enjoined to choose three district trustees to manage the district affairs, and a district collector. In case any district should persist in disregarding the requirements of the Act, the money annually raised by the assessment of the levy court, of which one-seventh belonged to each district, was to be held two years from the refractory districts, and then to be divided equally among the districts which had complied with the conditions of the Act. It was soon found that this legislation was so imperfect that little would be accomplished under it for white schools, while for the creation of a system of public schools for the colored people it would contribute no real assistance at all. It failed to benefit the colored people because it did not embrace in its provisions the principle vital to the free school system—that the taxable property of the State should provide for the education of all the children of the State without regard to the individuals to whom the property may belong, the children of poverty and of affluence standing on an absolute equality in all the rights and the privileges of the schools. The Act of 1862 was based upon ideas wholly averse to this theory. The Act of 1856 contemplated only the white race. The Act of 1862 embraced in its provisions both the white and the colored races, but in providing for the separate assessment of the property belonging to the two races it ceased to be a *common school* law in any just sense of the term. The provision in the amendment introduced by Mr. Grimes authorizing the commissioners in their discretion to fix a limited tuition to be paid in the colored schools by such as were able to pay, and

which was also embraced in a section of the bill pertaining to white schools, was another feature tending directly to foster the idea of caste and to degrade the free school system in the public estimation. It was a feature, moreover, which had been tried in the white public schools of Washington for the first third of a century of their history, and repudiated as a calamitous experiment years before the passage of this act. The commissioners early saw that the act was exceedingly defective. At a special meeting of the board February 14, 1863, Dr. C. H. Nichols, the president of the board, after stating that in his judgment the existing law could not be made effectual in the erection of the school-houses essential to the establishment of the schools contemplated in the act, presented the draught of a bill which he had prepared as a substitute for the existing act, to be put into the hands of the District Committee. The bill was read section by section and approved by the members present at that meeting. In May, 1863, Dr. Nichols retired from the board, but his bill seems to have been placed in the hands of the District Committee of the Senate. On the 28th of January, 1864, at a meeting of the board, Mr. S. P. Brown, from the committee on the school act, reported a new bill, which had been prepared by Mr. C. H. Wiltberger. February 1, 1864, this bill was taken up, and, after discussion, adopted with some amendments, and the committee instructed to place it in the hands of the Senate District Committee.

THE ACT OF 1864.

This act, which is the existing school law for the whole District, originated in a bill brought into the Senate December 21, 1863, and one of the two bills already mentioned as in the hands of the District Committee. On the 9th of February, 1864, Mr. Grimes submitted the Wiltberger bill, with some modifications, as a substitute for the bill No. 26, already before the Senate, and on February 18 it was discussed at some length in the Senate and passed without any opposition, the only controversy being upon the expediency of allowing the commissioners $4 per day for actual service as was provided in the bill, the provision being finally by general assent discarded. The bill went to the House February 19, was referred to the District Committee February 26, and was reported back to the House April 28 by Hon. James W. Patterson, then chairman of the District Committee of that body, with amendments, constituting substantially a new bill. On the 8th of June, when the Senate bill came up in the House, Mr. Patterson moved the adoption of his bill in the way of a substitute for that of the Senate, and said:

"As this bill has not been printed, perhaps I ought to say a word in explanation, especially as it is an important bill for the District. It will be observed by comparing the Senate bill (No. 26) with the substitute reported by the House Committee that there are several minor amendments, some of them intended to perfect the bill, and others designed to bring it into complete conformity with the best results of the experience in those States where systems of education have been most liberally and successfully sustained. In the 20th section we have endeavored to give efficiency to the system by requiring all penalties and forfeitures imposed for violation of the laws of the United States to be paid into the hands of certain officers, who are made the custodians of this fund and are required to expend it for school purposes. But the most important feature of the amendment is to be found in the 17th and 18th sections, and in the proviso to the 19th section, which provides for separate schools for the colored children of the District. To accomplish this we have provided that such a proportion of the entire school fund shall be set apart for this purpose as the number of colored children, *between the ages of six and seventeen*, bears to the whole number of children in the District. These are the principal points of difference between the Senate bill and the substitute reported by the Committee for the District of Columbia. I may say that the committee were unanimous in their approval of these provisions, and I trust that that foreshadows the unanimity in the House. We may have differences of opinion in regard to the policy to be pursued in respect to slavery, but we all concur in this, that we have been brought to a juncture in our national affairs in which four millions of a degraded race, lying below the average civilization of the age and depressed by an almost universal prejudice, are to be set free in our midst. The question now is, what is our first duty in regard to them? I think there can be no

difference of opinion on this, that it is our duty to give to this people the means of education, that they may be prepared for all the privileges which we may desire to give them hereafter."

The bill was adopted without opposition June 8, 1864. The following are the sections to which Mr. Patterson called attention, and which constitute the only legislation of solid substance ever enacted by Congress for the establishment of colored schools in the District, embracing in their provisions the cities as well as "the county parts:"

"SECTION 17. It shall be the duty of the said commissioners to provide suitable and convenient houses or rooms for holding schools for colored children; to employ and examine teachers therefor, and to appropriate a proportion of the school funds, to be determined by the numbers of white and colored children between the ages of six and seventeen years, to the payment of teachers' wages, to the building or renting of school-rooms, and other necessary expenses pertaining to said schools; to exercise a general supervision over them, to establish proper discipline, and endeavor to promote a thorough, equitable, and practical education of colored children in said county. It shall be lawful for said commissioners to impose a tax of not more than fifty cents per month for each child on the parents or guardians of children attending said schools, to be applied to the payment of the expenses of the school of which said child shall be an attendant; and in the exercise of this power the commissioners may, from time to time, discontinue the payment altogether, or may graduate the tax according to the ability of said tax-payers and the wants of the school: *Provided*, That no child shall be excluded from such school on account of the inability of the parent or guardian to pay said tax. And said commissioners are authorized to receive any donations or contributions that may be made for the benefit of said schools by persons disposed to aid in the elevation of the colored population in the District of Columbia, and to supply the same in such manner as in their opinion shall be best calculated to effect the objects of the donors, said commissioners being required to account for all funds received by them, and to report to the levy court in accordance with the provisions of section nine of this act.

"SEC. 18. The first section of the act of Congress entitled 'An act providing for the education of colored children in the cities of Washington and Georgetown, District of Columbia, and for other purposes,' be and the same is hereby repealed; and that from and after the passage of this act it shall be the duty of the municipal authorities of the cities of Washington and Georgetown, in the District of Columbia, to set apart each year from the whole fund received from all sources by such authorities, applicable under existing provisions of law to purposes of education, such proportionate part thereof as the number of colored children between *the ages of six and seventeen years* in the respective cities bear to the whole number thereof, for the purpose of establishing and sustaining public schools in said cities for the education of colored children; that the said proportion shall be ascertained by the last reported census of the population of said cities made prior to said appointment, and shall be regulated at all times thereby; and that the said fund shall be paid to the trustees appointed under the act of Congress approved July eleven, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, entitled 'An act relating to schools for the education of colored children in the cities of Washington and Georgetown, in the District of Columbia,' to be disbursed by them in accordance with the provisions of said act.

"SEC. 19. One-fourth part of all the moneys now in the hands of the marshal of the District of Columbia, or of any other officer of said District, which have accrued from fines, penalties, and forfeitures imposed for the violations of the laws of the United States within said District, shall be by such officer or officers paid to the 'board of commissioners of primary schools of Washington county, District of Columbia,' one-fourth part to the mayor of the city of Georgetown, and the remaining two-fourths thereof to the mayor of the city of Washington; the said sums, so paid to the said commissioners and the said mayors, to constitute in their hands funds for the support of primary schools within the said county and public schools in said cities in the proportions aforesaid. And it shall be the duty of said marshal and other officers to pay over every three months, from and after the passage of this act, all money coming into their hands in the manner aforesaid, to the said board of commissioners of primary schools and to the said mayors, in the proportions aforesaid, for the use of the said primary and public schools, any law to the contrary notwithstanding: *Provided*, That the funds thus obtained for educational purposes shall be applied to the education of both white and colored children, in the proportion of the numbers of each between the ages of *six and seventeen years* as determined by the latest census report that shall have been made prior to such appointment; and the mayors of the aforesaid cities of Georgetown and Washington are hereby authorized and instructed to pay over such part thereof as may be applicable, under the provisions of this section and the proviso thereto, to the education of colored children in the aforenamed cities, to the trustees appointed under the act of July eleventh, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, entitled 'An act relating to schools for the education of colored children in the cities of Georgetown and Washington, in the District of Columbia,' to be used for the education of colored children according to the provisions of law; and the aforenamed officers failing to pay over the moneys as aforesaid shall be liable to the penalty imposed by the second section of the act of Congress approved July twelfth, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, entitled 'An act to provide for the payment of fines and penalties collected

by and paid the justices of the peace in the District of Columbia under the acts of Congress approved the third and fifth of August, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, and for other purposes.'"

THE SCHOOL FUNDS.

The act of 1864, as the bill came from the hands of Mr. Patterson and became a law, embraces the true ideas of the free school system as enunciated with such terseness and force by Mr. Grimes and Mr. Morrill. Under its operations the friends of common schools were inspired with new energy, and the colored schools were now immediately brought into consideration as an established fact in the county. The provision authorizing the commissioners to impose a tuition upon children whose parents might be able to pay is retained in the law of 1866, and must have found place in Mr. Patterson's very excellent bill through inadvertence in the collating of the various bills which came before him.

The old board of commissioners and its officers were continued under the new law, and some of the members took hold of the work imposed upon them with much energy and public spirit, while others seem to have done nothing. There was soon disclosed in the board a decided difference of opinion as to the interpretation of the act. Some members of the board understood it to provide for the division only of that portion of the school fund derived from fines and forfeitures between the white and colored schools according to the number of white and colored scholars, while that portion derived from taxation was to be divided exclusively among the white schools. Other members believed that the entire fund should be divided between the white and colored schools. At a meeting of the board December 15, 1864, Commissioner Wiltberger proposed the issue of an order directing the funds derived from taxation to be used exclusively for white schools. Pending the discussion on this question, Mr. Miller offered the following:

"*Resolved*, That this board take a vote to determine whether the colored schools are entitled to a proportion of the school fund arising from taxes under the law of Congress approved June 25, 1864."

The result of the vote was, two yeas—George Mathiot and David Miller; three nays—C. H. Wiltberger, B. W. Keyser, and B. T. Swart. The resolution offered by Mr. Wiltberger, to the effect that the fines should be divided according to the number of scholars between the white and colored schools, and that the money from taxation should be used exclusively for the white schools, was then adopted. At the next meeting of the board, February 2, 1865, Mr. Miller offered a resolution affirming the following opinion of the levy court, dated January 9, 1865:

"*Resolved*, That in the opinion of this court the school commissioners of the county of Washington, District of Columbia, are required by the act of Congress approved July 25, 1864, to appropriate the money derived from all sources, and constituting the school fund for the support of schools for white and colored children residing in said county in the proportion that said white and colored children between the ages of six and seventeen years have to each other in numbers according to the last census."

Of the four commissioners present at this meeting, Messrs. Miller and Mathiot voted in the affirmative, and Messrs. Swart and Wiltberger in the negative. Mr. Wiltberger, on the other hand, produced a written opinion from Joseph H. Bradley, sr., arguing at some length that the terms of the act confined the distribution of the funds for the benefit of colored schools exclusively to that portion derived from the fines, penalties, and forfeitures. Meanwhile the levy court took more distinct action, declaring to the board in a resolution that any distribution of the funds which did not give the colored schools the same share of the moneys accruing from taxation that was conceded by the board to them from the fines, penalties, and forfeitures would be deemed by the court an unlawful distribution. Soon after this action of the levy court the board, at a meeting April 20, 1865, on motion of Mr. Wiltberger, voted, without dissent, to divide the school money as instructed by the levy court from and after July 1, 1864, and this decision was executed.

In the work of 1864 and 1865, under the new act, the commissioners became sufficiently acquainted with the magnitude of the enterprise to be made sensible that the funds accruing under the provisions of that act were entirely inadequate to the demands of the cause. For white schools a house had been built in district No. 2 in 1864; a house in No. 1 and in No. 6

in 1865, while for the colored schools the commissioners had attempted nothing in the matter of building houses at all. Although at first the white people were to a very large extent opposed to schools and school-houses, and hostile to the school act, there were always some sterling friends of the cause in every district, while, under the operations of the schools for two or three years, many others had become friendly to the free school system. The colored people, who were originally unanimous for the schools, had year after year grown more and more anxious and restless in their destitution. Under the pressure upon them, the commissioners at a meeting May 3, 1866, appointed a committee to present their case to Congress. The committee reported June 7, 1866, that they had waited on Mr. Grimes, chairman of the District committee, who gave them no encouragement. They asked for ($5,000) five thousand dollars, and in the civil appropriation bill approved July 28, 1866, the sum of ($10,000) ten thousand dollars was appropriated "for the payment in part for the purchase of sites and the erection of school-houses in the county of Washington, in the District of Columbia." This money, which had mostly come into the hands of the commissioners late in the autumn of 1866, the last requisition being received by them in February, 1867, was nearly all expended for school-houses in 1866. At a meeting of the board January 3, 1867, it was voted to divide the appropriation between the white and colored schools according to the number of scholars, as it had been decided to divide the other funds. They assumed that this required one-third to be set aside for colored schools—the number of children five years old and under twenty, white, 1,203; colored, 574, being the basis of distribution. This appropriation, it would appear from the records, was not divided by the commissioners as it came into their possession, the portion belonging to each class being kept by itself with its accruing interest, but was used in common, no account being taken of the periods in which the disbursements for the white and the colored schools were made, and the same has been the rule with the rest of the school funds. Otherwise the application of the funds seem to have been justly made upon the basis above stated. The resolution approved March 29, 1867, requiring a new enumeration of the children of the District, was enacted specifically to place the colored people in a more equitable position in the distribution of the school funds than they occupied under the census of 1860. This census was completed on the 11th of November, 1867, and the school act of November 25, 1864, had provided that in the division of school funds the proportion should "be ascertained by the last reported census," prior to the distribution. Inasmuch, therefore, as there was no specific distribution, the expenditures being made from a fund in common, it would only be just, in making up the final settlement of the account between the two classes of schools when the building operations, still incomplete, shall be finished, to give the colored people the benefit of the new census.

Two school-houses for colored schools were built in 1866 and two in 1867, and in the spring of 1868 the commissioners found their treasury again empty, with their schools well filled with children and more houses imperatively demanded. At a meeting of the board February 6, 1868, a motion was made to close all the schools at the end of the month. This was amended, making it conform to the terms of a resolution passed August 1, 1867, providing for their close April 1, 1868, but allowing the teachers who desired to continue, taking their chances for pay when there should be funds in the treasury, and the motion was in this form passed, six in the affirmative and one in the negative. Soon after this time another application was made to Congress for relief, and with the prospect of success the schools were continued, and maintained through that school year without any foreign aid, the teachers being generally promptly paid. On the 20th of July, 1868, Congress made a second appropriation of ($10,000) ten thousand dollars "for the purchasing of suitable sites for the erection of additional school-houses, and for the maintenance of schools in the county of Washington, outside of the limits of the cities of Washington and Georgetown, the same to be expended under the direction of the levy court of the county of Washington, subject to the approval of the Secretary of the Interior." This appropriation has been about three-fourths expended—$4,000 to pay teachers and $2,728 50 for a colored school-house in district 7, and several hundred dollars on the colored school-house in district 1. The levy court approved of the above use of the $4,000, with the understanding that it should be refunded, and they increased the tax from ¼ per cent. to 7-20 in order to meet the emergency.

The District of Columbia contains about fifty-two square miles exclusive of the bed of the Potomac, the westerly boundary of the District being the Virginia shore of the river at low water mark. The two cities contain less than fifteen square miles. This gives at least thirty-seven square miles in the county outside the cities. The school districts vary in size, ranging in area from about four to six square miles, the smallest of the seven being No. 3, the others being each from about four and a half to about five and a half square miles in area. The school-house in district No. 1 is some two and a half miles, and in No. 2 less than that distance, beyond the limits of Georgetown, and in the other districts the houses range from a mile and a quarter to double that distance from the limits of Washington, around the borders of which they are ranged. There has been no change in the division into school districts, originally fixed in 1862, except a small alteration early made in the line between No. 6 and No. 7. The division of the county is based upon the plan made in the act of 1856, the language of which act has been successively copied into the two subsequent acts. The population has not only very largely increased since that date, but it has also been entirely revolutionized as to its chief localities. Another consideration, and that which especially concerns the subject in hand, is the fact that the division in 1856 was made by Congress with exclusive reference to the *white* population. In any subsequent legislation the particulars here suggested should be carefully considered. The decennial census soon to be taken, it is to be hoped, will furnish a detailed enumeration of the population, the children of the prescribed school age, the area and the taxable property of each of the school districts, as well as like facts in detail pertaining to Washington and Georgetown. The census report of 1860 does not give the area of the District of Columbia, and no census since the retrocession of Alexandria has given it correctly. In the census of 1860 the enumeration of the population is quinquennial, and consequently the number of children between 5 and 20 instead of 6 and 18 years of age was assumed as the basis of calculation in the division of the fund distributed prior to the census of November, 1867, and this basis is still adhered to, but there can be no doubt whatever that all moneys accruing to the school fund subsequent to the census of November 11, 1867, including the $10,000 given by Congress, should be divided on the basis of that census, which gives a percentage in the county of Washington of 38.89 in the place of 32.35 under the census of 1860.

Census returns, November 11, 1867.

Corporations, &c.	School districts.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Between 6 and 17 years.		Total.	School age percentage.	
					White.	Colored.		White.	Colored.
Between Potomac and Rock Creek.	1, 2.	1,516	538	2,054	....	....	....	....	....
Between Rock Creek and Eastern Branch.	3, 4, 5.	2,441	1,299	3,740	....	....	....	....	....
Between Eastern Branch and Maryland line.	6, 7.	1,746	1,605	3,351	....	....	....	....	....
Total county of Washington.	....	5,703	3,442	9,145	1,494	951	2,445	61.10+	38.89+
Washington city............	....	74,115	31,937	106,052	17,801	8,401	26,202	67.94+	32.05+
Georgetown	....	8,509	3,284	11,793	2,152	894	3,046	70.65+	29.34+
Total in District........	....	88,327	38,663	126,990	21,447	10,246	31,693	....	....

Census returns, 1860.

Corporations, &c.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Between 5 and 20 years. White.	Between 5 and 20 years. Colored.	Total.	Per cent. of those between 5 and 20 years. White.	Per cent. of those between 5 and 20 years. Colored.
County of Washington	3,827	1,398	5,225	1,203	574	1,777	67.64+	32.35+
City of Washington	50,139	10,983	61,122	16,079	4,014	20,093	80.02+	19.97+
Georgetown	6,798	1,935	8,733	2,307	702	3,009	76.66+	23.33+
Total in District	60,764	14,316	75,080	19,589	5,290	24,879	....	....

Population by single years, between 6 *and* 17, *(school age.)—Census returns, Nov.* 11, 1867.

Corporations, &c.	6. White.	6. Colored.	6. Total.	7. White.	7. Colored.	7. Total.	8. White.	8. Colored.	8. Total.	9. White.	9. Colored.	9. Total.
Washington	1,579	513	2,092	1,709	626	2,335	1,758	699	2,457	1,588	601	2,189
Georgetown	213	58	271	188	58	246	198	61	259	195	69	264
County	124	79	203	126	90	216	135	103	238	106	79	185
Total District	1,916	650	2,566	2,023	774	2,797	2,091	863	2,954	1,889	749	2,638

Corporations, &c.	10. White.	10. Colored.	10. Total.	11. White.	11. Colored.	11. Total.	12. White.	12. Colored.	12. Total.	13. White.	13. Colored.	13. Total.
Washington	1,709	805	2,514	1,369	623	1,992	1,423	902	2,325	1,347	736	2,083
Georgetown	169	89	258	175	66	241	186	91	277	176	86	262
County	129	105	234	110	54	164	135	104	239	116	73	189
Total District	2,007	999	3,006	1,654	743	2,397	1,744	1,097	2,841	1,639	895	2,534

Corporations, &c.	14. White.	14. Colored.	14. Total.	15. White.	15. Colored.	15. Total.	16. White.	16. Colored.	16. Total.	17. White.	17. Colored.	17. Total.	General total.
Washington	1,356	781	2,137	1,311	716	2,027	1,372	765	2,137	1,280	634	1,914.	26,202
Georgetown	169	76	245	163	83	246	169	89	258	151	68	219	3,046
County	136	77	213	143	70	213	128	61	189	106	56	162	2,445
Total District	1,661	934	2,595	1,617	869	2,486	1,669	915	2,584	1,537	758	2,295	31,693

MRS. CARROLL'S SCHOOL, (DISTRICT NO. 6.)

The first colored school in the District, outside of the limits of the two cities, was established by Mrs. David Carroll in August, 1861, and it was the first established in the District specially intended for educating slave children. The earliest contraband school opened in Washington was not started till the spring of 1862. David Carroll was one of the founders of the colored Presbyterian church of Washington, an original elder in the church, a man of property and superior character. This family went out to the farm-house belonging to Mr. Cornelius T. Boyle, beyond Benning's bridge, across the Eastern Branch, and took up their residence, shortly after the first battle of Bull Run, with a view of buying the farm. The next Sabbath after they became occupants of the premises, Rev. Selby B. Scaggs, a white Methodist preacher and a farmer in that neighborhood, locked up the chapel in which he was wont to preach, and when the people came to the church they found him patrolling, key in hand, in front of the house, and declaring that he would have no more praying for the President and the success of the Union arms on his premises. It appeared that the pious officers and soldiers from the neighboring forts had taken part in the Sabbath services and given this offence to the pastor. In this emergency the colored people were invited to hold their services and Sabbath school at the Boyle farm-house on that day. They did so, and David Carroll addressed them, urging the building of a church in which the prayer for the Union would be justified. John Payne, a colored farmer, offered a lot on his farm, and contributions to start the building operations were gathered, to the amount of fifty dollars, on the spot. They also fixed upon a neighboring grove for a temporary place of worship, and a stand and seats were erected there in camp-meeting style the ensuing week. The next Sunday Rev. Mr. Simpson, a private in company F, of the 10th New York heavy artillery, on duty at Fort Meigs, preached the inauguration sermon in the grove; also the dedication sermon in their new house just three months from that day. Mr. Deane, a white resident, kindly allowed the colored people to take all the timber for the church from his woodland, which had been prostrated by military orders. The weather on every Sunday of the three months was fair, and this is recounted by these people as a special providence to them. The Sunday school, which had been maintained with the greatest interest at the Boyle farm-house, was moved into the new house with the transfer of the meeting from the grove, and from that time the house has been crowded with scholars, old and young, many of them coming five or six miles to enjoy the weekly privileges. The first teachers were mostly Christian soldiers from the forts, but those who were the early scholars have now the entire management of the school, including the superintendent, John H. Jackson, son of Rev. Nathaniel Jackson, an intelligent colored preacher, who owns a place in that neighborhood and was one of the leaders in building the house, which they named Jones Chapel, in honor of another colored preacher who owns a small farm in that vicinity, and who is widely known in the District as a venerable and industrious man. Most of the early scholars have become members of this church. It is worthy of remark that this colored church and school, which have done so much good to these down-trodden people, were organized and for a time maintained upon the premises of one of the most extreme and uncompromising men who plotted treason in this District before the war and went foremost into the rebellion, serving as surgeon in the rebel army through the conflict. The books for the Sabbath school were at first procured by contributions taken up in the church and school, but afterwards, Mrs. Carroll, who at first had the entire charge of the school, procured them from the managers of the Soldiers' Free Library in Washington. The officers and soldiers contributed generously and gave great encouragement to the work in all its stages.

The day school.—Mrs. Carroll opened a day school in the Boyle house with twenty children the same week in which she started the Sunday school. The number rapidly increased to double that number, and as the colored people from the Maryland plantations pressed inside the District the school filled nearly the whole house, numbering at some periods nearly or quite a hundred. Mrs. Carroll's daughter by a former husband, Miss Rebecca T. Gordon, was assistant in the school, which was continued with undiminished success till April, 1865. Mr. Carroll having died the previous year, the family returned to their house in Washington.

The school was then taken in charge by Miss Ellen M. Jackson, the daughter of Rev. Nathaniel Jackson, and transferred to her father's house. She was soon, however, compelled by failing health to suspend her work, and died in that summer. There was no day-school, therefore, through the summer and autumn, but in January, 1866, Mr. A. E. Newton, the superintendent of the schools in Washington and Georgetown, visited that locality and promptly established a school in the Jones Chapel, employing Frederick A. Lawton, a white man from the north, as the teacher. There was at this time more open hostility to colored schools than had been manifested during the war when the military forces held control. No white family in the neighborhood would board a teacher of a colored school at this time, and there was no colored family in suitable condition to receive a boarder. Mr. Lawton found a home with Mr. Tabor, a Union man, who had fled from Virginia with his wife and built a rough shelter in a forest a mile from the chapel. Mr. Tabor, a native of New York State, was a man of intelligence who had seen better fortunes, and his wife was a woman of refinement. They had lost everything, and purchasing a piece of land here they were living in such a shanty as they were able to build in their poverty. Mr. Lawton and the family suffered with cold the first winter, but the house was improved in the summer, and he lived with them during the two years in which he taught the school. Mr. Lawton was supported the first year wholly by an association of Universalists of Auburn, New York, through the New York Freedmen's Relief Association, and in part by the same association the second year, 1867-'68, the commissioners of primary schools assuming most of his support in the latter named school year. His school during the two years averaged at different periods from 40 to 60 scholars. Mr. Lawton was elected teacher by the school commissioners August 16, 1866, but as the pay, $37 50 per month, voted by the school board April 5, 1866, to all teachers, male and female, of colored schools, was so manifestly inadequate, Mr. Newton, in order to retain his services and to continue the school with efficiency, added $10 per month from the funds of the association.

Mrs. Carroll, well known as one of the capable colored teachers of Washington for twenty-five years, under the name of Charlotte Gordon, was born and grew to womanhood a slave in Alexandria. Her owner, Mrs. Mary Fletcher, a good woman, believed in educating her servants and practiced her faith. She sent this child, Charlotte Pankus, to the best schools accessible to colored children in that city from the earliest school age. Sylvia Morris, Alfred Parry, and Joseph Ferrell were the excellent colored teachers whose schools she attended. Ferrell, of whom mention has been elsewhere made as a man of remarkable abilities, was sent to the penitentiary accused of furnishing passes to his enslaved brethren who run for freedom. He was sentenced for a term of seven years, and coming out at the end of this term, was immediately seized on a second accusation and sentenced to a second term of five years. Charlotte Pankus, with others of his old scholars, was in the court-house in Alexandria when Thompson Mason, whose slaves were "caught running" with the forged passes, made his violent and vindictive argument for the second conviction. Ferrell subsequently had a school in Washington, and died here some years ago, persisting on his death-bed that he was innocent of the offence. This girl attended also for nearly two years an admirable school for colored girls which was maintained in Alexandria by the Sisters of Charity, who at the same period had a large boarding school for white girls in that city. Sisters Agnes Annina and Mary Frances are remembered by her as the teachers of the colored school. Miss Edmunds, who had a boarding school in the city at that period, and Benjamin Hallowell, the eminent Quaker schoolmaster, both befriended her, the latter named teacher instructing her in Latin, of which she acquired some knowledge. She began to teach when a mere girl in Alexandria, and had a school there at the time of the Snow riot in Washington in 1835. Some years later her owner, with the desire to make her free, sent her to Washington without registration in order that she might acquire her freedom by the operation of the registry law, and she was in Washington when Alexandria was retroceded in 1846. Before this period she married Wm. H. Gordon, who a few years later went to California and died there, leaving her with a family of small children, whom she raised in a respectable manner by her industry and intelligence as a teacher. Her first school in Washington was in a house on I near Eleventh street, west, where she taught six years, with an average of

some forty scholars. From this place she moved her school to New York avenue, near Thirteenth street, into one of the houses of the locality known in that day as "Cover Tan Yard," where she had an average of about fifty scholars for five or six years, till about 1858, when she moved to Eighth between N and O streets, in the northern section of the city—a location then known as "Nigger Hill," at that time and now the centre of a large colored population. Her school here was very large, and in 1860 she occupied two adjoining small brick buildings, which were filled with scholars, her daughter being assistant. She established also a Sabbath school in connection with this school, and several white ladies took great interest in its progress, giving their personal aid as teachers and contributing to secure books. Among the most devoted friends of the school was Mrs. Mitchell, a Virginia lady, who gave her warm friendship to the work as a teacher from the beginning to the end of the school, which continued several years. Mrs. Mitchell is still a resident of Washington, an inmate of the family of her son-in-law, H. M. Binckley, esq., the Assistant Attorney General under the late administration. The day school was crowded when the war broke out, and was dispersed in the spring of 1861 when the soldiers began to throng the city, the small children, of which the school was mostly composed, being intimidated by the tramp of the armies. She had on her list at that time nearly a hundred and fifty scholars. This school was only briefly alluded to in the notices of schools in operation in the District, given in the previous pages. In 1861 she was married to Mr. Carroll, and the work which she did in the cause of enlightening her race during the war was perhaps the most useful of her life. David Carroll was born a slave, owned by Charles Carroll, of Carrolltown, but was early put to a trade and manumitted.

THE SCHOOLS, SCHOOL LOTS, AND SCHOOL-HOUSES.

District No. 1—Tenallytown.—At a meeting of the Board May 3, 1866, the commissioner of this district, R. W. Carter, a distinguished merchant of Washington, was instructed to hire a house at a rent not exceeding $5 per month. Nothing seems to have been further done, from the records, till April 4, 1867, when Mr. J. S. Lloyd was chosen teacher, whose first monthly report, June, 1867, shows six boys and seven girls on his list. He taught 13 months at $45 per month, and is now under the new schedule receiving $50. He is an efficient teacher, his school numbering about 40, with an average attendance of 24 scholars. Mr. Carter first came into the Board in April, 1866, and was elected president of the Board in the ensuing July, a position which with great public spirit and efficiency he still holds. He had recently purchased a country seat at Tenallytown, and entered into the objects of the Board with great interest, determined to secure for that community what they had hitherto not enjoyed—free schools. The project required courage. Among the mass of the white community there was no desire for schools of any kind, while the very few who felt the need of educational facilities generally regarded it vain to attempt anything of the kind in that population. The result has been the establishment of two admirable schools, one white and the other colored. A colored Methodist church has been formed, with a flourishing Sabbath school; also, a Catholic church. The colored school-house was built in the summer of 1867, and Mr. Carter has watched the school in all its stages with a generous fidelity that has left nothing to be desired. Public sentiment, which, not friendly to white schools three years ago, was extremely hostile to the education of the colored people, has been revolutionized, and schools of both classes are now approved by all, the opposition being very limited and emanating mostly from a vulgar class.

District No. 2.—It has already been stated that action was taken to buy a school lot in this district, which lies between district No. 1 and Rock Creek, at a meeting of the Board November 30, 1865. At a subsequent meeting, February 1, 1866, it was voted to hire a house at a rent of $4 per month, and the commissioner immediately opened a school, with Mary Boffey as teacher, who commencing with six boys and three girls in March, 1866, soon had a room full. She continued in the school seven months at $37 50 per month, and nine months at $45, the new building, costing $960 exclusive of fencing and stone, being completed in this period. She was succeeded by the present efficient teacher, Mr. B. M. Martin, who taught 13 months at $45 per month, which has been this year increased to $50; though it should be noted that in excluding the vacation this increase of the monthly pay is really a

reduction of the annual compensation. This school has averaged under the present teacher about 26 scholars, with 68 names on the roll.

District No. 3.—In this district the first movement for a school originated in the meeting of the Board May 3, 1866, which authorized the commissioner of the district to hire a house for a colored school at a rent not exceeding $7 per month. Mr. Carpenter, the commissioner, immediately rented a barrack building, and opened a school the week in which it was authorized. He employed Harvey Smith, who commenced in May with two boys and six girls, and taught four months at $37 50 a month, 22 months at $45, and has the regular pay of $50 this year. The school-house of the same plan and cost of that in district No. 2 was finished in the summer of 1866, and was well filled with scholars. At the present time the average attendance is about 30, as it was through last year, with 56 names on the roll. When the school was first organized there was the same prevailing hostility to the work in this as in the two districts west of Rock Creek. It was impossible to purchase a school lot of a white man in the district. The lot was purchased of a colored man. In this district the records of the Board show complaints from Francis Hamilton, a teacher of a colored school in June, 1867, that the white scholars of that district were insolent and abusive to the inoffending children of the colored school. There was also a complaint of the same character preferred to the Board at that meeting from J. H. Voorhees, the teacher of the colored school of the adjoining district, No. 4, against the white school of his district. These disgraceful persecutions, however, have mostly ceased, and higher, more generous, and enlightened ideas are prevailing. Mr. Carpenter has done much to inculcate correct views, and has given great satisfaction as a commissioner.

District No. 4—Soldiers' Home.—At a meeting of the Board April 26, 1866, Henry Queen, then and now the commissioner of the district, was authorised to hire a house at $7 a month, provide benches, and employ a teacher for a colored school; and Mr. A. Bolton opened a school, numbering at first 10 scholars, five boys and five girls, May 1, 1866, teaching four months at $37 50 per month and one month at $45. He died in October, and was succeeded by J. H. Voorhees, who still is giving much satisfaction in the school. He taught 20 months at $45 and now receives $50. The school has numbered about 70 the last two years, with an average attendance of 23 scholars. The school-house, of same pattern and cost of those in districts 2 and 3, was built in 1867 on a lot purchased of Mary Walker in April of that year. It is located near the Soldiers' Home, and in the vicinity of the residence of C. H. Wiltberger, who was commissioner from 1862 to 1866, and who has devoted great attention to the schools, both white and colored, in his district and in the county. Public sentiment in this district was originally more enlightened and tolerant of education among the colored people than in the districts already noticed, and at the present time there seems to be a spirit of kindness prevalent toward its colored school. Its progress is the cause of satisfaction and not of offence to the white population. Mr. Wiltberger has been the secretary of the Board of commissioners from its organization in 1862 to the present time, and the facts in this chapter pertaining to the work which has been done under the operations of the successive school acts have been drawn in a very large measure from the remarkably careful and laborious record which he has preserved. Very rarely absent from a meeting of the Board, he has kept an account of every important transaction, the value of which to the cause of common schools in the county it is scarcely possible to overestimate. Nor is this all the valuable work he has done. He has annually compiled from the monthly returns of the teachers a careful summary of the facts communicated in those returns, and has preserved copies of them, while the original papers transmitted to the levy court are not to be found. While a majority of the persons who have successively been appointed commissioners seem to have totally neglected the duties of the office, Mr. Wiltberger has been vigilant and unwearied in his exertions to awaken the people of his own school district to a just appreciation of the school system, and has given cordial support to the education of the colored people, although he originally dissented from the views of the levy court as to the meaning of the school act touching the distribution of the school funds.

District No. 5.—In this district no colored school has been established. The colored population is so scattered that the commissioners have not deemed it discreet either to open a

school or to build a house. At a meeting of the Board January 3, 1867, a committee, consisting of David Miller and John E. Chappel, was authorized to select a site for a house, but after looking the matter carefully over it is understood that they declined to proceed, doubting the expediency of building a house under the circumstances. In 1868 further action was taken, and at a meeting of the Board July 2, 1868, it was voted to condemn a certain lot which had been selected and could not be amicably purchased. This order, however, was not carried out, mainly because of the violent hostility among the white residents of the district to colored schools, and therefore no lot has yet been selected. This district extends along the westerly side of the Eastern Branch.

District No. 6.—The colored school which was established in 1861 in the limits of this district, which lies upon the easterly side of the Eastern Branch, has been fully sketched down to the period when it was assumed by the commissioner under the caption of "Charlotte Carroll's school." At a meeting of the Board January 18, 1866, the school at Jones's chapel was accepted as a public school, and the wages of the teacher, Frederick A. Lawton, fixed at $37 50 per month. At a previous meeting, January 4, 1866, it had been voted to pay Mr. Lawton the above specified wages under the condition that the house should be furnished with no expense to the commissioners. The report of the school for that month showed an average attendance of 26 boys and 16 girls. The Board, October 4, 1866, authorized the purchase of a lot for a school-house in this district at the rate of $200 per acre, and the commissioner purchased half an acre of Jacob Paine, a colored man owning a small farm in that district. The house was completed late in the autumn of 1866. Mr. Lawton taught eight months at $37 50 per month, and a year at $45. L. H. Smith, a son of the teacher in district No. 3, succeeded Mr. Lawton, teaching 10 months at $45, and is still in the school giving good satisfaction under the prescribed pay of the present year. The whole number of scholars enrolled the year ending July 15, 1868, was 103, with an average attendance through the year of 36. The school-house is 20 feet by 40 feet in dimensions. Mr. W. B. Lacey, the present commissioner, is an active and efficient officer.

District 7, No. 1—Good Hope schools.—The second effort to start schools in the county for the colored people was made in the Good Hope church, on the east side of the Eastern Branch, a mile or more from the Navy Yard bridge. Mr. G. F. Needham, a clerk in the Post Office Department, went over there early in the spring of 1864 and aided Miss Eliza H. Stanton, of Virginia, who had been sent into this field as a teacher by the New York National Freedmen's Relief Association, in organizing a school in that chapel, a comfortable brick church built by the African Methodist people before the war. Miss Stanton had a large school, and managed it with energy and success, receiving for her services $30 per month, barely enough to pay her board and lodging. The opposition to the work at that time in that vicinity was exceedingly bitter. No white family would receive this refined woman into their house, and the colored people were too poor and shelterless in their condition to do so. She was compelled to walk into the city, which broke down her physical powers in the course of the summer, compelling her to disband her school. An illustration of the prevailing temper at that period is found in the following reply which was made to Miss Stanton's application for board by a family still living in that neighborhood: "If you are mean enough to teach niggers, you may eat and sleep with them." The family has learned wisdom since then, and would feel mortified now, as they should feel, to see their names in this connection.

In the autumn of 1865, shortly after Miss Stanton relinquished her work, Mr. A. E. Newton, the superintendent of the schools of the relief societies in the cities of Washington, Georgetown, and Alexandria, took measures to revive her school, employing Mr. Addison Wheeler, of Connecticut, as teacher, who began his labors in a night and day school in the winter of 1865-'66. Mr. Wheeler at first found quarters with a lieutenant stationed at Fort Wagner, in the vicinity, and Mr. Newton secured an order from the War Office when the fort was abandoned which resulted in the transfer of the officers' small barrack building to the Good Hope church lot. It was turned over to the control of the Freedmen's Bureau, and the colored men each gave one day with all the teams they owned for its removal. The Bureau gave some assistance and Mr. Newton paid $20. In this house Mr. Wheeler lived alone for some time, cooking his own food, till he found good board at the table of a colored man by

the name of Payne in the neighborhood. The school was continued by Mr. Wheeler, with some interruptions caused by ill-health, through the year, and when the present remarkably superior teacher, Rev. J. S. Dore, came upon the ground in the spring of 1866 to engage with him in the work the school numbered about 60 scholars.

This new teacher has done his work with such extraordinary wisdom and energy, through evil report and through good, that his name merits a prominent place in this record. Mr. Dore, a native of Maine and a student in Waterville College in that State, at the opening of the war early embarked as a private soldier in the contest; subsequently becoming chaplain of the 6th New Hampshire veteran volunteers, continuing in that capacity through the war. Sent into this educational work by the Freedmen's Relief Association of Portland, Maine, he reached Washington early in April, 1866, and at once commenced a new era at the Good Hope school. In less than one month after entering upon his duties the school was increased from 60 to 145, and the school district No. 7 had been canvassed by him, disclosing the fact that it contained upwards of 300 children of the lawful school age. A night school was at the same time opened, meeting five nights a week, and soon numbering 90 men and women. A very large Sabbath school was also organized, the first ever held in the place, and is still with unabated efficiency maintained, with a Sabbath school library of several hundred volumes. At the close of the term, July 15, 1866, Mr. Wheeler retired, leaving the whole work in the hands of Mr. Dore. During the vacation of six weeks, Mr. Dore having entered into contract with the owner of an unfinished building to complete it for its use a year, vacated the small barrack building, which was fitted up for a school-room. Mr. Newton at the same time obtained permission of the War Office to take possession of a hospital structure at Fort Baker, and the Bureau moved it to the Good Hope chapel lot near the other barrack building, and converted it into two coarse but comparatively comfortable school-rooms, provision being thus secured for the schools without resorting to the chapel.

The first help from the School Commissioners is indicated by the following action of the Board at their regular meeting May 18, 1865: "Commissioner John Fox, of the 7th district, submitted to the board a monthly report (April) of a colored school in the 7th district taught by Addison Wheeler, and asked that said school be recognized by this Board and money appropriated, payable out of the colored fund, for the support of said school; when, on motion of Commissioner David Miller, (district No. 6,) it was resolved that the sum of $25 per month be fixed as the pay of Mr. Addison Wheeler as teacher of the school for colored children in the 7th district, and that the sum of $50 per annum be appropriated for rent of house, (Good Hope chapel,) payable quarterly." Pursuant of this resolution, on the 2d day of November, the Board voted to pay the first half year's salary ($150) to Mr. Wheeler and $25 for rent of the chapel, constituting the first money voted by the Board for the support of colored schools. At the examination of Mr. Dore's school July 15, 1866, two of the commissioners were present for the first time in any colored school, and the results so impressed them that at the next meeting of the Board, August 16, upon the representation of these members, Mr. Dore was elected teacher of the colored school in district No. 7 at a salary of $450, the same as was paid to the female teachers, while at that date the salary for male teachers in the white schools was $750. On the 1st of September, however, the Board raised the salary of male teachers of white schools to $900, and of female teachers in either white or colored to $540, male teachers of colored schools ranking in salary with the women. Mr. Dore was at this time offered the white school at Uniontown, in the adjoining district, No. 6, at $900, but preferred to remain in the Good Hope school. The New York branch of the National Freedmen's Aid Commission made his salary up to $600.

The Good Hope school opened September 1, 1866, with three teachers and three departments. Miss Jennie S. Palmer, of Cooperstown, New York, and Miss Leah Wither, of Abbott, Maine, (now Mrs. J. S. Dore,) both supported by the New York branch of the National Freedmen's Aid Commission, being Mr. Dore's assistants. These teachers carried their schools, which were always full, through the year with a systematic intelligence and fidelity that commanded the respect of opponents and attracted the admiration of friends. In addition to the large and flourishing night and Sabbath schools, a sewing school was maintained through the year, the term closing with an examination of remarkable excellence

July 15, 1867. At a meeting of the Board September 3, 1867, it was voted to raise the salary of Mr. Dore to $600, in consideration, as the resolution set forth, that his school was extraordinary in size, having numbered in the past season more than three hundred scholars. The next school year opened September 1, 1867, with Miss Flora A. Leland, of Ashland, Massachusetts, in place of Miss Jennie S. Palmer, resigned. Miss Leland, who proved to be a most superior teacher, as her school at Barry farm now abundantly testifies, was employed by the school commissioners at a salary of $450, and Mr. Dore's salary was increased to $900 by a contribution of $300 from the New York branch of the Freedmen's Union Commission.

The Good Hope school took possession of the new two story school house, built for that purpose the past season, on the 22d of March, 1869. This house stands upon a spacious lot some fifty rods from the Good Hope chapel, and in one of the most commanding and delightful places in that region of the county. The house is about 26 by 38 feet on the ground, and is well finished inside and out. It is to be regretted that the commissioners allowed so good a house to be furnished with such very poorly shaped and made pine furniture. Such desks and seats are not evidence of enlightened ideas, and it is safe to say do not meet the full approbation of all the commissioners. The school rooms, about 25 feet square, are much too small for the number of desks placed in them, and it is unfortunate that at least one-third of the dozen feet used for ante-rooms was not embraced in the school rooms. The house, however, is a credit to the district, and is probably the best that has been built by the commissioners. This school is intended to accommodate some of the scholars in district No. 6, who reside near it. It is but just to make special mention of Dr. W. W. Godding, of the Insane Asylum, who, as commissioner for district No. 7, has made the cause of the schools, both white and colored, a labor of love. In full sympathy with the teachers and all friends of the colored schools, he has for years been their wise and enlightened counsellor and friend in all their trials and triumphs. The lot on which the house is built was sold to the commissioners by Mr. Dore, the teacher, near whose residence it stands. The school numbers about a hundred, nearly equally divided between Mr. Dore and Mrs. Dore, the assistant, filling the two school rooms quite full. The work which has been done in this district by these teachers at Good Hope and at Barry farm is very marvellous. The people upon whom they have wrought, the ignorant and despised from the plantations, to a very large extent have been clothed with new life under their ministrations. When the Good Hope school was founded it was as rare to find a colored person in the region who could read as it is now to find one who cannot read. Nearly all the old people as well as the young have learned to read, at least enough to use the Testament. Industry prevails, and there are but two or three recipients of the public charity in the whole neighborhood at the present time.

District 7, No. 2—The Howard schools.—The Barry farm, comprising about 375 acres, adjoining the estate of the St. Elizabeth Insane Asylum, south of the Eastern Branch, was purchased in the early part of 1868, by the Freedmen's Bureau. It was divided into house lots of one acre each and offered to the freedmen at cost, the Bureau furnishing each lot owner a portion of the lumber for a house. The payment for the lot was to be made within two years, and in equal monthly instalments, with an express stipulation that the lot is forfeited by failure to comply with these terms. The estate was purchased with funds which the Freedmen's Bureau, in pursuance of an act of Congress, March 2, 1867, deposited in the hands of three trustees for that purpose. The object of establishing such a fund was, as expressed in the special order of the Bureau, "to relieve the immediate necessities of a class of poor colored people in the District of Columbia by rental of land by sale, with deferred payments, or in such other way as their trustees judgment shall direct for this purpose, provided all proceeds, interest, or moneys received from rental or sale over and above necessary expenses shall be annually transferred" to said institutions.

The trustees are O. O. Howard, John R. Elvans, and S. C. Pomeroy, and they paid for the farm $52,000. The estate made 359 lots, of which 300 had been sold prior to October, 1868, and 40 of these had been forfeited. The lumber for 185 houses had been at that date issued by the Bureau and the most of the dwellings built. The enterprise, designed to stimulate these poor people with courage and industrious habits, has proved eminently successful. The Freedmen have entered with great ambition into the idea of securing a home,

and have formed on this farm an enterprising, industrious village. They have built a Baptist church, and have purchased the lot upon which they are about to build a Methodist church. They also bought one of the acre lots upon which the Bureau erected in the closing months of 1867, a large one story school house, at a cost of some $1,500, about 75 feet long and 25 wide, comprising two excellent school rooms and capable of accommodating sixty scholars, with the requisite ante-rooms. There is also a flourishing night school in operation, for some time under the instruction of Charles Douglass, a son of Frederick Douglass. The proceeds of this property are to go ultimately to the colored schools of the District, of Virginia, and of North Carolina, one third part to each.

The Howard school at Barry farm, in Uniontown, or, as the place has been recently named, Anacostia, was opened January 1, 1868. Mr. Dore at this time consolidated his three schools at Good Hope into two, and leaving them in care of Mrs. Dore and Miss Leland, went down to "Anacostia" and organized the Howard school in the new house, remaining there through the month. On the first of February Miss Leland took charge of the Howard school, which soon numbered some 90 scholars, and Mr. Dore resumed the care of his Good Hope schools. Good Hope and the Howard schools are perhaps a little more than a mile apart. Miss Leland is a most superior teacher. Her large room has always been full and her school is one of the best in the District of Columbia. The children, nearly all from the plantations a few years ago, are clad with care, many of them nicely dressed, and there is a neatness and order about the school which, combined with the brightness and correctness apparent in the recitations, makes it a school meriting this special notice.

On the 20th of April, 1868, a primary school was organized in the other room of the Howard school-house, and Miss F. E. Hall employed as teacher by the Pennsylvania branch of the Freedmen's Relief Commission at $40 per month. Both the departments were crowded through the season. Miss Hall commenced with 40 and closed the school year July 30, 1868, with 60 scholars. When the new school year opened in September, 1868, Miss Leland's room was at once filled, and as the Aid Society had withdrawn its assistance and the commissioners could not assume another teacher, more than half the children at Barry farm were shut from the school room, which they would gladly fill. In this emergency, through the intervention of Rev. John Kimball of the Bureau, the Pennsylvania Relief Commission was induced to appropriate $20 a month to this school for another year. Miss Hall, interested in the school and the industrial scheme of the Barry farm, on learning these facts came back from Auburn and re-opened the school December 21, 1868, and both these schools have thus been maintained through the winter. The colored population of this place is increasing, and it is a matter of serious consideration how their educational wants are to be met the ensuing year when the small foreign aid now received will be certainly withdrawn. The uniformity of attendance in both branches of this admirable school is remarkable, showing unmistakably the deep interest which these humble people indulge in their privileges.

It has been seen that in all the districts except the fifth the colored people have been furnished respectable school privileges. The school-houses in the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th districts are frame buildings, one story, about 24 by 30 feet in dimensions, well finished and alike. The house in the 6th district is 20 by 40 feet, and the Good Hope house in the 7th district, has been stated, is 25 by 38 feet and two stories. The furniture in them all is of pine, manufactured by a carpenter of the county. The school lots have been fenced in a respectable manner and outhouses built. Most well-informed friends of these schools will regret that better houses have not been built, and certainly that better furniture has not been purchased.

The Board paid the rent of Good Hope church, at $7 per month, for Addison Wheeler's school, commencing May 1, 1865, and continuing until November, when the houses from the Bureau were ready, and this was all that was done in that school year towards providing school-houses for colored schools, except an appropriation of $69 to plaster one of the rooms at Good Hope and $39 for furniture. The next action was at a meeting after the new school year opened, November 30, 1865, when it was voted to authorize "the commissioner of the 2d district to purchase a lot of half an acre for the purpose of erecting a school-house thereon for a colored school, the sum to be paid for the lot not to exceed $80." In accordance with

this action a lot was bought of John Mayer January 4, 1866, and December 6, ensuing, $960 was voted for building the school-house. In this same district a lot comprising one acre was purchased for a white school, under a vote of the board August 20, 1865, for $150, and November 9 following $1,080 was appropriated for the house, and $216 80 April 5, 1866, for furniture, $600 being voted the next year to build a vestibule and $340 for fencing. This district seems to be a fair example of the discrimination between the two classes which prevails in the county pertaining to the school lots and houses. The rule has been to buy an acre for a white and half an acre for a colored school lot, and to expend several hundred dollars more for a white than for a colored school-house. In district No. 4 the house for the colored school cost $960, but that for the white school cost $1,570, and this is about the ratio on which expenditures have generally been made.

Rev. John Kimball was present at the meeting of the Board April 5, 1866, and in behalf of the Freedmen's Bureau proposed to aid the commissioners in securing some of the barrack buildings at the dismantled forts in the county for colored school-houses. The Board thankfully accepted the proposition, and at once voted to use $125 for securing materials in this way for each district in which a house was needed. Mr. Kimball failed to secure the buildings, but offered to contribute $25 for each house that the commissioners would purchase at the auction sale of these government buildings. This suggestion was not adopted, though the purchase at least of one of the buildings at Fort Stevens was pressed upon them with much solicitude. Mr. Kimball, a native of New England, having served through the war as a chaplain, came to this District as superintendent of schools, at the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau, for the territory comprising the District of Columbia, Maryland, and West Virginia, the State of Delaware having been subsequently added. This responsible place he has filled with a vigor and sagacity that have commanded universal commendation. In Washington and Georgetown he was the cordial and wise colaborer of Mr. A. E. Newton in laying the foundations of the free schools, which are doing such a wonderful work for the colored people in those cities at the present time, and this brief tribute is the least that can be said of his beneficent labors in this incidental notice.

COMPENSATION OF TEACHERS.

It has been seen that in the first aid extended to the colored schools by the commissioners Addison Wheeler, a white man from Connecticut, was in 1865 paid $25 per month as a teacher. The commissioners, at a meeting January 4, 1866, voted to authorize the commissioner in district No. 4 to pay a teacher $60 per month to instruct a white school and to pay $37 50 to a teacher of a colored school, "provided the commissioner is satisfied of the competency of the teacher and that the use of a building be obtained without cost to the Board." If the competency of the teacher were to be estimated by the price fixed for his services, the Board might well have raised the doubt suggested in their proviso. April 5, 1866, on motion of R. W. Carter, the Board fixed the pay of all female teachers at $37 50. August 16, 1866, the pay of all female teachers and of all male teachers of colored schools was raised to $45 per month. September 6, 1866, the pay of male teachers of white schools was increased from $62 50 to $75 per month, commencing September 1, 1866. The pay of assistant teachers was fixed at $35 per month. This rate of compensation was continued through the school year ending in July, 1867.

At a meeting of the Board August 1, 1867, B. D. Carpenter, the commissioner of district No. 3, presented a proposition, which was laid on the table, "to pay the male teachers of the colored schools the same salary as we pay the male teachers of the white schools;" his resolution going on to affirm the very sensible idea that "while we require the same amount of labor and qualifications we feel" (or rather should feel, as the action of the Board upon the proposition shows that the majority did not, in fact, so feel,) "we cannot withhold this act of common justice." At the meeting of the Board October 3, 1867, Mr. Carpenter's resolution was taken up, and while under discussion Dr. W. W. Godding offered an amendment, fixing the pay of all male teachers at $65 per month. Henry Queen, commissioner of district No. 4, offered also an amendment, providing for the exclusive employment of female teachers. Both motions to amend, together with the original resolution, were rejected.

In the early months of 1868 the subject of systematizing the rates of teachers' pay was much discussed. January 2, 1868, Mr. Lacey introduced the following resolution at the meeting of the board: "*Resolved*, That the wages of the teachers of white schools shall be reduced to $60 per month, to take effect 30 days from date." And at the next meeting the resolution was referred to a special committee, who were instructed to report a graded system of wages. This committee, consisting of W. B. Lacey, L. H. Whitney, and B. D. Carpenter, reported July 2, 1868, fixing the scale as follows: Male principal of white schools, $75; male principal of colored schools, $60; female teachers of white and colored schools, $50; assistant teachers, $35; school year, nine months, from September 15 to June 15; teachers to be paid by the month and for the time of actual service only. After the appropriation of $10,000 was made by Congress, July 20, 1868, for the aid of these schools, the proposition was introduced at a meeting of the Board August 6, 1868, to fix the vacation, as hitherto, at six weeks, commencing July 15, and to pay the above scale of wages 12 months in the year as had been the custom. The subject was referred to a select committee, who reported September 3, 1868, to pay this scale for ten months in the year. At the meeting December 3, 1868, a proposition was made to confer with the levy court, and to suggest $65, $60, $50, and $35 as the graded scale. These protracted efforts resulted in no definite action, and the teachers were paid as in the previous year. The pay the current school year, 1868–'69, is as follows: Male teachers of white schools, 75; male teachers of colored schools, $50; female teachers, $50; assistants, $35. The colored school at Good Hope is an exception. The Board at a meeting September 3, 1868, voted that the pay of J. S. Dore should be "the same as in white schools for the current year." This action of the Board, however, is understood to be based upon the extraordinary services of Mr. Dore, and in no sense a recognition of equality between the teachers of white and colored schools. It should be stated that hitherto the teachers have been paid for the whole year, 12 months, not deducting the usual vacations, but this year they are to be paid only for actual service.

It is difficult to reconcile the discrimination in the remuneration of the teachers of the white and colored schools which is perceived in these details, though the present Board of commissioners in their action in many respects seem to be justly and generously disposed in the discharge of their duties towards the colored schools. It will not be disputed by any persons of enlightened views in regard to education that the colored schools demand as good qualifications and as much labor as the white of the same grade, and this is the principle affirmed in the resolution of Mr. Carpenter, which was rejected by the Board, as already stated, though it should be added, in justice to the Board, that at least three of the seven members were at that time, as they are now, in favor of Mr. Carpenter's proposition. In this connection, also, it is worthy to be stated to the credit of the Board that when Dr. Godding, June 6, 1867, moved "to expend $200 in premiums for the schools, to be apportioned according to the number of scholars, and *the premiums to be in the white and colored schools alike*," the proposition was adopted without dissent as to the mode of distribution.

By action of the Board December 5, 1867, the teachers were allowed to dismiss their schools one day each month in order to attend the regular meetings of the Teachers' Institute. July 2, 1868, the time was limited to one day each quarter. These meetings are held at room 13 in the old National Intelligencer Building, corner of Seventh and D streets, and the use of the room is given by the Board. The Institute is left entirely to the management of the teachers, but it is required to make a report of proceedings to the Board with the names of those attending. The application for the above privilege was made by Mr. J. S. Lloyd, teacher of colored school in district No. 1, and praise is due both to him and the Board for effecting an arrangement so conducive to the prosperity of so useful an organization as the Institute.

THE COMMISSIONERS AND TRUSTEES.

The present commissioners have done much in the last two years for the colored schools, and some have been exceedingly efficient throughout their service. The fact that the act of Congress allows them no compensation should, perhaps, be suggested, when it is said that in some cases they have *done nothing*. The trustees, of whom there are two in each district, in charge of the local matters of the individual districts, are represented to be, as a general rule,

exceedingly inefficient, and in the most of the districts it is almost impossible to find good men who will consent to serve. These remarks apply to the present as well as to the past. The following are the commissioners at the present time: District No. 1, R. W. Carter, president of the board; district No. 2, B. T. Swart; district No. 3, B. D. Carpenter; district No. 4, Henry Queen; district No. 5, L. H. Whitney; district No. 6, W. B. Lacey; district No. 7, W. W. Godding. Charles H. Wiltberger, who has been the clerk of the board from its organization, receives a salary of $300 per annum, and Nicholas Callan, who, as the clerk of the levy court, is made by the act treasurer of the school fund, receives a salary of $100 per annum.

SUMMARY.

Colored public schools in Washington County, January, 1869.

District.	Teacher.	Opened.	Scholars.		Average attendance.		Total expenses.	
			1866–'67.	1867–'68.	1866–'67.	1867–'68.	1866–'67.	1867–'68.
1	J. S. Lloyd	June, 1867...	40	40	21	24	....	....
2	B. M. Martin............	March, 1866..	73	68	18	26	....	....
3	Harvey Smith	May, 1866 ...	87	56	33	30	....	....
4	J. H. Voorhees..........	May, 1866 ...	36	70	13	23	....	....
5	No school.							
6	L. H. Smith	Aug., 1861...	117	103	35	36	....	....
7	Rev. J. S. Dore, No. 1 ..	March, 1864..	319	255	106	88	....	....
	Mrs. J. S. Dore							
7	Miss F. A. Leland, No. 2.	Jan., 1868 ...	....	169	....	80	....	....
	Miss F. E. Hall	April 1868...						
			672	761	226	306	$9,010 60	$5,709 93

The school in district 6, and school No. 1, district 7, (the Good Hope school,) were not established by the Trustees, but the former passed into their hands January, 1866; the latter, May, 1865. All the teachers named above are white.

School property of colored schools in Washington County, January, 1869.

District 1.—Lot ½ acre, $174. Frame house, $974 77; built 1867. Furniture, $78 50.

District 2.—Lot ½ acre, $95 50. Frame house, $968; built 1866. Furniture, $184.

District 3.—Lot ½ acre, $134 25. Frame house, $971 20; built 1866. Furniture, $52 75. Fencing, $235.

District 4.—Lot ⅝ acre, $253 50. Frame house, $1,101 20; built 1867. Furniture, $256. Fencing, $285.

District 5.—None.

District 6.—Lot $\frac{45}{100}$ acre, $104 75. Frame house, $1,164; built 1866. Furniture, $175 80. Fencing, $165.

District 7, *No.* 1.—Lot ¾ acre, $300. House, $1,978 50. Furniture, $200. Fencing, $275.

District 7, *No.* 2.—Lot owned by colored people, and building by Freedmen's Bureau.

The above figures do not include certain improvements made since the buildings were completed and occupied.

3. COLORED SCHOOLS OF ALEXANDRIA.

EARLIEST SCHOOLS.

The fact that the city of Alexandria, with the county in which it is situated, was for nearly half a century an important portion of this District, makes its history during that period important to the completion of this record. By act of Congress, February 27, 1801, it was provided that the laws of the State of Virginia as they existed at that date should "continue in force in that part of the District of Columbia which was ceded by the said State to the United States," and the same of that portion ceded in like manner by the State of Maryland. In neither of these States was there at that period any statute *forbidding the instruction of persons of color, whether bond or free.* It was not till nearly a third of a century after this period that the shocking laws utterly prohibiting the instruction of the colored classes were enacted in Virginia. It has been already remarked in other connections in these records that many of the most humane and enlightened men and women throughout the south, in the beginning of this century, like Mr. Jefferson, believed in the right of the colored people of all conditions to some education, and this affirmation finds exemplification in the history of Alexandria.

Schools for colored children seem to have been established in that city about 1809, not far from the year in which such schools were first opened in Washington and Georgetown. Perhaps the earliest was the one taught by Mrs. Cameron, a white Virginia lady, who had for some years a primary school for colored boys and girls on the corner of Duke and Fairfax streets, in the house now owned and occupied by Dr. Murphy. Mrs. Tutten, a white Virginia lady, also had a school about that period in a house on the corner of Pitt and Prince streets. Both these schools were in operation some time prior to the opening of the war of 1812. Immediately after this war

A FREE COLORED SCHOOL

was founded by an association of free colored people, who received cordial aid and encouragement from the enlightened and benevolent white people of the city. The school was held in the Washington Free School Building on Washington street, then not used for a white school, and was taught by Rev. James H. Hanson, white pastor of the Methodist Episcopal church, colored. It was conducted on the Lancaster system and averaged nearly three hundred scholars. The association was composed of the most substantial colored people of the city, and was maintained with great determination and success for a considerable period. There are colored men and women of good education still living in Alexandria who attended this school.

ALFRED H. PARRY,

born a slave in Alexandria in 1805, went to Mr. Hanson's school, and when a mere boy began himself to teach in a small way. An attempt being made to separate the mother and child by sale, the parent seized her offspring in her desperation and threw it into the Potomac, from which it was with difficulty rescued alive. The mother soon afterwards purchased both her own freedom and that of her child, the latter for $50. Mr. Parry taught many years in Alexandria. At first he had only a small night-school, which gradually increased so much as to attract the attention of the mayor, Bernard Hooe, in 1837, who called Parry before him and declared his school to be an "unlawful assembly." In Alexandria the schools were subjected to annoyance and restraints under the provisions of the city ordinance prohibiting all assemblages, day or night, "under the pretence or pretext of a religious meeting, or for any amusement." It was this provision that Mayor Hooe read to Parry when called before him. Parry plead for his school on the ground of his well-known good character, and the mayor replied that his assent to such a school would not be given though he knew the teacher to be "as pure as the angel Gabriel." Parry, however, persisted, hired a white man to be present at his night-school, and the mayor, without assenting, endured the institution.

Parry soon opened a day-school, which was kept up through the severest period of the

persecution which followed the Nat Turner insurrection in South Hampton county and the riots in Washington and other cities, from 1831 to 1835. Here he taught until he went to Washington, in 1843—the school-house last used by him being between Duke and Wolf streets, on a hill, and known as "Mount Hope Academy." His scholars numbered from 75 to 100, composed of both sexes. Many slave children attended his school under written permits from their owners; "I am willing that my servant, A. B., should attend the school of Alfred H. Parry," being substantially the form of the permission which met the requisitions of the law. The owners paid the tuition. The excitement in the times of the riots does not seem to have inflamed the people of Alexandria as it did in Washington, though the colored schools and churches were all closed for a time. Mr. Parry's wife was born at Ravensworth. Her mother, Kitty Jones, was one of the Mount Vernon servants, belonging to Washington, who made her free before the birth of the daughter, and she was brought up in the family of Jonathan Butcher, a good Quaker of Alexandria. Parry, now resides in Washington.

OTHER SCHOOLS.

Sylvia Morris, a colored woman, had a primary school for about twenty years on Washington street, in her own house, near the Lancaster school. It was at some periods quite large. She was teaching at the time of the Nat Turner insurrection, and continued her school up to the retrocession of Alexandria in 1846.

Mr. Nuthall, an Englishman, had a flourishing school for two or three years, from 1833, in the First Baptist colored church, but the opposition was so strong at that time that he discontinued it, and subsequently taught in Georgetown.

A few years before this period, about the time when General Jackson was first elected President, a white man by the name of Sargent taught on Duke street and in several other localities. Also, Joseph Ferrell, a colored man of decided abilities, had a school for some years on an alley between Duke and Prince streets. He was a baker by trade and a leading spirit among the colored people, but was sent to the penitentiary for assisting some of his race in escaping from bondage.

SABBATH SCHOOLS.

The first colored Sabbath school in Alexandria was established about 1818, in the Second Presbyterian (white) church, the Friends opening a similar school about the same time. In these schools the scholars, old and young, were taught to read. The colored people had chapels in which they held their prayer and social evening worship, but in the regular Sabbath ministrations they occupied the galleries in the white churches. Soon after the Sabbath schools were established in the white churches for the colored people they began to open them in their own chapels, the white people coming into them to assist. At the love feasts in the Methodist churches the white and colored communicants were accustomed to speak without discrimination; also at confirmation in St. Paul's church, and it is believed in the other Episcopal churches, the bishop placed his hand alike upon the head of the black and the white communicant. At the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, however, the colored were not allowed to participate till the whites had communed, and this continues to be the custom in all the Protestant white churches.

THE RETROCESSION AND THE RESULTS.

When Alexandria city and county were retroceded to Virginia by act of Congress, July 9, 1846, Sylvia Morris's long-established school was in a flourishing condition, and there were several smaller schools for little children taught in private houses. The hostility to the instruction of the colored people had become so strong that the children were obliged to conceal their school books on the street, and to dodge to and fro like the young partridges of the forest. But when the laws of Virginia took effect, by the ratification of the retrocession (1846) on the part of the State, matters became still worse, for the constables of the city were at once ordered to disperse every colored school, whether taught by day or night, on the week-day or on the Sabbath, and the injunction was most zealously executed. Every humble negro cabin in which it was suspected that any of these dusky children were wont

to meet for instruction was visited, and so stern and relentless was the rule that the free colored people dared only in a covert manner to teach even their own children, a colored person not being allowed to read openly in the street so much as a paragraph in a newspaper. Some used to meet in secluded places outside the city, and, with sentinels posted, hold their meetings for mutual instruction, those who could read and write a little teaching those less fortunate. In 1845 they organized a colored masonic lodge, the charter being received from the Grand Lodge of Pennsylvania.* The city authorities, however, forbade their meetings within the limits of the city, and they were wont to meet beyond the city, with sentinels at outposts, as in the assemblages for learning to read and write.

Thus all the education which they could give their children was such as was dispensed by stealth in dark corners, except those who were able to send their sons and daughters to Washington and elsewhere, as many, by the most extraordinary exertion, continued to do through the next 14 years. But under the iron despotism of the "Virginia black code," as will be seen hereafter, those who sought their education abroad were expatriated, for the law strictly forbade such ever to return with their intelligence to their homes under penalty of fine or stripes. Many of the free colored people fled precipitately to Washington and to the north at the time of the retrocession, and those who remained courageously struggled under their ignominious burdens, praying day and night, as they now say, for the great deliverance, which the Lord, in his own good time, has brought them.

Schools were established in Alexandria by the benevolent societies about the same period they were opened in Washington, and for the last five years the colored children of the city have had vastly better school privileges than the white—a turn in the wheel of fortune abundantly suggestive of philosophic reflection.

THE FIRST SCHOOLS FOR CONTRABANDS.

The earliest schools for contrabands in the country were opened in Alexandria, and, to the honor of the colored people be it said, were established wholly by themselves. They were private, in part pay schools, and a very large majority of the scholars, from first to last, were contrabands.

The colored schools of Alexandria under the old order of things were summarily terminated, it has been seen, when the retrocession was consummated, July 9, 1846, and henceforth, for 15 years, the colored people in that city were, so far as stern municipal law and relentless public sentiment and public officers could compass the wretched purpose, shut up to ignorance. There were, however, in that city, as elsewhere in Virginia, those who held to the faith of the Virginians of an earlier day, and who gave their servants some education.

Among the few colored girls who had grown up under such training in Alexandria was Miss Mary Chase. The family retreating with the tide of the rebellion when the ill-fated Ellsworth so bravely planted there the standard of the Union, May 24, 1861, she was left behind, and, quickly appreciating the nature of the wonderful events passing before her eyes, she courageously set to work for the good of her race. September 1 of that year (1861) she started a school called the "Columbia Street School," near Wolf street, and continued it, with much usefulness, down to 1866, when nearly all the pay schools were absorbed in the better organized free schools of the benevolent societies. Her school numbered 25 scholars June 30, 1865, and this was about her usual number, of whom quite two-thirds had been slaves.

The second contraband school was the "St. Rose Institute," a day and evening school, on West street, between King and Prince. It was established October 1, 1861, by Mrs. Jane A. Crouch and Miss Sarah A. Gray, both colored, and natives of Alexandria. It averaged about 40 scholars, nearly all having been slaves. Miss Gray was one of Miss Miner's scholars; was also at the St. Frances Academy of the Baltimore convent, and is a superior scholar as well as teacher. She afterwards assisted Rev. Mr. Robinson in his school, but is at the present time teaching a flourishing private school of her own in Alexandria, num-

*NOTE.—The first Grand Lodge among the colored people of this country was organized in Boston in 1784, under a charter received from the masons of England.

bering from 60 to 70 scholars. Her father is a well known and respected citizen of that place. Mrs. Crouch, also an excellent teacher, received a part of her education at the Baltimore convent.

The third contraband school was organized January 1, 1862, by Rev. C. Robinson, an able colored Baptist clergyman, subsequently assisted by the American Free Baptist Mission Society of New York, and also by the American Baptist Home Missionary Society. The school was held in a room connected with the "Second Baptist" or "Beulah" church, of which Mr. Robinson is the present pastor, and which he organized in 1863; then and now composed entirely of persons manumitted by the emancipation proclamation. Mr. Robinson was born in Brunswick, Virginia, but has no knowledge of either of his parents. He received his collegiate and theological education at the "Ashmun Institute," now the Lincoln University, (Oxford, Penn.;) was supported by "The New Jersey Baptist State Educational Society," and was ordained in the First Baptist church at Newark. At the opening of the war he was teaching at Philadelphia, as the laws of Virginia did not permit him to return, he having left it for the purpose of getting an education. When the war swept down that barrier he at once returned, and opened his school, which he called the "First Select Colored school." The first teachers were, besides himself, Rev. G. W. Parker, Miss Amanda Borden, and Mrs. Robinson, all colored. The attendance was very large, and in 1862 the number registered was 715, though the average of regular scholars was much less. In December, 1864, the records show an average of 280. As the free schools were introduced the number necessarily diminished. In the autumn of 1865 the teachers were George H. Steemer, (colored,) Miss Martha J. Emerson, and Miss Louisa Avery, young ladies from New Hampshire and excellently fitted for their work. The next year it was made an entirely free school, and Miss Sarah A. Gray, already mentioned, Miss Lavinia Lane, and Miss Martha Winkfield were added to the corps of teachers, the average attendance being about 125. Before the close of that year the number of teachers was reduced to two, Miss Gray and Miss Clara Gowing, (colored,) Mr. Robinson not having at any time withdrawn his general superintendence of the school. In 1868 he resumed the direct charge. The number of scholars is now (January, 1869,) 100; average attendance, 90. Theological Department, 30; Normal Department, 30; Primary Department, 40. The teachers are A. Lewis, Rev. J. M. Dawson, Rev. J. Thomas, Rev. L. W. Brooks, and George H. Steemer, all colored. This school has for two years been under the auspices of a society afflicted with the ponderous title of "*The Home and Foreign Educational Missionary and Commission Society.*" From the beginning the "Beulah Normal and Theological school" has constituted one of the departments, the public examinations of which are held every summer. In the two years ending July, 1868, the above-named society had contributed to the school $728 33. The supporters of the society are men of wealth in Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, of whom the most liberal have been Hon. Wm. E. Dodge, of New York; the late J. P. Crozer, of Philadelphia; and A. H. Reese, of Chester, Pennsylvania. The society has educated eight missionaries, who are now teaching and preaching at the south, most of whom were ordained in the Beulah church. The following is a brief summary taken from the records of Mr. Robinson's school:

1862, scholars registered,	Primary Department	700
	Normal and Theological Departments	15
1863, scholars registered,	Primary Department	708
	Normal and Theological Departments	20
1864, scholars registered,	Primary Department	558
	Normal and Theological Departments	28
1865, scholars registered,	Primary Department	400
	Normal and Theological Departments	30
1866, scholars registered,	Primary Department	380
	Normal and Theological Departments	60
1867, scholars registered,	Primary Department	300
	Normal and Theological Departments	88
1868, scholars registered,	Primary Department	40
	Normal and Theological Departments	60

It should be mentioned that a large evening school has also been kept up from the origin of this enterprise.

The fourth contraband school in Alexandria was started in November, 1862, by Leland Warring, himself a contraband, who has since become a preacher under the instruction and by the assistance of Rev. E. Turney, D. D. At that time Warring could read and spell pretty well, and such limited knowledge as he possessed he was generously moved to impart to his brother contrabands less favored. It is an interesting fact that this school was opened in the Lancaster school-house, which was erected in Alexandria through the beneficence of Washington. This house was at the time filled with families of contrabands, and to Warring it offered a good place for beginning his work. He soon had a prosperous school of over 50 children, and continued the work in that place until the following February, 1863, when the school came under the charge of the government "superintendent of contrabands," and was moved to the "Freedmen's Home," in the barrack buildings.

The above-named four schools were wholly or in part pay schools, and started and conducted by colored persons.

The first white woman who went to Alexandria to labor for the contrabands was Miss Julia A. Wilbur, of Rochester, New York. She arrived in October, 1862, and was sent by the *Ladies' Anti-slavery Society* of that city to assist the contrabands in whatever way seemed to her best. She immediately established sewing schools or working centres, and, being a woman of fortitude and sagacity, she accomplished in many ways an immense amount of good for the poor desolate beings to whom she gave her exertions. She was supplied with money and a large amount of useful contributions, and it is the testimony of all who have known her work that it has been done in a most judicious manner. She was constantly among the schools in Alexandria, and contributed a great deal by her fine intelligence and excellent sense in giving wise direction to the efforts of the many teachers of limited education. She still continues her labors for the colored people, mostly, for the last year or two, in Washington and Georgetown. Miss Wilbur was a teacher in Rochester at the time Miss Miner was teaching in a public school in that city, about 1846.

SCHOOLS ORGANIZED IN 1863.

The first free contraband school organized in Alexandria *by whites and conducted by white teachers* was "The First Free Colored Mission Day School" at the "Freedmen's Home," corner of Prince and Royal streets. As has been already stated, it was composed in part of the one opened in the autumn of 1862 by Leland Warring in the Lancaster school-house. In the winter of 1862-'63 Rev. Albert Gladwin, of Connecticut, came to Alexandria under the direction of the "*American Baptist Free Mission Society*" of New York. He was quite active among the contrabands in getting them into religious meetings and into schools, some of which he started. He was not himself a teacher, nor did he work in such a manner as to win the particular respect of those who were teachers. He was a man of very limited education, but understood very well how to appropriate to his purposes the intelligence of others. Soon after arriving he was appointed "Superintendent of Contrabands" by the military authorities, and this gave him large sway among this class of poor creatures, who were at this period congregated in great numbers in that city. The school was opened February 23, 1863, and the teachers were at first Miss M. C. Owen, Miss Mary A. Collier, Miss Elmira Keltie, and Rev. Mr. Owen, all white. Mr. Gladwin was also accustomed to get the services of convalescent soldiers detailed as teachers; among whom were Corporal A. Borten, colored, and T. McKenzie Axe, who was quite prominent as an assistant. Some of the soldiers so detailed were very ignorant and some very inhuman. The number of scholars in attendance December 31, 1864, was 139, all contrabands; in June, 1865, it was 75; in March, 1866, it was 110, then in charge of Miss Owen and Lovejoy S. Owen. In April it was disbanded. Mr. Gladwin had been discharged in January, 1865.

The female teachers of this school were excellent, and Miss Mary A. Collier, who entered the school when it was started at the Freedmen's Home or Barracks, and continued till she died, in the midst of her work, in December, 1866, was a truly noble example of heroic Christian philanthropy. She was the daughter of Dr. Collier, of Chelsea, Massachusetts,

who was long the city missionary of Boston. Possessed of rare talents and the best intellectual culture, an author of repute, and reared in the tenderness of a refined home, she came into this work with all her heart, labored day and night, literally working herself to death. This is the uniform testimony of those who observed her incessant and self-sacrificing devotion. Miss Collier was sent by the American Baptist Home Missionary Society.

"*Union Town school,*" corner of Union and Wolf streets, was organized May 2, 1863, under the instruction of Corporal L. A. Bearmor and Mrs. Nancy Williams, a colored woman. This was a free school. Number of scholars December 31, 1865, all contrabands, 80. In June, 1866, it was taught by Mrs. Christiana Richards, numbering 35 scholars.

The "Primary school," day and evening, was started September 1, 1863, on Princess, between Pitt and St. Asaph streets, by Wm. K. Harris and Richard H. Lyles, both colored. The number of scholars, all contrabands, December 31, 1866, was 77. In January, 1866, it had been changed to a "select school," and averaged about 30 scholars. In June, 1865, the number was 60, with one teacher, R. H. Lyles. This was a pay school.

"*Newtown school,*" day and evening, was started at the west end of Cameron street, partly free, November 2, 1863, by two colored teachers, Anna Bell Davis and Leannah Powell, and was continued in 1865 by Miss Davis, who commenced teaching while, as a contraband, she was sheltered at the slave-pen prison, a portion of which at the beginning of the war had been transformed into a rude home for the Virginia contrabands who flocked into the city. Having acquired a little education while a slave, Miss Davis bought some books and opened a school in the prison, charging a tuition fee of 50 cents a month. Mr. Hill, a colored man, had a school of 50 scholars during a part of that year.

The Sickles Barracks school, a Reformed Presbyterian (Xenia, Ohio) Mission school, was organized by Rev. N. K. Crow, from Illinois, November 16, 1863, in a Methodist church, corner of Princess and Patrick streets. This church, abandoned by its congregation at the opening of the war and for some time used for hospital purposes, was now, by order of General Heintzelman, turned over to this mission for school purposes. It was subsequently purchased by the colored people for a church for $3,000. Mr. Crow opened his school with eight scholars, and five days afterwards it numbered 120. He immediately opened an evening school of young men and women, which numbered from 90 to 130. Mr. Henry Fish, of Massachusetts, and his niece, Miss Mary Cleveland, were his first assistants; Rev. W. G. Scott, from New York, soon aiding him as teacher, and continuing in the school with great efficiency till 1868, being in charge of the operations for several years after Mr. Crow left Mr. Samuel Young, from Philadelphia, then a theological student and now a clergyman, was one of the early teachers. He was succeeded in 1864 by Mr. S. K. Stormont, who remained till June, 1866, when he and Miss Cleveland were succeeded by Miss Jemima Silliman and Miss I Alcorn, who still continue in the schools. Miss Maggie Silliman, who came into the schools October, 1864, is also one of the admirable corps of teachers. Miss Jennette Darling, of New York city, was one of the excellent teachers in 1864 and 1865. At the close of 1864 the day school numbered about 150. The average attendance in December, 1865, was 160; in December, 1866, it was 136, and 156 in March, 1867.

June 1, 1863, a small school, day and evening, was opened at No. 81 Prince street by Charles Seals, colored, the day school numbering 20, all contrabands.

October 1, 1863, Mrs. Mary Simms, colored, started an evening school on Duke street, which in December, 1864, numbered 17 scholars, all contrabands, and, like that of Mr. Seals, a pay school.

SCHOOLS ORGANIZED IN 1864.

January 11, 1864. "*The Jacobs Free School,*" corner of Pitt and Roanoke streets, supported by "*The New England Freedmen's Aid Society.*"—Dr. J. R. Bigelow, surgeon in charge of contrabands in Alexandria, in his round of duty one Sunday morning, in August, 1863, visiting that particular section of the city called "Petersburg," and observing a one-legged negro standing near one of the small shanties that had been quite recently built, found on entering into conversation with him that he was a contraband shoemaker, who had built the first house in that settlement at a cost of $39. After a short colloquy he asked the dusky

son of Crispin if he could sing. To which he replied with one of the grand old devotional hymns, which was sung in an inspiring manner. Others soon gathered, and joined as a chorus. When the singing was ended a large audience had congregated, and this homeless and almost houseless throng Dr. Bigelow addressed in a brief speech, promising to come the next Sunday and again speak to them. At the third of these singular Sunday meetings, held in the open air, a contribution to build a house for a school was proposed, when a contribution was taken up for the object, resulting in the collection of $200 on the spot, and all from contrabands. With this money they went immediately to work, and before winter had a large roughly-finished house for their school and meetings, costing $500, and known as the "Jacobs school." It was so named in honor of Mrs. Harriet Jacobs and her daughter Louisa, who were sent from New York by the Society of Friends in that city in January, 1863. This mother and daughter, born in slavery in Edenton, North Carolina, escaped from bondage some years before the war, and a book written by the mother, and edited by Mrs. Lydia M. Child, entitled "Linda," has made their history familiar to many. They made many friends in New York and other places at the north; and among those whose cordial hospitality they enjoyed, were Mr. N. P. Willis and his family, with whom Mrs. Jacobs visited Europe. She collected some funds to aid in building and furnishing the school-house. Miss Jacobs has just been placed in charge of a school in the Stevens school-house. The first teachers were Miss Louisa Jacobs and Miss S. V. Lawton, also colored. December 31, 1864, it numbered 170 scholars, and June 30, 1865, the number was 135, nearly all contrabands. In 1865 the teachers were Mr. J. S. Banfield, (white,) Miss S. V. Lawton and her sister, Miss E. M. Lawton; in 1866 Mr. Henry T. Aborn (white) and the Miss Lawtons; in 1867 Mrs. E. P. Smith and Miss Hattie R. Smith, both white. The Miss Lawtons came from Cambridge, Massachusetts, and are well educated.

January 18. "*Freedmen's Chapel*," an evening school, corner of Pitt and Roanoke streets.—The teachers were Rev. W. M. Scott, Mary A. Collier, and Elvira Keltie, all white. Average number through the year about 150. The two Scotts, Rev. W. M. Scott and Rev. W. G. Scott, already mentioned, were able, untiring, and unselfish laborers.

April 4. *Fort William school;* day and evening; Mrs. Elmira Dean, with colored assistant, Mr. J. Hodge. Day school averaged about 40.

April 18. "*First National Freedmen's school*," under auspices of the "New York Freedmen's Relief Association; day and evening; Mr. Henry Fish, Mrs. Melissa Fish, and Miss Harriet E. Mitchel, colored. Enoch Bath was subsequently added as a teacher. First located north of Cameron, between Payne and West streets, but in 1865 on corner of Queen and Payne. December 31, 1864, day school numbered 170 scholars; attendance averaging through 1865 about 125. This was "a part pay school." Nearly all contrabands.

May 1. "*St. Patrick's school;*" St. Patrick street; Miss Harriet Byron Douglass, colored; pay school; about one-third contrabands. Number of scholars December 31, 1864, 35; and June 30, 1865, 28.

June 14. "*Second National Freedmen's school*," on Wolf, between Pitt and Royal streets; Rev. M. F. Sluby and Miss Laura Phenix, both colored. It was "a part pay school" under Mr. Sluby, but free under Miss Orton. In December, 1864, this school had an average attendance of about 70 scholars, very few contrabands, which continued at about that average through 1865. In 1866 it rose to 100 in some months, but at the close of that school year, in June, the average attendance for the month was but 41. At the beginning of the next school year the school was in charge of Mr. I. C. Blanchard and Miss Carrie S. Orton; the average attendance for December, 1866, being 70. In January, 1867, this was raised to the rank of a "high school," under the charge of Miss Orton, principal, and Miss Susan Dennis, assistant, and was from first to last a higher style of colored school than had been known in Alexandria. It had an average attendance, in January, 1867, of 40 boys and 28 girls. It was now supported by the *North Shore and Portland, Maine, Aid Societies.* The school increased in numbers and in interest through the year.

September 5, 1864. "*Primary school*," on St. Asaph street, south of Gibbon. Teachers, Miss M. F. Simms and Miss M. M. Nickens, both colored. A small contraband pay school. On the same day the "*Washington street school*," No. 65 Washington street, was opened by

Miss L. V. Lewis and Miss A. M. Thompson, both colored; a pay school, numbering 70 scholars, and continuing through the year, and all contrabands. June 30, 1865, it was taught by Miss A. M. Thompson, colored, numbering 37 scholars. Rev. Leland Warring, colored, opened a small *evening pay school*, all contrabands, September 7, and September 20 Mr. G. S. Mell started the "*Home evening school*," a small pay school, mostly contrabands. Both schools held in barrack buildings. Mr. Mell subsequently started a small pay day school called the "*Washington Square school*."

Rev. Chauncey Leonard, chaplain of L'Ouverture Military Hospital, had a flourishing school there through the winter of 1864–'65.

SCHOOLS ORGANIZED IN 1865 AND 1866.

The Pennsylvania Freedmen's Relief Association organized its first school January 9, 1865, in Zion Wesley church, on Columbia near Wolf street, under the charge of Miss Caroline W. Moore, Miss R. S. Capron, and Miss Mary F. Nickens, the latter a colored teacher. Attendance June, 1865, was 150. The association thinking it best to concentrate its strength in Washington, withdrew from Alexandria in the latter part of the same year, leaving their operations in good hands.

The New York Freedmen's Relief Association organized the "Third National Freedmen's school" November 20, 1865, on Alfred street near Wilkes, under Miss Emma E. Warren, who was succeeded in February, 1866, by Miss Cornelia Jones and Miss Mary S. Rowell, the latter going into another school soon and giving place to Miss Helen Vaughan. Average attendance under Miss Warren, about 50; under her successors, two schools, the attendance in each was nearly 50. Miss Rowell went into the "*Fourth National school*," which was organized November 25, 1865, on West between Prince and Duke streets. In June, 1866, the six departments had an average attendance of 246, with 320 on their combined rolls. The teachers were at that date Helen Vaughan, Mary S. Rowell, Frances Munger, Emma E. Warren, and Kate A. Shepard. Miss H. N. Webster was in the school at its organization, and Charles A. Libby was in charge in May, 1866. This school had at first four departments, with an average attendance of about 200.

The *Fifth National school* was opened December 1, 1865, near the corner of Union and Franklin streets, under Rev. Edward Barker and Mr. Enoch Bath. In June, 1866, this school had been moved to Water street, and the average attendance that month was 85.

There was a large school started at *Camp Distribution* in 1865, and continued down to 1868. Julia Benedict and Frances Rouviere were the original teachers, continuing till 1867, when Thomas Corwin took the school, which averaged about 35 scholars.

In the autumn of 1866 there were two schools opened at *L'Ouverture Hospital*, one taught by Miss L. A. Hall and the other by Helen Robertson; also two in *Barrack buildings*, one by Mary E. Fales, the other by Elmira S. Jones; another at *Battery Rodgers* by Emily J. Brown and Emma R. Hawley, all white teachers. In February, 1867, Miss Hawley's department was organized into a district school, and supported by the "*Penn Yan, N. Y. Aid Society*." The above-named teachers were white, and the schools were supported in 1866–'67 by the New York branch of the Freedmen's Aid Commission, with an average attendance of nearly 250 scholars.

CHURCHES AND SABBATH SCHOOLS.

As the war advanced the contraband hamlet called "Petersburg," and already mentioned, became populous, at one period numbering some 1,500 people, with several hundred houses. They soon formed a Baptist church, and Rev. G. W. Parker, colored, who was teaching with Rev. C. Robinson in the "Select Colored School," became their pastor, and still continues with them in that relation. In due time, as the church and society increased, the necessity for better accommodations became apparent, and a Methodist white church edifice, which had been left empty by the owners, many of whom had gone into the rebellion, was purchased for the very small sum of $3,000, their pastor going north and collecting funds for this object. Up to that time the Jacob's school-house had been used for religious meetings, as well as for school purposes. Just as they were about to move into the church

building they had purchased the school-house was destroyed by a violent storm. This church, the Third Baptist, (colored,) is in a flourishing condition, and numbers 600 members. They are now preparing to enlarge the building. The Sabbath school is very large, and, under the care of some half a dozen white persons of Christian benevolence, is one of the most interesting and effective educational institutions in Alexandria. The name of the place was changed when General Grant took command of the army from "Petersburg" to "Grantville," in honor of that event, the contrabands alleging that as Peter Grant, the founder of their settlement, was of the same name, in making the change they would be "killing two birds with one stone."

Before the war there were but two colored churches in Alexandria, the "First Baptist" and the "African Methodist Episcopal." They did not, however, have pastors of their own color, colored preachers being allowed to officiate only in the presence of a white minister or person detailed by him for that duty, and even in those cases the colored clergyman was not permitted to enter the pulpit. Rev. Philip Hamilton, a highly respected and well known local preacher of the Methodist church, was always subjected to this restraint. It was when on his way from Washington to Alexandria to preach in that church that Rev. Frost Pullett was once arrested as a free negro, the laws of Virginia forbidding a free negro or mulatto coming into the State.

There are now six churches of colored people in that city, the "African Methodist Episcopal" and five Baptist churches. The "First Baptist church" was organized more than 40 years ago, and the pastor is Rev. B. F. Madden. The "Second Baptist," or "Beulah church," was organized in 1863 by Rev. C. Robinson, the present pastor. This people bought a lot and started their house, the pastor, like Mr. Parker, going north and gathering funds to complete the building. This church is large and flourishing. Those two colored pastors, it has been seen, started the "Select Colored School," in January 1, 1862, and they taught together till the "Petersburg" church bought their new house. The "Fourth Baptist," or "Shiloh" church, was organized about 1863, at "Newton"—L'Ouverture Hospital—the military hospital for colored soldiers, which was located in the yard of Price & Birch's old slave prison, used during the war as a prison for deserters. The ancient sign "Price, Birch & Co.," in dim characters, remained upon the front of the gloomy structure through the war; the windows with their iron grates, the lofty brick enclosure, and every aspect of the three-story spacious structure, suggesting the lacerated human hearts and bodies, the manacles, the chains, the auction-block, and all the manifold forms of anguish which such a shocking receptacle brings before every humane and reflecting mind. The pastor of the "Shiloh" church is Rev. Leland Warring, a colored man, who, like the others, was a teacher during the war. There is still another Baptist colored church, the "Zion Baptist," located in the vicinity of the railroad tunnel. These churches have each a flourishing Sabbath school, in which old and young unite in learning to read and in the study of the Bible.

It should have been previously stated that the Sisters of Charity, about 45 years ago, maintained for some years a small but very excellent school for colored girls, at the same period in which they had a large boarding school for white girls, in the large brick building then known as "The Old Brig," on the corner of Duke and Fairfax streets, in Alexandria. These Sisters also maintained a very large Sunday-school for colored children, in which they were instructed in spelling, reading, and in Christian doctrine. At this period the Friends also sustained a large Sunday-school in their meeting-house, in which refined women of prominent standing in the city were wont to teach the colored people, young and old, to spell and read and to write also, the last-mentioned branch being little tolerated in a colored school at any period in Virginia. In the Episcopal and Presbyterian churches the colored people were taught the catechism, rarely if ever to read at all.

SCHOOLS IN OPERATION JANUARY 1, 1869.

There are two colored school-houses in the city, six rooms in each; the Pitt street house, finished in April, 1867, and the Alfred street house, finished in the following November. The lots upon which these houses stand were purchased by the colored people, in 1866.

They held public meetings to rouse their people to the importance of the subject; concentrated their efforts, and raised the money in their poverty, paying $800 for the first lot, and about that sum for the other. The Freedmen's Bureau built the houses, which are very comfortable, and of a capacity each to seat 400 scholars; the estimated value of the Alfred street house and lot being $7,500; that of the other, $6,000.

In the Alfred street building there are now (January, 1869) in operation five schools, under the following teachers: Miss E. D. Leonard, Massachusetts; Miss Maggie L. Silliman, Miss Jemima Silliman, and Miss Lydia Alcorn, Pennsylvania; and Miss Savira Wright, Massachusetts. The Misses Silliman and Miss Alcorn are supported by the Reformed Presbyterian mission, and the others by the New York branch of the A. F. U. Commission.

In the Pitt street building there are also five schools, with five teachers and an assistant teacher, as follows: Miss M. E. Stratton and Miss Fannie A. Morgan, Connecticut; Miss Rosetta A. Coit, New York; Miss Mary E. Perkins; Miss Laura V. Phenix and Miss Mary M. Nickens, the latter a colored teacher. These 10 schools have an average attendance of about 420 scholars, with 500 or more names on the rolls. In the two private schools there are 170 more, making 670 registered scholars. Rev. C. Robinson's school numbers 100; Miss Sarah A. Gray's about 70. Miss Gray and the other colored female teachers mentioned above were born and brought up in Alexandria; the former, however, received her thorough education at the Baltimore Convent.

Rev. Richard Miles and his daughter have recently opened a school a few miles south of Alexandria, and about a mile from "Camp Distribution," a place well known during the years of the war, and where now there is a settlement of colored people, who are trying to support themselves by renting and tilling small pieces of land, varying in extent from five to 50 acres. Some of the scholars in Mr. Miles's school come a distance of three miles.

SUMMARY.

	Scholars.		Scholars.
Scholars registered, September, 1861, to December 31, 1864	3,732	Average attendance, January, 1866	1,594
Average attendance, December, 1864	1,646	Scholars registered, January, 1867	975
Scholars registered, January to June, 1865	1,643	Average attendance, January, 1867	645
Average attendance, June, 1865	1,036	Scholars registered, January, 1868	1,086
Scholars registered, January, 1866	2,215	Average attendance, January, 1868	835
		Scholars registered, January, 1869	777
		Average attendance, January, 1869	605

Colored population of Alexandria, 1865.

Children 14 years old and under	2,635	Slaves before the war	5,050
Children over 14 and under 20	1,144	Free before the war	2,713
Total colored population	7,763	Mulattoes	3,831
Number able to read	1,734	Blacks	3,932

REMARKS.

The above summary shows some falling off of numbers in the last two years. This is to be attributed in part to the improvement of the schools, the inferior ones being absorbed in the larger and better, and also to the moving away of many contrabands, who at first crowded in great numbers to Alexandria from the northern part of the State. It must, however, be acknowledged that the indefatigable labors of the various relief societies in gathering the children into the schools are sadly missed, and that at present the average attendance should be larger, and the school accommodations much increased. The Freedmen's Bureau has been and still is of great service, but this will soon be withdrawn; and with no public school system in the city or the State, and in the midst of a population where hardly a single resident has the least sympathy with any work for the elevation of the colored race, and where most are strongly and even bitterly opposed to such efforts, the prospect for this unfortunate class is far from encouraging.

The Friends in Alexandria who maintained their allegiance to the Union were among the most effective workers in the cause of colored schools, joining hands heartily with their

brethren from the north. It is, however, a remarkable fact that the only case in which the great body of the Friends connected with any Friends' meeting in the country supported the rebellion, was that at Alexandria. Most of them went south, and the meeting was broken up. This shows how extreme was the disloyalty which reigned in that city.

Mr. Newton, already referred to as the efficient superintendent in 1865–'66 of the Washington and Georgetown schools, under the care of the New York and Pennsylvania freedmen's relief societies, took, for a time, a general supervision of the schools at Alexandria, at the request of the different benevolent associations. At that time semi-monthly meetings of all the teachers were held alternately in Washington and Alexandria, there often being as many as 125 present. These gatherings, or conferences, were productive of great good. This association of teachers was quite distinct from the "Volunteer association," so called, already noticed.

Most of the teachers now employed have been in the arduous work for years, and it is only those able to endure the severest toil who have not broken down under it. The very great number of young women who have come here with faith, fortitude, and health, and broken down, is well known to those who have been familiar with these schools, and shows that it has been a self-sacrificing field of labor. It is certain, also, that abler, better-educated, and more refined young women never entered into any benevolent enterprise than those who have given such signal success to this great educational undertaking in the District of Columbia and vicinity. The schools and teachers of Alexandria are substantially the same in character as those of Washington and Georgetown, and the remarks of a general nature already made apply equally to them. The scholars are about as well advanced and show the same aptitude and zeal in the one city as in the others.

As has been stated, the first three schools organized in Alexandria for colored instruction, after the war opened, were taught by colored persons. Colored schools in any form were sufficiently odious to the mass of the old white residents of that city; but when the northern white men and women entered upon the work the bitterness was very intense. When Rev. N. K. Crow with his band of associates went there to open their school, in November, 1863, no white family in the city would give them food or lodging. They found a home, however, with an excellent old colored man, H. H. Arnold, now more than 80 years old, but smart as an ordinary man at 50, who had seen General Washington in 1799 at Christ church in that city, and was raised in the Scott family, in Dinwiddie county. Being of Indian extraction on his mother's side, he was free-born. Arnold was the body-servant of Lieutenant General Scott for thirty-seven years, from 1811 to the close of the Mexican war, and he describes many a rough-and-tumble scuffle they had together when boys on the family plantation. This reminds one of the story told of Richard Henry Lee, in the memoir by his grandson: "Knowing he was to be sent to England, [to be educated,] it was his custom to make a stout negro boy fight with him every day. To his angry father's question, 'What pleasure can you find in such rough sport?' the son replied: 'I shall shortly have to box with the English boys, and I do not wish to be beaten by them.'" Arnold being in New York city at the time of the riots of 1863, was protected in General Scott's house, and was the only colored man that followed the remains of this great soldier to their last resting place.

Mr. Crow's school was persecuted, and the children often stoned by the white children; and every form of contempt was visited upon the refined and cultivated teachers by the white parents. This animosity has gradually abated, but still largely pervades the society, especially in the ranks of the impoverished classes of the aristocracy, who are smarting under the loss of wealth in human souls and bodies. In January, 1865, Miss Caroline W. Moore could find no decent white family who would receive her, and the colored people were too poor to furnish her proper accommodations; and she with her assistant, Miss R. S. Capron, were for some time compelled to board in Washington. It was her school that was complained of as a nuisance, though an exceedingly well-conducted institution. She presented her case to the mayor in person, and he discreetly dismissed the complaint.

THE AMERICAN TRACT SOCIETY AND LABORS OF DR. PIERSON.

Since the main portion of this report was written, fuller information has come to our hands in regard to the important initiatory and pioneer work among the freedmen by Rev. Dr. H. W. Pierson, acting as agent of the American Tract Society. The several schools organized by him were not only the foundation of all that was afterward accomplished, but the work was without precedent, the field an untried one, and formidable obstacles presented themselves at the outset, in the melancholy physical and mental condition of the freedmen themselves, in a public sentiment, strong and fierce, opposed to their enlightenment, and in the black code of the District, at that time in full force and bristling with enactments in hostile array against such a benevolent and Christian work.

The opening of the war at once drew the attention of the whole north to the rapid release, of the slaves from bondage, wherever our troops reached slave soil, and as quickly the great question arose, What shall be done for them? At this juncture it was inevitable that many eyes should be turned to the Tract Society, with its complete organization and ample resources, and appeals were poured in on every side that it would move in this work. Dr. Pierson had resided many years at the south, as the Tract Society's superintendent of colportage in Virginia, as agent of the American Bible Society in Kentucky, and as President of Cumberland College, in that State. On graduating at the Union Theological Seminary in New York city, in 1848, Dr. Pierson was appointed by the American Board of Foreign Missions as missionary to Africa, but partial loss of health, owing to a disease of the lungs, prevented him from going. The following winter he went to Hayti as agent for the Bible Society. He may be truly called the life-long friend of the colored race, and in many other ways than those above referred to has he labored in their behalf in most of the southern States. To many Dr. Pierson is known as the author of a valuable work on the private life of Jefferson, the substance of which formed the subject of lectures delivered by him before the New York Historical Society and the Smithsonian Institute. On leaving Kentucky in 1861, he was so impressed by the wonderful opening offered to philanthropic men and women for effectually reaching the poor slaves with the means of instruction, and was so convinced that it was the duty of the Tract Society to enter energetically upon the work, that he proceeded to New York and communicated personally with the secretaries upon the subject. He then went to Washington, and was introduced to Hon. Salmon P. Chase, then Secretary of the Treasury, by Rev. J. C. Smith, of Washington, so well known for his devotion to the best interests of the colored population of the District, a devotion wisely directed and fearlessly shown through those many years when obloquy, persecution, and danger attended it. Dr. Pierson was cordially received by Secretary Chase, and, after several interviews with him as to the best method of organizing a plan for educating and aiding the freedmen, he was introduced by him to Mr. E. L. Pierce, of Boston, who had already been sent south by the government to make investigations in regard to the condition of the colored people within our lines, and had just arrived in the city. Mr. Chase desired them to confer very fully on the subject, and Dr. Pierson presented his plan of sending to the freedmen *teaching colporteurs*, which was cordially approved by Mr. Pierce. In a letter written soon after, Dr. Pierson says: "I was very anxious that the American Tract Society should embark in this work, as my former connection with the society made me fully aware of its great facilities for usefulness in its buildings, presses, and organization. I had been so absorbed in my own labors that I had taken no part in the discussion and excitements that it had passed through on the slavery question, but I knew that its receipts had fallen off about $100,000 on account of the withdrawal of those who had disapproved of its course on this subject. In my free conversations with the secretaries, I told them that they could in no way secure the sympathy of the warm friends they had lost as by entering upon educational and religious labors among the colored people."

It may be stated here that early in the winter of 1861-'62, a plan was under consideration among many prominent and wealthy philanthropic and Christian men in New York to organize a National Society whose leading object it should be to establish schools among the freedmen, as no efficient society then existing seemed prepared to take up the work. One

feature of this plan was to enlist, as far as possible, the services of the army chaplains and soldiers, at such points as was practicable.

February 6, 1862, Rev. Dr. Smith wrote Dr. Pierson as follows: "Last evening I had a talk with Secretary Chase at his house. I found him much interested about the contrabands and he wants to do something effectively with and for them, and *at once*, something that will unite different denominations and benevolent men *in a society* or association like to the American Tract Society, with auxiliaries in other cities. The object will be to furnish teachers for the contrabands, have schools, and in every way seek to elevate them, 'for' said the Secretary, 'whatever may be the *political* results of our present troubles, these contrabands will be on another footing than heretofore.' He says *immediate* steps ought to be taken, and he will co-operate in every way possible in the enterprise. The heart of Mr. Chase is in the thing. I told him you were the man to execute the whole business, and he has read your two letters. There are no funds of the government that can be used, but the *power* of the government can be had, and will be, if the work can go on. We do not want books and tracts so much as we want *men* to go and be with the contrabands. Do see as many men as you can. The whole work is simple and ought to be pushed now. Secretary Chase attaches all importance to it, and will give it his full and noble aid."

Early in the winter the Tract Society as well as the Bible Society donated their publications for the use of the freedmen, and the former society prepared several tracts for their special needs. The Secretary, Mr. Eastman, wrote under date of February 8, 1862, to Rev. Dr. Smith, as follows:

"MY DEAR SIR: Dr. Pierson has showed us your letter to him and we had an interview with him last evening. All I can say now is that we are deeply interested in the subject and are ready to do whatever we can to serve and promote the general object as we understand it. We have not, however, any plan fully matured, but will confer further on the subject. In the mean time I would say that in addition to our Tract Primer and Infant Primer, of which with other publications we have already sent the amount of 100,000 pages to Fortress Monroe and Port Royal especially for the colored people, we have now in press 24 small tracts in large type, which we have got up on purpose for them. These will be ready in a week. We shall add to the number as the work goes on. We cannot now tell all that we can do, but you will hear from us again in a few days."

Later in February Dr. Pierson addressed to the Tract Society the following letter:

"NEW YORK, *February* 25, 1862.

"GENTLEMEN: I enclose herewith a letter written by myself to Mr. Edward L. Pierce, special agent of the Treasury Department, and his reply. It has seemed to me that a great door and effectual is here opened for the beneficent labors of your society. I am aware that the labors required are somewhat different in character, though not in spirit, from those that have been for years performed by your colporteurs in the moral wastes of every part of the country.

"You are aware that the American Sabbath School Union has just published a 'Bible Reader,' composed exclusively of selections from the Bible, accompanied with a series of cards embracing the most recent and philosophical improvements in the work of imparting elementary instruction, and so arranged that groups of a hundred or more can be taught in concert to read much more rapidly than by former systems. Dr. Packard informs me that he thinks that, as a rule, adults can be taught to read the Bible by this system in a month. Moreover, the Reader is so arranged that by the time it has been mastered the pupil will be thoroughly informed as to the essential truths of our holy religion. I desire you to bring this whole matter before your committee and inform me as to these two points: First, Can your society superadd to its work that of teaching the contrabands to read the word of God? Second, Will you commission colporteurs for this work? If you give me an affirmative answer to these questions I will communicate further with the government agents, to whom this work has been intrusted. From my extended travel in the southern States, and residence there for many years, I feel a very deep interest in their welfare. A great educational and religious work, in the providence of God, is now thrown upon the great Christian heart of the country, and it seems to me that your society is called upon to enter upon it,

but of that you must be the judge. Pardon me if, in my intense solicitude for these children of our common Father, so many thousands of whom have heard from my lips the message of salvation, I charge you to consider this matter prayerfully and maturely, and that you act upon it in view of the account you must render to Him who has said 'inasmuch as you have done it unto one of the least of these you have done it unto me.'"

On the 28th of February Dr. Pierson was commissioned by the Tract Society to visit Washington and other points for the purpose of establishing schools for the freedmen, and report to them further openings for similar operations. In a letter he thus briefly sketches his first experience after arriving in Washington:

"I soon learned that most of the contrabands who had passed through our lines and reached the city were assembled at the navy yard and in a building in Duff Green's row, near the Capitol. March 14, I visited Commodore Dahlgren, then in command at the navy yard, and presented a letter of introduction from Rev. J. C. Smith, stating my object and office. He received me most cordially, and indorsed my letter with these few but hearty words: '*The commandant says certainly.*' He then directed Lieutenant Parker to send me whatever aid I desired. I told him I only wished to have the chapel opened and lighted, and all the contrabands in the yard notified to meet me there at 7 o'clock that evening. At the appointed hour I found a dusky group, such as I had seen on hundreds of plantations, awaiting my arrival and most anxious to enjoy the richest of all the privileges secured to them by their new-found freedom. It was a moment of indescribable interest—a pivotal point in their history as well as my own. At any previous period of our history such a meeting on any of the plantations from which they had escaped would have been criminal in the highest degree. I had myself seen a poor Irishman in the hands of the sheriff, who told me his prisoner had been convicted of teaching negroes to read, and he was taking him to Richmond to serve out the years in the penitentiary, for which he had been sentenced. Now I had no fear of the penitentiary, nor they of 'stripes well laid on.' My method of teaching was very simple, and the same in all the schools subsequently established, and intended expressly for adults. I began with the first verse of the Bible, printed on a card in letters so large that all could easily see it, and hung upon the wall. Without attempting to teach or even name the letters, I began with the words, requiring them to repeat each in concert several times, until well distinguished from the others, and in this way a short verse was learned in half an hour. With this 'word method,' instruction in the letters and in spelling was afterwards combined. At the navy yard Master C. V. Morris and his wife and daughter took the deepest interest in my labors, and rendered valuable aid in teaching. I called also on Mrs. Attorney General Bates, Mrs. Senator Trumbull, Mrs. Senator Grimes, and many other ladies of like social position, and received from them all assurances of sympathy, and from many personal co-operation in the work. As the work assumed larger proportions and the old slave laws were unrepealed, I thought it best to secure military protection. On receiving Mr. Shearer's commission from the Tract Society, I called upon Brigadier General James S. Wadsworth, military governor of the District, accompanied by Rev. J. C. Smith. He received us most kindly, and listened with the deepest interest and sympathy to our explanations of the routine of the work. I then handed him Mr. Shearer's commission, and requested him to place upon it such military indorsement as he judged best. He took it and wrote, as nearly as I can remember, 'The bearer is authorized to visit, instruct, and advise the colored people in this District, under the military protection of the government.' This paper secured access to all prisons, jails, camps, &c., in the District, and was of the greatest value in the prosecution of the work.

"On Sunday, March 30, I lectured in the Ebenezer church, (colored,) Georgetown, explained the nature of the work, and gave notice that I would meet them on an evening in the latter part of the week to organize a school. On Thursday, April 3, a statement appeared in the Star, that, in consequence of a report in circulation in Georgetown that a political lecture would be delivered to the colored people in that church on Wednesday evening, 'considerable excitement resulted, and threats were made to lynch the lecturer,' and that on that evening a large crowd of whites had gathered in a menacing attitude about the church. Also learning from private sources that a large number of young men had organized to

break up such a meeting, I applied to the mayor and directed his attention to the article. He had seen it. I told him the nature of the work I was doing, and that I had called entirely out of regard to him and the foolish young men who had not comprehended the change that had taken place since the war began. I showed him the above paper indorsed by General Wadsworth, and assured him that if necessary I should call on the military for protection. I then made a similar visit to the chief of police. They both assured me that I would not be molested, and I was not.

"I have labored, as you know, not a little in the moral wastes of the land, and have seen many tears of gratitude and heard many thanks, but I have never seen anything that would be compared to the eagerness of these people to learn to read the word of God, or their gratitude for my labors in their behalf. One gray-headed old woman said, 'I never expected to live to see this—to read the blessed Bible. God is as good as His word, sisters; God is as good as His word. Hain't He told us He would sanctify us by His spirit and His word? We have felt His spirit right in here (laying her hand upon her heart) a long time, and now He has sent this man here to teach us, and ain't His word coming right along?'"

BANNEKER, THE ASTRONOMER.

Benjamin Banneker, the celebrated black astronomer and mechanician, was born near the village of Ellicott's Mills, Maryland, in 1732. His father was a native African, and his mother the child of native Africans. His mother was free at her marriage, and soon purchased her husband's freedom. She was a Morton, a family noted for intelligence. Prior to 1809 free people of color voted in Maryland, and it was one of that family, Greenbury Morton, who, not knowing the law of that year restricting the right of voting to whites, made the famous impassioned speech to the crowd at the polls when his vote was refused. Benjamin Banneker worked upon his father's farm. When nearly a man grown he went to an obscure and distant country school, learning to read and write and to cipher as far as Double Position. He had great inventive powers, and made a clock from the instruction he obtained from seeing a watch. He was also a profound and accurate observer of nature, men, and things. In 1787 George Ellicott, a gentleman of education, furnished him some works of the higher class on mathematics and astronomy, which he devoured with avidity, and which opened a new world to him. Astronomy was henceforth his absorbing study. He lived alone in the cabin upon the farm which his parents, who were dead, had left him, and was never married. In 1791 he made an almanac, which was published in Baltimore, and the publication being continued annually till he died in 1804, at 72 years of age. Benjamin H. Ellicott, of Baltimore, took great interest in this remarkable man, and some quarter of a century ago gathered up the fragments of his history, which were embraced with other facts in regard to him in a memoir, prepared and read by John H. B. Latrobe, esq., before the Maryland Historical Society. Banneker sent the manuscript, in his own handwriting, of his first almanac to Thomas Jefferson in 1791, with a long and manly letter, to which Mr. Jefferson made prompt and kind reply, thanking him for the letter and almanac, and added "Nobody wishes more than I do to see such proofs as you exhibit that nature has given to our black brethren talents equal to those of the other colors of men, and that the appearance of a want of them is owing only to the degraded condition of their existence both in Africa and America," concluding as follows: "I have taken the liberty of sending your almanac to Monsieur de Condorcet, secretary of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and member of the Philanthropic Society, because I consider it a document to which your whole color had a right for their *justification against the doubts which have been entertained of them.*" It is noteworthy that Mr. Jefferson calls the colored people "our black brethren;" elsewhere in his writings he calls them fellow-citizens. This almanac was extensively circulated through the middle and southern States, and its calculations were so exact and thorough as to excite the attention and admiration of the philosophic and scientific classes throughout Europe, especially Pitt, Fox, Wilberforce, and their coadjutors, who produced the work in the British Parliament as an argument in favor of the abolition of slavery and the cultivation of the black race. Banneker was buried near Ellicott's Mills, and a few years ago the colored people honored themselves in raising a monument there to the memory of his great genius and fine character.

In the interesting debate in the Senate in March, 1864, on Mr. Sumner's amendment to the bill incorporating the Metropolitan railroad, (Washington city,) providing that there should be no exclusion of any person from the cars of said road, Mr. Reverdy Johnson, in his reply to Senator Saulsbury's depreciation of the colored race, referred to Banneker in the following words: "Many of those born free have become superior men. One of them was employed in Maryland in surveying several of our boundary lines—Mason and Dixon's particularly—and some of the calculations made on that occasion, astronomical as well as mathematical in the higher sense, were made by a black Maryland man who had been a slave."

A SABBATH SCHOOL IN GEORGETOWN.

Since closing the earlier period of this history it has been discovered that a colored Sabbath school was established in the old Lancaster school-house in Georgetown as early as 1816, and was continued many years. Mr. Joseph Searle was the superintendent of the male department, and his sister, Miss Ann Searle, of the female, both being at that time teachers in a seminary in the city. The various Protestant churches sent teachers to aid in the humane work, and among those specially interested were Francis S. Key, Captain Thomas Brown, John McDaniel, Robert Ober, Daniel Kurtz, and a large number of excellent ladies. Francis S. Key not only taught in the school, but often made formal addresses to the scholars.

THE AFRICAN EDUCATION SOCIETY.

A society under the above title was organized December 28, 1829, by friends of the colored race in Washington and Georgetown. In the words of the constitution, its object was "to afford to persons of color destined to Africa such an education in letters, agriculture, and the mechanic arts as may best qualify them for usefulness and influence in Africa." The intention was to establish an institution for the above purpose. A house in Washington, near the Georgetown bridge, was rented, and a slaveholder in the vicinity offered the free use of a farm for practical instruction in agriculture, and for aiding in the support of the institution. Mr. Isaac Orr, a graduate of Yale College of the class of 1818, at that time connected with the Colonization Society, was appointed secretary, with authority to collect funds and organize the school. In the Columbia Gazette, published at Georgetown, and in the National Intelligencer of July 3, 1830, it was announced that the society would open their institution September 1; the sum of $500 being sufficient to establish a scholarship. Among the managers were Rev. Walter Colton, chaplain in the navy, and Rev. R. R. Gurley, still a resident of Washington; but notwithstanding the high character of those originating this organization, and notwithstanding its wise provisions which could not fail to meet the approval of practical and sensible men, such was the prevailing sentiment of that time—the gloomiest period for the colored people in all their history—that the society failed to obtain funds sufficient for a permanent basis of operations. The following extract from the address of the managers shows the character of the enterprise and certain phases of public opinion: "It is the design of the society to train up the youth intrusted to them from childhood; to subject them to a steady, mild, and salutary discipline; to exercise toward them a kind and parental care, guarding them against the approach of every insidious and hurtful influence; to give them an intimate acquaintance with agriculture or some one of the mechanic arts; to endow them with virtuous, generous, and honorable sentiments; in fine, to form the whole character and render it, as far as possible, such as will qualify them to become pioneers in the renovation of Africa. In most of the slave States it is a prevailing sentiment that it is not safe to furnish slaves with the means of instruction. Much as we lament the reasons of this sentiment and the apparent necessity of keeping a single fellow-creature in ignorance, we willingly leave to others the consideration and the remedy for this evil, in view of the overwhelming magnitude of the remaining objects before us. But it is well known that very many masters are desirous to liberate their slaves in such a way as to improve their condition, and we are confident that such masters will rejoice to find the means by which those slaves may be educated by themselves without the danger of exerting an unfavorable influence around them; and instead of creating disquiet in the country, may carry peace and joy to Africa."

CONCLUSION.

The investigation recorded in the foregoing document was undertaken with a most inadequate estimate of its magnitude, though the writer had for some years been uncommonly conversant with educational matters in the District, and deeply interested in the colored schools. The subject expanded in materials and in importance as the research was pursued, till what was expected at the beginning to fill but a few pages had swelled into a volume. The work was prosecuted in the belief that everything which the colored people have attempted and accomplished for themselves in mental and social improvement in this seat of empire was worth rescuing from oblivion, and that such a chapter would be a contribution to the educational history of the country, peculiarly instructive at this time. It is quite certain that the most of what is gathered into these pages from the first half century of the District would have never been rescued from the past under any other auspices, and from the original, novel, and instructive nature of its character, it has been deemed best to go with much minuteness into details. There is an almost tragic pathos running through the tale of the patient sufferings and sacrifices which these humble and dutiful people have experienced, through so many years of oppression, in their struggles for knowledge.

The facts embraced in the foregoing report have been gathered with an amount of labor that can be adequately estimated only by those who have toiled in a similar field of research. Prior to the rebellion the education of this proscribed and degraded race was held in scorn and derision by the controlling public sentiment of this District, as in the country at large, and schools for the colored people rarely found the slightest record in the columns of the press. After a thorough examination of the various journals published in the District during the first half century of its history, the first reference to any school that can be found is in an article on the city of Washington published in the National Intelligencer August 3, 1816, in which it is stated that "a Sunday school for the blacks has been recently established, which is well attended, and promises great benefit to this neglected part of our species; both in informing their minds and amending their morals." This journal was the only one of established character that alluded in any way to these schools, and a careful examination of its files from 1800 to 1850 has disclosed only the two or three notices already referred to. The remarkable advertisement found in the volume for 1818 of the free colored school on Capitol Hill was a striking fact in itself considered, but was otherwise of the greatest value in this work, because the names of the seven colored men subscribed to the document pointed to the sources from which was procured much of the authentic information pertaining to the first quarter of a century of the District. In this almost total absence of written information it was fortunate to find in the memories of the colored people a wonderful accuracy and completeness of recollection of almost everything pertaining to their schools. In the intercourse with this population which these researches have occasioned, this fact has been a subject of perpetual observation. The aged men and women, even though unable to read a syllable, have almost always been found to know something concerning the colored schools and their teachers. The persecutions which perpetually assailed their schools, and the sacrifices which they so devotedly made for them, seem to have fastened the history of them, with astonishing clearness and precision, in their minds, such as is surely not found among the educated white population pertaining to the white schools of the same period. Another interesting fact is not inappropriate in this connection. There are undoubtedly more colored people of the District of the class free before the war, who own their homes, than are found in proportion to their numbers among the middling classes of the white population. There are also to be found in a multitude of these humble colored homes the same refinements as are found in the comfortable and intelligent white family circles. These interesting developments disclosed in every direction in the preparation of this work have stimulated prolonged research, and made what had otherwise been a wearisome task a most agreeable occupation.

Statesmen and thoughtful public men will discover in these pages facts which put to flight a class of ethnological ideas that have been woven by philosophers into unnumbered volumes of vain theories. The great and imposing truth that the colored race has been for nearly

seventy years on a grand trial of their capacity to rise in the scale of human intelligence, such as has not elsewhere in the history of the world been granted them, seems to have entirely escaped observation. If these records are, as they are confidently believed to be, substantially accurate in all their details, the capabilities of the colored race to rise to superior mental and social elevation, and that too under the most appalling disabilities and discouragements, is illustrated on a conspicuous theatre, and with a completeness that cannot be shaken by any cavil or conjecture.

There is a colored woman in Washington, known and respected for her sterling goodness and remarkable sense, more than half a century a resident of the city, who relates that she used often to see Jefferson during his presidency, in the family of Monroe, in which she was brought up, near Charlottesville, Virginia; that on one occasion, while attending the children in the hall, she heard Jefferson say to Monroe that "he believed *the colored race had as much native sense as the whites*, that they ought to be educated and freed at the age of 21, and that if some plan of this kind should not be adopted, they would in time become self-enlightened, in spite of every oppression assert their liberties, and deluge the south in blood;" to which Mr. Monroe, rising from his seat, with both hands uplifted, exclaimed, "My God, Mr. Jefferson, how can you believe such things?" This declaration imputed to Jefferson is well substantiated, as it not only comes from a truthful witness, but is in full accordance with the views that he has amply left on record in his writings. In his celebrated letter to Banneker, the black mathematician and astronomer of Maryland, in elevated and feeling language he expressed to this wonderful, self-taught negro his deep thankfulness for the indisputable evidence which the productions of his genius had furnished, "*that nature has given to our black brethren talents equal to those of the other colors of men*;" and, in apology for the liberty he had taken in transmitting to the President of the French Academy of Sciences the manuscript copy of his first almanac he had sent to the philanthropic statesman as a testimony to the capabilities of his enslaved race, Jefferson went on to say that he had forwarded the remarkable production to that great representative body in the world of letters as an evidence of the intellectual powers of the black man, to which the whole colored race had "a right for their justification against the doubts which have been raised against them." With like ideas may this simple story of patient endurance and of triumph in calamities be submitted to the American people and mankind in vindication of the faith reposed by many good men in the capacity for self-government of a long down-trodden and despised portion of the human family.

The history of these schools, subsequent to the breaking out of the rebellion, records the most remarkable efforts of disinterested contributions, both in money and in labor, which are to be found in the annals of Christian and patriotic beneficence. The duty of providing for the moral and intellectual enlightenment of a class of people who had been kept hitherto in profound ignorance, directly or indirectly, by the laws and prejudices of the country, pervaded the entire northern mind and heart.

No pains have been spared to ascertain the fields of labor occupied by different associations, and the schools taught by different individuals; but no record can fully describe the self-sacrifice and zeal of that band of noble, refined, and cultivated women who devoted themselves to the education of this neglected class, many of whom fell, as truly martyrs to their patriotic labors as those who perished on the battle field; and not a few of whom are still suffering in their own homes as great a deprivation from the loss of health in this service, as those who will bear to their graves bodies mutilated by the missiles of war.

All of which, with many thanks for your personal and official co-operation in this investigation, is respectfully submitted.

M. B. GOODWIN.

To Hon. HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner of Education.

To this exhaustive account of the past and present condition of schools for the colored people in the District of Columbia, by Mr. Goodwin, we add a comprehensive survey of the legal status of this portion of the population in respect to schools and education in the several States.—H. B.

PART II.

LEGAL STATUS OF THE COLORED POPULATION IN RESPECT TO SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT STATES.

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DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

The only authority to restrain and limit the conduct and privileges of any class of the population in the District is to be found in the charters granted to the municipal corporations and the laws of Maryland and Virginia. Alexandria received its charter originally from Virginia, and Georgetown from Maryland, while Washington was originally incorporated by Congress. The act of Congress of July 16, 1790, establishing the seat of government in this District, provided "that the operation of the laws of the State within such District shall not be affected by this acceptance until the time fixed for the removal of the seat of government, and until Congress shall otherwise by law provide;" and under the act of February 27, 1801, the laws of Virginia and Maryland, as they existed at that date, were continued in full force and effect. In order to understand the condition in which the colored classes were lawfully held in the District during the existence of slavery, or for any period, it is necessary to know the powers existing in the charters of those cities under the State laws at the date last specified, and also the additional enlargements and curtailments of powers subsequently enacted by Congress. Some account of these codes, so far as they pertain especially to education, is also essential to a just estimate of the fortitude with which the colored people have struggled through the long period of darkness over which this history extends.

The first settlers of both Maryland and Virginia evidently entertained the idea that a Christian could not be a slave. In "Plantation Laws, London, 1705," a law of 1692 in Maryland is cited as follows:

"Where any negro or slave, being in bondage, is or shall become a Christian and receive the sacrament of baptism, the same shall not, nor ought to be, deemed, adjudged, or construed to be a manumission or freeing of any such negro or slave, or his or her issue, from their servitude or bondage, but that, notwithstanding, they shall at all times hereafter be and remain in servitude and bondage as they were before baptism, any opinion or matter to the contrary notwithstanding."

In 1715 the provision was embodied in a new act with a preamble, and this is the first act found in full in Bacon's Laws, the titles only of the previous laws being given. The act of the Maryland assembly of 1715 declares:

"SEC. 23. And forasmuch as many people have neglected to baptize their negroes, or suffer them to be baptized, in a vain apprehension that negroes by receiving the sacrament of baptism are manumitted and set free: *Be it hereby further declared and enacted by and with the authority, advice, and consent aforesaid,* That no negro or negroes by receiving the holy sacrament of baptism is hereby manumitted or set free, nor hath any right or title to freedom or manumission more than he or they had before, any *law or usage or custom to the contrary* notwithstanding."

In section 36, acts of the Virginia assembly of 1705, is the following clause: "And also it is hereby enacted and declared that baptism of slaves doth not exempt them from bondage." And in 1733 the law was re-enacted in this explicit language:

"Whereas some doubts have arisen whether children that are slaves by birth, and, by the charity and piety of their owners, made partakers of the blessed sacrament of baptisme, should by vertue of their baptisme be made ffree: *It is enacted and declared by this grand assembly and the authority thereof,* That the conferring of baptisme doth not alter the condition of the person as to his bondage or ffreedom; that diverse masters, ffreed from this doubt, may more carefully endeavour the propagation of Christianity by permitting children, though slaves, or those of greater growth, if capable, to be admitted to the sacrament."

In South Carolina there was a law enacted to the same effect in 1712, in which it is curiously declared "lawful for a negro or Indian slave, or any other slave or slaves whatsoever, to receive and profess the Christian faith, and to be therein baptized," and that thereby no slave should be deemed manumitted.

The origin of this singular legislation in Virginia must have arisen from a prevailing apprehension in the public mind upon the subject at that time, 1667; but the enactments of Maryland and South Carolina undoubtedly had, as their immediate producing cause, two

judicial investigations which occurred in England in 1686–'87, a short time prior to these enactments. One of these cases, reported in 3 Modern Reports, 120–1, is thus stated:

"Sir Thomas Grantham bought a monster in the Indies, which was a man of that country, who had the perfect shape of a child growing out of his breast, as an excrescency, all but the head. This man he brought hither (to England) and exposed to the sight of the people for profit. The *Indian* turns *Christian* and was baptized, and was detained from his master, who brought a *homine replequiando*, (a writ by which his title to retain the man as property might be legally tested.")

How this case was ultimately disposed of does not appear. In 1696 the question *whether the baptism* of a *negro slave*, without the permit or consent of his master, emancipated the slave, was argued with great research and learning before the King's Bench. In this instance a misconception of the form of action required prevented any decision upon the merits of the case, the matter being thus in both actions left in doubt. The argument of the counsel for the defendant in this latter case is ingenious and curious:

"Being baptized according to the use of the church," says the counsel, "he, the slave, is thereby made a Christian, and Christianity is inconsistent with slavery. And this was allowed even in the time when the popish religion was established, as appears by Littleton; for in those days if a villain had entered into religion, and was professed, as they called it, the lord could not seize him, and the reason there given is, because he was dead in law, and if the lord might take him out of his cloister, then he could not live according to his religion. The like reason may now be given for baptism being incorporated into the laws of the land; if the duties which arise thereby cannot be performed in a state of servitude, the baptism must be a manumission. That such duties cannot be performed is plain, for the persons baptized are to be confirmed by the diocesan when they can give an account of their faith, and are enjoined by several acts of Parliament to come to church. But if the lord hath still an absolute property over him, then he might send him far enough from the performance of those duties, viz., into Turkey or any other country of infidels, where they neither can nor will be suffered to exercise the Christian religion. * * * It is observed among the Turks that they do not make slaves of those of their own religion, though taken in war, and if a *Christian be taken, yet if he renounce Christianity and turn Mahometan, he doth thereby obtain his freedom.* And if this be a custom allowed among infidels, then baptism in a Christian nation, as this is, should be an immediate enfranchisement to them, as they should thereby acquire the privileges and immunities enjoyed by those of the same religion and be entitled to the laws of England."—5 *Modern Reports, Chamberline* vs. *Hervey.*

St. George Tucker, in 1796, while professor of law in the University of William and Mary and one of the judges of the general court of Virginia, delivered in the university and subsequently published a remarkable "*Dissertation on slavery, with a proposal for its abolition in the State of Virginia,*" and in quoting from the act of the Virginia assembly in 1705, above referred to, is provoked to remark that "it would have been happy for this unfortunate race if the same tender regard for their bodies had always manifested itself in our laws as is shown for their souls in this act. But this was not the case, for two years after we meet with an act declaring: 'That if any slave resist his master, or others by his master's orders, correcting him, and by the extremity of the correction should chance to die, such death should not be accounted felony;'" and Professor Tucker adds: "This cruel and tyrannical act, at three different periods enacted with very little alteration, was not finally repealed till 1788, about a century after it had first disgraced our code."

What would this illustrious man now say were he to rise from the dead, and, standing in that university, discourse upon the black code of Virginia as it was in all its atrocious vigor in full force in 1860?

It required a hundred years for the long descent from that first step of barbarism, embodied in the above early statutes, respecting the relation of slaves to Christian profession and baptism, down to that immeasurable infamy which shut with iron bars the gates of knowledge from the whole race, both bond and free, reducing them to the condition of the brute.

And here again the "Dissertation," to which allusion has here been made, is so forcibly suggested that another passage from it cannot be withheld. After depicting "the rigors of the

police in regard to this unhappy race," and affirming that it ought to be softened, this great and far-sighted Virginia jurist goes on to inquire if with but 300,000 slaves such things were deemed necessary, what must be the situation of the State when instead of that number there should be more than 2,000,000 in Virginia, concluding with this lofty and prophetic language: "This must happen," he says, in allusion to the increase of the slave population, "within a century, if we do not set about the abolition of slavery. Will not our posterity curse the days of their nativity with all the anguish of Job? Will they not execrate the memory of those ancestors, who, having it in their power to avert the evil, have, like their first parents, entailed a curse upon all future generations? *We know that the rigor of the laws respecting slaves unavoidably must increase with their numbers. What a blood-stained code must that be which is calculated for the restraint of millions held in bondage. Such must our unhappy country exhibit within a century unless we are both wise and just enough to avert from posterity the calamity and reproach which are otherwise unavoidable.*"

VIRGINIA.

When the act of Congress approved February 27, 1801, organizing the District of Columbia, and providing that the laws of Virginia and Maryland, as those laws at *that date existed*, should continue in force in the portions ceded by those States respectively, became a law, there was no *express* restriction of the education of the colored race upon the statute-books of either State. The earliest legislation aiming at such restrictions are all embraced in the enactments pertaining to gatherings of "slaves, negroes, and mulattoes," denominated in the Maryland statutes "*tumultuous meetings*," and in the Virginia statutes "*unlawful assemblies*," the definition, in common law, of such an assembly being "the meeting of three or more persons to do an unlawful act."

In Virginia, as early as 1680, an act was passed for preventing negro insurrections, declaring that "the frequent meeting of considerable numbers of negroes, under pretence of feasts and burials, is judged of dangerous consequence," and such meetings were forbidden under penalty of *thirty lashes*.

In January, 1804, an act was passed declaring "all assemblages of slaves, under whatever pretext, at any meeting-house, or any other place in the night-time," to be an "unlawful assembly," the offenders to be punished with lashes not exceeding *twenty*. An act explaining and amending the act of January was passed in June, 1805, in which it is provided that nothing in such act shall "prevent masters taking their slaves to places of religious worship conducted by a regularly ordained or licensed white minister."

This act also forbid the overseers of the poor "to require black orphans, bound out, to be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic," showing that hitherto they had required this instruction to be given.

Up to that time *slaves* only were restricted, but in the Revised Code of 1819 all meetings of *free negroes or mulattoes*, associating with slaves in such places, including assemblages at "any school-house or schools for teaching reading or writing, either in the day or night," are embraced in the same interdiction and penalty. The same code also provides that "any *white person*, free negro, mulatto, or Indian, found in such unlawful assembly," is punishable by fine of three dollars and costs, and on failure of present payment, "is to receive *twenty lashes* on his or her bare back, well laid on."

There was no further legislation in the Virginia assembly bearing specially on this matter till the passage of the act of April 17, 1831. The Nat. Turner insurrection, in South Hampton county, occurred in the same year, but not until August, showing that the law was inspired by no special alarm arising from the massacre. The following are the sections relating to education of the colored people:

"SEC. 4. *Be it further enacted*, That all meetings of free negroes or mulattoes, at any school house, church, or meeting-house, or other place, for teaching them reading or writing, either in the day or night, under whatsoever pretext, shall be deemed and considered as an 'unlawful assembly;' and any justice of the county or corporation wherein such assemblage shall be, either from his own knowledge or on the information of others, of such unlawful assemblage or meeting, shall issue his warrant, directed to any sworn officer or officers, authorizing him or them to enter the house or houses where such unlawful assemblage or

meeting may be, for the purpose of apprehending or dispersing such free negroes or mulattoes, and to inflict corporal punishment on the offender or offenders, at the discretion of any justice of the peace, not exceeding twenty lashes.

"SEC. 5. *Be it further enacted*, That if any white person or persons assemble with free negroes or mulattoes, at any school-house, church, meeting-house, or other place, for the purpose of instructing such free negroes or mulattoes to read or write, such person or persons shall, on conviction thereof, be fined in a sum not exceeding fifty dollars, and moreover may be imprisoned, at the discretion of a jury, not exceeding two months.

"SEC. 6. *Be it further enacted*, That if any white person, for pay or compensation, shall assemble with any slaves for the purpose of teaching, and shall teach any slave to read or write, such person, or any white person or persons contracting with such teacher so to act, who shall offend as aforesaid, shall for each offence be fined, at the discretion of a jury, in a sum not less than ten nor exceeding one hundred dollars, to be recovered on an information or indictment."

These were the exactions put upon the terrified colored people of Alexandria when the retrocession took effect. The only material change in the law of 1831 was made in 1848, when the act reducing to one the general acts concerning crimes and punishments was enacted, the maximum number of lashes being then increased to 39.

The constitutional convention of Virginia, which met at Alexandria, in 1864, passed a resolution, March 10, declaring slavery to be forever abolished.

MARYLAND.

In Maryland the assembly, in 1695, passed an act "restraining the frequent assembling of negroes within the province."

In 1723 an act was passed to prevent "tumultuous meetings of negroes and other slaves" on Sabbath and other holidays, requiring the appointment of constables to visit monthly all suspected places, and when "negroes or other slaves" are found upon premises to which they did not belong, to break up the "tumultuous assembly," and whip the offenders with lashes upon the bare back, not exceeding 39. A quarter of a century later, in 1748, the assembly of the same State enacted that all persons entertaining any servants or "slaves upon their premises" during the space of one hour or longer should be fined 100 pounds of tobacco for each hand, and, in default of payment, to receive not exceeding 39 lashes on the bare back. Though this act specifies its purpose to be the prevention of embezzling provisions for such entertainments, and of "many grievous disorders," it is evident that the intelligence awakened by such gatherings was the result mainly deprecated. The provisions of the act are extended, in 1807, to embrace *free negroes* in the prohibition as well as slaves, the constable being required to repress "tumultuous meetings of mulattoes, negroes, and slaves," the penalty to the offending free negro being fine and imprisonment, and to the slave the usual "lashes." In 1831, when Virginia completed its climax of obloquy and turpitude, in shutting up all its colored classes to total ignorance, Maryland, to its honor, did not allow one syllable against the education of either its free or its slave population to find place in its statutes. The policy of her State was at this time to prepare the way for freedom, and a law was in this same year enacted forbidding the introduction of slaves into its territory, and a most liberal and enlightened enterprise organized to encourage the manumission of slaves and their emigration to Liberia. The act of 1831, upon "tumultuous assemblies," provided:

"That it shall not be lawful for any free negro or negroes, slave or slaves, to assemble or attend any meetings for religious purposes unless conducted by a white licensed or ordained preacher, or some respectable white person of the neighborhood, as may be duly authorized by such licensed or ordained preacher, during the continuance of such meeting," and unless conducted in accordance with these provisions all such assemblages were declared to be "tumultuous meetings." It was, however, provided that meetings of slaves or servants upon the premises where they belonged should not be embraced in the prohibitions of the act, and that within the limits of Baltimore city and Annapolis city religious meetings of slaves, free negroes, and mulattoes, held in accordance with the written permission of a white licensed (or) ordained preacher, and dismissed before 10 o'clock at night, should be lawful. It was also provided that the free negroes and mulattoes, for any offence for which

slaves were then punishable, should "be subject to the same punishment, and be liable in every respect to the same treatment and penalty as slaves thus offending," the punishment for this offence being not exceeding 39 lashes upon the bare back.

The restrictive policy of 1831, which totally prohibited the introduction of slaves into the State, was modified in 1832, in special cases, and in 1833 every barrier to the introduction of slaves for residence was withdrawn. In 1835 was enacted the law against the publication and circulation of documents tending to inflame discontent and insurrection among the colored population—a law which, everywhere enacted in the slave States, was an instrument of terror and oppression, disheartening to the cause of education. The literature of the country was so largely pervaded with denunciations of slavery at that period, that it was dangerous for a colored man, or a friend of the colored race in a slave State, to have in his possession any of the publications of the day—an old newspaper, used for wrapping purposes in a trunk, often visiting upon its possessor the severest troubles.

THE CHARTER OF GEORGETOWN.

The original act incorporating Georgetown, passed by the general assembly of Maryland 25th December, 1789, contains nothing in the enumeration of the created powers restraining the colored in distinction from the white population, and in the amending act of the assembly, passed January 20, 1798, the only allusion to the colored people distinctively is in the preamble, in which is set forth the want of proper powers in the corporation to restrain by wholesome laws "vagrants, loose and disorderly persons, *free negroes*, and persons having no visible means of support." In the powers conferred by the act which follows the preamble, however, there is no allusion whatever to the colored race; nor is there any distinctive reference of the kind in the amendatory act of Congress of March 3, 1805, the only clause important to note being that which provided that "the said corporation shall have, possess, and enjoy all the rights, immunities, privileges, and powers heretofore enjoyed by them." In 1809 the charter received from Congress another amendment, in which it was declared "that all the rights, powers, and privileges heretofore granted by the general assembly of Maryland, and by the act to which this is a supplement, and which are at this time claimed and exercised by them, shall remain in full force and effect."

GEORGETOWN ORDINANCES.

The first ordinance in Georgetown restricting the assembling of colored people was passed by the councils August 4, 1795, in which were prohibited all "irregular and disorderly meetings of indented servants and slaves," and also "the meeting of servants or slaves exceeding six" on any occasion, with a penalty not exceeding thirty-nine lashes; and in case of interference to prevent the whipping on the part of "master or mistress," a fine for the interference not exceeding £5. October 10, 1796, another ordinance to repress "riotous and disorderly meetings of indented servants and slaves" was enacted, with a special injunction upon the constables to particularly examine all persons of color as to their title to freedom. In this act "the fighting of game-cocks and dunghill fowls" by colored people was specifically prohibited as among disorderly assemblages.

The punishment of whipping was so eagerly and promptly executed by the constable that the councils passed a special ordinance forbidding whipping during market hours.

On the 8th of October, 1831, that year of sorrows to the colored people throughout the slave States, and of shame and infamy to their oppressors, the councils enacted:

"That from this time forth all night assemblages of black or colored persons within the limits of this town, except for religious instruction, conducted by white men of good character, and terminated or dispersed at or before the hour of half past nine o'clock p. m., be and the same are hereby prohibited," the penalty for slaves not more than 39 stripes, and for free colored people not more than 30 days at hard labor in the workhouse.

The same ordinance also prohibits "any negro or mulatto person living in this town from receiving through the post office, or any other mode, or after lapse of ten days from the passage of this act to have in his possession, or to circulate, any newspaper or publication of a

seditious and evil character, calculated to excite insurrection or insubordination among the slaves."

"Subscribers to or receivers of a newspaper called 'The Liberator,' published in Boston," are emphatically proscribed; and every free negro or mulatto in any way concerned in the infringement of the act was to be "deemed and adjudged a disorderly person, and a dangerous and unsafe citizen." White persons aiding in the infraction of this law were punished with a fine not exceeding $20, or imprisonment not more than 30 days; free negroes and mulattoes failing to pay fine and prison fees were liable to be sold to service not exceeding four months. This section against the free circulation of knowledge was the most oppressive restraint ever imposed upon the colored people. It almost absolutely shut them up from all reading, as they were afraid to have any book in their possession, scarcely even the Bible.

On the 25th of August, 1845, the councils passed an ordinance declaring that—

"From this time forth all assemblages, day or night, of black or colored persons within the limits of this town, except meetings for religious instruction, conducted by white men appointed by either or any of the established churches of the town, and terminated at or before the hour of nine and a half o'clock p. m., and except such other meetings as shall be especially allowed by the mayor, be and the same are hereby prohibited."

The penalty attached to the violation of this ordinance was, in case of a slave, stripes not exceeding 39, and in case of a free negro the punishment was confinement to hard labor at the workhouse not exceeding 30 days, or a fine not exceeding $30; Congress having by act of March 2, 1831, prohibited corporal punishment upon a free man in the District, imprisonment in the county jail for a period not exceeding six months being substituted therefor.

This ordinance of 1845 had no sanction either in the laws of Congress or in those of Maryland. If its provisions had been enforced, colored schools would have been placed at the mercy of the mayor, who, in the case of at least one mayor in the memory of the older residents of the District, would have had no mercy on them, though of this tyrannical class Henry Addison, ever a friend of the oppressed, stands forth a very noble exception. These ordinances were never enforced against the schools, though they stood there as an oppressive intimidation, necessarily engendering a spirit of disdain and contempt for the humiliated classes on the part of those, both young and old, whom the enactments made their masters. This was manifested in the persecutions which continually fell upon the colored children on the way to school and returning, it being a common custom for crowds of white boys to congregate at the colored school-houses for the purpose of pelting with stones and maltreating the inoffensive and unresisting children as they would flee towards their humble homes. There were no ordinances in any city of the District to shield these children from such outrages, though the insolent and inhuman practices were always well known to the city authorities.

THE CHARTER OF ALEXANDRIA.

The original charter of Alexandria enacted by the general assembly of Virginia, like that of Georgetown, confers no power exclusively applied to the colored people. The corporate authorities were invested with power "to make by-laws and ordinances for the regulation and good government of said town: *Provided*, such by-laws or ordinances shall not be repugnant to or inconsistent with the laws and constitution of this commonwealth;" and in amending the charter in 1804 Congress conferred upon the city the power "to make all laws which they shall conceive requisite for the regulation of the morals and police of the said town, and to enforce the observance of said laws." In an act still further amending the charter, approved May 13, 1826, substantially the same power is conferred as was embraced in the act amendatory of the charter of Washington, approved May 4, 1812. It enacts that the common council of Alexandria "shall have power to restrain and prohibit the nightly and other disorderly meetings of slaves, free negroes, or mulattoes, and to punish such slaves by whipping, not exceeding 40 stripes, or, at the option of the owner of such slave, by fine or confinement to labor, not exceeding three months for every one offence; and to punish such free negroes or mulattoes for such offences by fixed penalties, not exceeding $20 for one offence; and in case of the failure of such free negro or mulatto to pay and satisfy such pen-

alty and costs, to cause such free negro or mulatto to be confined to labor for any time not exceeding six months for any one offence."

ALEXANDRIA ORDINANCES.

It was under the sanction of the above amending clause that the common council, October 29, 1831, passed an ordinance providing "that all meetings or assemblages of free negroes and mulattoes, or of slaves, free negroes and mulattoes, at any meeting or other house, either in the day or night, under the pretence or pretext of attending a religious meeting, or for any amusement, shall be and the same are hereby prohibited, and any such meeting or assembly shall be considered an unlawful assembly; this act not to be construed to prohibit any slave, free negro, or mulatto from attending any class or other like meeting authorized and required by the present government and discipline of any religious society in the limits of this corporation, for religious services, or at any place of public worship, when and where a white member of the said society, duly authorized by the resident minister of the said religious society to officiate at such meeting; which said meeting is to close, and the persons present to depart to their homes, at or before 10 o'clock: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall prohibit any slave, free negro, or mulatto from attending, either day or night, any of the usual places of public worship, when and where a duly authorized white minister shall officiate; but no separate place of worship shall be permitted for slaves, free negroes, or mulattoes."

The ordinance further specifies that nothing in it "shall prohibit any slave, or free apprenticed negro or mulatto meeting on any other lawful occasion, by license in writing from the owner or employer of such slave, or master or mistress of such apprentice, providing such meeting be in the day-time, or if after sunset the same shall not be continued longer than 10 o'clock; nor shall any free negro or mulatto attend any meeting without the written permit of the mayor authorizing such meeting, which meeting is to be under the same limitation as relates to slaves and apprentices."

Section 11 provides "that if any free negro or mulatto person living in this town shall be a subscriber to or receive through the post office, or in any other mode shall, after the lapse of 10 days after the passage of this law, have in possession or circulate any newspaper or other publication, or any written or printed paper, or book, of a seditious and evil character, calculated to excite insurrection or insubordination among slaves or colored people, such free negro or mulatto shall be fined any sum not exceeding $20, or be committed to the work-house for not less than 30 days, and pay the amount of work-house fees and costs, and give security for his or her good behavior for 12 months, in a sum not exceeding $100, before he or she shall be discharged." In case the fine was imposed, and the offender was unable to pay the amount, he was committed to the work-house, to remain until it was paid.

In February, 1864, Miss Mary Chase, of Alexandria, an excellent colored teacher already mentioned, struck a white boy with a broom-stick because he called her vulgar names as she was sweeping the snow from her door-steps. She was arrested and taken to the mayor's office, and was about to receive sentence without a hearing. She resolutely insisted upon the right to state her case, and was allowed to speak. Her speech closed with these words: "If the boy calls me such names again, I will strike him again; and I will strike anybody else who calls me such names." The mayor replied: "Mary, you had better not talk so;" to which she reiterated her determination; whereupon she was fined "one dollar for costs and fifty cents for the lick."

In the summer of the same year a young woman, for some offence against a white man, was sentenced in Alexandria to receive 39 lashes and be imprisoned 30 days in the county jail. The sentence was rigidly executed; and Miss Julia A. Wilbur often visited her and supplied her with useful employment, and when released furnished her a good home.

THE CHARTER OF WASHINGTON.

In the original charter of Washington, approved May 3, 1802, the enumeration of powers conferred upon the corporation embraces nothing, either expressly or by implication, specifically directed towards the colored people, nor is there any such power given in the sup-

plementary act of 1806. In the act further to amend the charter, approved May 4, 1812, there is, however, a clause to the point, giving the authority "to restrain and prohibit the nightly and other disorderly meetings of slaves, free negroes, and mulattoes, and to punish such slaves by whipping, not exceeding 40 stripes, or by imprisonment not exceeding six calendar months, for any one offence; and to punish such free negroes and mulattoes for such offences by fixed penalties, not exceeding $20 for any one offence;" and in default of paying fine and costs, imprisonment not exceeding six calendar months. In 1820 the original charter, expiring by limitation, was renewed, and the above clause was inserted without alteration.

WASHINGTON ORDINANCES.

The same remarks are applicable to the corporation laws of Washington which have elsewhere been made in regard to those of Georgetown and Alexandria. Every imaginable form of humiliating restriction upon the personal freedom of the colored people, both bond and free, pervades these laws, almost from the first year of its corporate existence. It seems to have been assumed that these humble and patient beings were ready for riot, insurrection, and every species of insubordination and wickedness. They were subjected to the severest penal enactments; and without the slightest legal protection from the abuse of the white race, were at the mercy of inhuman and villainous white people, in their little brief authority, both in and out of corporation office. *No white man can do a wrong to a colored man, and no colored man willingly does right to anybody,* is the ruling temper of all the laws in regard to "slaves, free colored, and mulatto persons," as long as slavery existed in the District.

The first ordinance of the corporation of Washington pertaining to the colored people bears date December 6, 1808, and declares "that no black person, or person of color, or loose, idle, disorderly person shall be allowed to walk about or assemble at any tippling or other house after 10 o'clock at night;" thus classing the whole body of the colored people with the dregs of society; "and any such person being found offending against this law, or *at any time* engaged in dancing, tippling, quarrelling, or in playing at any game of hazard or ball, or making a noise or disturbance, or in assembling in a disorderly or tumultuous manner, shall pay the sum of five dollars for each offence."

Section 9 of this act declares "that it shall not be lawful for any person to entertain a slave or slaves after 10 o'clock p. m.; and for every slave found in the house or dwelling of another after 10 o'clock p. m., the person so entertaining shall forfeit and pay five dollars," unless the slave is found to have been sent on a message by the master or mistress. The fine in every case in this ordinance is to go one-half to the complainant or apprehender, and the other half to the city; one of the most unmerciful features of this law. A striking provision in this ordinance was that in which was legally fixed the value of a constable's services for whipping a negro. The fee, like the duty, was contemptible; yet there is no case on record in which the officer failed, under any ordinance, promptly to administer the "stripes on the bare back, well laid on," and were as impatient to do their brutal business as they were in Georgetown, where the councils were compelled to pass a special ordinance forbidding whipping during market hours. The section fixing the value of the service at half a dollar for each whipping was as follows:

"SEC. 6. *Be it further enacted,* That if any slave shall be convicted under this law the owner of such slave shall be liable for the same, and judgment may be rendered against such owner by any justice of the peace upon the conviction of the slave, but it shall be optional with the owner of such slave to have the whole remitted *except fifty cents,* on condition he or she give directions to have the offending slave whipt according to the judgment of the magistrate, who is hereby directed to remit so much thereof, the residue to go to the person who inflicts the punishment."

The enumerated powers of the original charter of the city, under which this ordinance was enacted, furnishes no authority for the above provisions of the law of 1808, and it was only by the most unjust wrenchings of that instrument that any shadow of authority could have been extorted; yet these provisions were under the same charter of 1802 re-enacted December 16, 1812, with aggravated malignancy, in the following barbarous terms:

"SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That it shall not be lawful for any slave, free black,

or mulatto person or persons to assemble in any house, street, or other place, by day or by night, in a disorderly or tumultuous manner, so as to disturb the peace or repose of the citizens.' Penalty: A slave to "receive any number of stripes on his or her bare back not exceeding twenty, and a free black or mulatto to be fined not exceeding $20 and costs, and failing to pay which to go to the work-house not exceeding 90 days."

"SEC. 8. If any free black or mulatto person or slave shall have a dance, ball, or assembly at his, her, or their house without first obtaining a permit from the mayor, or other justice of the peace, he, she, or they shall each pay a fine of $20, or be sentenced to confinement and labor for a time not exceeding 30 days; in case of inability or refusal to pay such fine a slave shall receive any number of lashes on the bare back not exceeding ten."

Section 9 provided "that no slave or free black or mulatto person should be allowed to go at large through the streets, or other parts of the said city, at a later hour than 10 o'clock at night from April 1 to October 1, or than 9 o'clock at night from October 1 to April 1, except a slave who had a written permission from his or her master, mistress, or employer." Penalty: slave, not exceeding 39 stripes on his or her bare back; free black or mulatto, fine not exceeding $20 and costs, and failing to pay, not exceeding 90 days at hard labor. The fines in this, as in the law of 1808, went half to the informer or apprehender.

The question is perpetually recurring, while running through these restraining enactments, why the colored people are made the constant and exclusive victims. Why were not white persons prohibited from disturbing the peace and repose of colored persons?

The first sanction given by Congress to this barbarism was when in amending the charter, May 15, 1820, it gave the corporation power "to restrain and prohibit the nightly and other disorderly meetings of slaves, free negroes, and mulattoes, and to punish such slaves by whipping, not exceeding forty stripes, or by imprisonment, not exceeding six calendar months for any one offence." Why the maximum stripes were increased from 39 to 40 it is difficult to conjecture, unless it was to show that barbarism was magnifying itself. The fact that this power was introduced into this amendment of the charter is significant of the fact that the city had been hitherto transcending its authority in the inhuman restraints which had in this regard been enforced by their ordinances.

Emboldened by the firmer grasp upon the victims which the enlarged powers of the charter under the amendment of 1820 gave them, the city authorities, April 14, 1821, took a double turn of the screw. In the ordinance of 1812 the free colored people were required simply to exhibit satisfactory evidence of their freedom to the register, who was thereupon to give them license to reside within the limits of the city, the penalty being a fine of $6 or 10 days in the work-house; but the special intent of the ordinance of 1821 was to amplify and make more stringent the whole registry or license system. A thorough examination of the city was ordered, "the city commissioners to make, each in his own ward, diligent inquiry and search for all free persons of color who may then reside or be found in the city," every one to be notified to appear within thirty days at the council chamber "to present for inspection their papers or other evidence of freedom, and shall then subscribe a statement of his or her trade or occupation and means of subsistence." But, in addition to satisfactory proofs of their right to *freedom*, they were obliged to bring "a certificate *satisfactory to the mayor* from at least three respectable white inhabitants, householders, setting forth that they are personally acquainted with such negro, and that he or she live peaceable and quiet lives;" specifying also "their trade or occupation, whether she or he keep an orderly and decent house, and whether they are industrious and honest, and not likely to become chargeable to the corporation."

The ordinance went still further. Every free male person of color residing in the city was required to satisfy the mayor of his title to freedom, and to "*enter into bond with one good and responsible free white citizen*"—a phraseology suggesting that there were *white* citizens *not free*—"as surety, in the penalty of $20, conditioned for the good, sober, and orderly conduct of such person or persons of color and his or her family, for the term of one year following the date of such bond; and that such person or persons, his or her family, nor any part thereof, shall not during the said term of one year become chargeable to the corporation in any manner whatsoever, and that they will not become beggars about the streets."

Parents were also required to give a statement, in writing, showing the name, age, residence, and occupation of each child, and how said child became free; and the mayor could require, "*in his discretion*," of such parents to give *additional security* for the quiet, peaceable, and orderly behavior of such child, in a sum not exceeding *fifty dollars*, and when any security may, in the *opinion of the mayor*, become insufficient, he may require additional security."

After all these conditions were complied with, and "the license to reside within the city" granted and duly signed by the mayor, countersigned by the register, recorded, and sealed with the seal of the corporation, the ordinance required that it should be renewed, together with the bonds, every year. In case of failure to produce evidence of freedom *satisfactory to the mayor*, the negro was committed to the county jail and dealt with as "an absconding slave." In case of failure to furnish the required sureties and bonds within the 30 days, the penalty was a fine of $5 for the first week, and if still found residing in the city, the man, *together with his wife*, was committed to the work-house for three months, from which they could be discharged, on *satisfying* the mayor that they would "forthwith depart the city." An additional provision was one of greatest cruelty, viz: that "the *children* of such persons committed to the work-house *shall be* bound out to service for such term as the guardians of the poor may think *reasonable*, not exceeding a period at which the males will arrive at the age of 21, the females at the age of 16."

"SEC. 8. It shall be unlawful for any free person of color to receive, entertain, harbor, or conceal any slave, or hire, buy from, sell to, bargain, or in any way trade or barter with any slave, unless by written consent of the owner. Penalty for first offence, fine of $10; for second offence, two months in the work-house."

"SEC. 11. When any free negro shall desire to change his residence from one part of the city to another, he shall make known such intention to the register, and produce his license, on which the register shall endorse such intended residence and record the same."

"SEC. 13. It shall be lawful for *any person*, at *any time*, to demand to see the license of any free negro or mulatto, and if within 24 hours he shall not produce such licence, or an official copy thereof, such negro may, in the *discretion* of any justice of the peace, be fined in any sum not exceeding $5."

The determination to prevent, if possible, the increase of the free colored population from without is shown in section 7, which enacted that "all free negroes coming to Washington to reside should not only be subject to all the provisions, terms, and conditions applicable to such persons already residents, but the bond to be given by them shall be in the penalty of *five hundred dollars*, with *two good and responsible free white citizens as sureties*."

Under this ordinance of 1821 the provisions relating to "holding dances, balls, or assemblies," and "all nightly and disorderly meetings of free negroes," were made more stringent, the penalty being extended to every one present at such gatherings, and for the second offence the "license to reside in the city" was forfeited.

The colored people humbly and dutifully rendered obedience to these oppressive enactments, which stood unchanged for the ensuing half a dozen years. On the 31st of May, 1827, an ordinance was enacted which contained all the cruelties embraced in the legislation of the previous quarter of a century, but devised and established additional ones.

The penalty affixed to "idle, disorderly, or tumultuous assemblages," was, in the case of free negroes and mulattoes, the same as in the law of 1812, viz., fine of $20; but failure to pay the fine was punished with six months in the work-house, in the place of 90 days, and sureties required to be given for good behavior. For a slave the penalty was increased from 20 to "39 stripes on the bare back;" the option, however, being given him "to have the whipping *commuted* for the payment of the fine which would be imposed in such cases on free persons of color." This last provision is a notable ene, and reveals a dawning conviction, on the part of the law-makers, of the barbarism of the slave code.

The fine of $20 affixed, in 1812, as the penalty for free negroes and mulattoes for "having a dance, ball, or assembly," was reduced to $10; but the penalty for non-payment was extended from 90 days in the work-house to six months; for a slave the number of stripes was increased from 10 to 39, and commutation of punishment as above was allowed.

A similar change was made in the ordinance prohibiting the "going at large after 10 o'clock at night without a permit," viz: the fine reduced from $20 to $10, and work-house

time doubled; but the penalty in case of a slave remained unchanged, it being 39 stripes in 1812 as well as 1827.

The ordinance relating to "having a dance, ball, or assembly," required a permit from the mayor, in which must be mentiond the place, time of meeting, number of guests, and hour of breaking up; and a violation of any one of the conditions embodied in the permit exposed the offending party to the full penalty.

In the ordinance of 1827 the provisions touching the registry and "residence license" were not essentially different from those of 1821, except in the penalty. Failure to pay the fine imposed for not complying with the provisions necessary to a license was made punishable with *six months* in the work-house, instead of three; and in the case of new comers who failed to present the required two "*freehold sureties* in the penalty of *five hundred* dollars for his good and orderly conduct," no fine was imposed, but they were "to depart the city forthwith," or be sent to the work-house for *twelve* months instead of three.

In 1829 an ordinance was passed containing the provision that colored persons should not frequent the Capitol square, the penalty being a fine not exceeding $20, or 30 days in the work-house. This enactment was peculiarly oppressive, because it was so totally destitute of decent pretext. Its operation is illustrated in the case of Alexander Hays, the colored schoolmaster and teacher of music. He had a great anxiety to hear the music of the marine band in the Capitol grounds, and venturing, with a colored friend, to step a few yards inside the gate, was seized violently by a brutal officer upon the grounds, led at arm's length to the gate, and, with a thrust, directed to "be off." In the same year, 1849, the same man attempted to get near enough on the occasion to hear General Taylor, at the inauguration services. He crept up under the steps in a concealed place, and when General Taylor was about taking the oath was again grasped by the rough hand of a policeman, and dragged like a dog through the crowd and bid "begone." These incidents are given on the authority of Mr. Hays, who is known in this city as an upright and useful man.

These enactments, however, did not grind these poor people to the entire satisfaction of their torturers, for nine years later some of the exactions were greatly increased, and even doubled. In an ordinance supplementary to that of 1827, dated October 29, 1836, the climax of infamous legislation was reached. The following selections from the act contain the leading features:

"SECTION 1. Every free negro or mulatto, whether male or female, and every colored person who may be manumitted or made free in any manner, shall forthwith exhibit to the mayor satisfactory evidence of his or her title to freedom, and shall enter into bond, with *five* good and sufficient freehold sureties, in the penalty of *one thousand dollars*, conditioned for his or her good and orderly conduct, and that of every member of his or her family, and that they, or either of them, do not become chargeable to this corporation, which bond shall be renewed every year; and on failure to comply with the provisions of this section, shall pay a sum not exceeding *twenty dollars*, and shall be ordered by the mayor to depart *forthwith* from the city, and on failure to do so shall be committed to the work-house until such conditions shall be complied with, not exceeding six months."

"SEC. 3. It shall not be lawful for the mayor to grant a license for any purpose whatsoever to any free negro or mulatto, or to any person acting as agent or in behalf of any free negro or mulatto, except licenses to drive carts, drays, hackney carriages, or wagons; nor shall it be lawful to grant a license *for any purpose whatsoever* to any free negro or mulatto who shall not, *before the passage of this act*, be a resident of this city, and be registered as such.

"SEC. 4. Nor shall any free negro or mulatto, nor any person acting for any free negro or mulatto, keep any tavern, ordinary, shop, porter-cellar, refectory, or eating-house of any kind, for profit or gain," &c., the penalty affixed being a fine of *twenty dollars*.

"SEC. 5. All secret or private meetings or assemblies whatsoever, and all meetings for religious worship beyond the hour of 10 o'clock at night, of free negroes, mulattoes, or slaves, shall be unlawful; and any colored person found at such unlawful assemblages or meetings, or who may continue at any religious meeting after 10 o'clock at night, shall pay the sum of *five dollars;* and, in the event of any such meeting or assemblage, it shall be the duty of any police constable to use and employ all lawful and necessary means immediately to disperse the same, and in case any police constable, after full notice and knowledge of such meetings, shall neglect or refuse to execute the duty hereby enjoined, he shall pay the sum of *fifty dollars*."

But in spite of this latter provision the policemen were not unfrequently bought off, and many a colored resident can witness to having paid and seen paid sundry dollars and larger

sums to sundry policemen, when returning home, a few minutes after 10 o'clock, from an evening meeting or party—an hour when those officials were sure to be awake and on time. These perquisites were, quite probably, of more value than the fees for whipping.

There is also a most interesting petition in the files of the city councils illustrating the bearing of this particular feature of this inhuman legislation in Washington.

In 1833 Joseph Jefferson, the illustrious comedian and the father of the eminent living comedian of that name, was, in connection with another gentleman, the lessee of the Washington Theatre, and all the citizens of Washington, who remember that day and appreciate what is greatest in the dramatic art, have vivid and delightful recollections of that theatre. On the 15th day of July, 1833, Jefferson and Mackenzie, as the lessees, addressed the following appeal to the city councils:

"DEAR SIR: Permit us to take the liberty of representing to you a burden that oppresses us most heavily, and of requesting your kind endeavors so to represent the case before the mayor and council that we may obtain all the relief that it is in their power to grant.

"You must be aware that we pay nightly to the city a tax of $6 for permission to perform in the theatre; in the year 1832 this amounted to nearly $1,400 in the aggregate; we pay this tax cheerfully, and all we ask in return is a liberal protection and support from the city authorities.

"There is at present a law in force which authorizes the constables of the city to arrest the colored people if on the street after 9 o'clock without a pass. A great proportion of our audience consists of persons of *this caste*, and they are consequently deterred from giving us that support that they would otherwise do.

"Can there be any modification of that law suggested, or will the mayor and council authorize us to give passes to those colored persons who leave the theatre for the purpose of proceeding directly to their homes?

"In the city of Baltimore, where we have a theatre, and pay a smaller license than we do here, the law, as regards the colored people, is not acted upon when they are coming or going to the theatre.

"In a pecuniary point of view, we look upon this law as a detriment to us of $10 nightly, and we have great reason to hope that a law that rests so heavily upon us alone may meet with the kind consideration of the mayor and council, and be so modified as to relieve us from the heavy loss that it causes us at present to incur.

"We have the honor to be, dear sir, your obedient servants,

"JEFFERSON & MACKENZIE,
"*Managers of the Washington Theatre.*"

From 1836 there was no further legislation of consequence upon this subject for 14 years. On the 13th of December, 1850, the infamous requirement of the bond demanding "*five good and sufficient freehold sureties in the penalty of* $1,000," in the ordinance of 1836, had been so thoroughly exposed in its odiousness that a relaxation of its unexampled rigor was enacted, by which "one good and sufficient freehold surety" in the penalty of $50 only was demanded. It was, however, demanded that every head of a family should give "a like bond and surety for each and every member of his or her family between the ages of 12 and 21 years." This tenderness, however, was more than neutralized in section third of the same act, which required, after its passage, that every free negro or mulatto, whether male or female, within five days after arriving in the city, and on the tenth day of December thereafter annually, to "record his or her name and the names of every member of his or her family on the books of this corporation, and at the same time pay for himself, herself, and every member of his or her family the sum of fifty dollars, upon which registration and payment the mayor is authorized to grant a permit of residence; and on failure to comply with the provisions of this section shall pay a sum not less than ten dollars nor exceeding twenty dollars, and shall be ordered to depart forthwith from this city."

These enactments as a general rule were inexorably enforced. Especially was this the case while the ordinances gave to the police officers—"the hounds," as they were called by the poor victims whom they hunted down—one-half the fine for their detestable work. The councils seem also to have been perpetually vigilant, re-enacting almost every year some resolution looking to the enforcement of the requirements pertaining to the bond. As an illustration of this official fidelity the case of Mr. William Syphax, now chairman of the board of trustees of colored schools, is in point. After a residence in the city for 12 years, with a character as unblemished as that of any man in the District, he was summoned in 1847 before a magistrate by one of these vigilant "hounds," and, as a non-resident, fined

$10 and compelled to enter into the bond under the law of 1836, "with five good and sufficient freehold sureties in the penalty of $1,000." Mr. Seaton, editor of the National Intelligencer, was one of his bondsmen.

There is a curious and significant commentary on this legislation to be found in the files of the corporation of Washington. In 1839 this restriction began to make labor scarce in the city—returning with its atrocities to plague the inventors. A petition was therefore sent to the city councils, signed by some hundred of the prominent business men of the city, who were wont to employ colored labor, setting forth that the colored people of the city who had given their *thousand-dollar bond* had apparently combined to control the price of labor by informing on all colored laborers who came into the city without giving bonds, thus preventing competition. The petition prays, therefore, that the law may be modified; not that the grasp of the brutal policemen may be removed from their humble, inoffensive victims, but that the white capitalists of the city may have power to grind them the more effectually in their wages, which at best was but a pittance. The names upon this petition, if inserted in this connection, would make many living men ashamed.

One of the most oppressive of the restraints introduced into the ordinance of 1836 was that which prohibited the mayor from issuing a license to a free negro or mulatto to do any business except "to drive carts, drays, hackney carriages, or wagons," and expressly forbidding any license to an agent of any colored person.

The prohibition of "all secret or private meetings or assemblages whatsoever" beyond the hour of 10 o'clock p. m. was peculiarly oppressive and also inhuman, because directed against the various charitable and self-improving associations, including the Masonic, Odd-Fellow, and Sons of Temperance brotherhoods which the colored people had organized, and the meetings of which, to be dispersed before 10 o'clock, could be of but comparatively little benefit to the members. These societies in those years were more or less educational in character, and an important means of self-improvement to these inoffensive people, and those who made enactments were fully sensible of that fact. These restrictions were, moreover, rigorously enforced, and it was but a few years before the war that a company of the most respectable colored men of the District, on their return from the Masonic lodge a few minutes of 10 o'clock, were seized by the scrupulous police, retained at the watch-house till morning, and fined.

The prohibition forbidding a colored person to be abroad after 10 o'clock at night without a pass, under a penalty of "a fine, "confinement to hard labor," or "stripes upon the bare back," well laid on," must at a glance impress every candid mind with surprise, and yet it is only upon considerate reflection that its atrociousness is revealed. A poor colored man finds a member of his family in a dying condition at midnight, and on his way for a doctor is seized by a wretch in the garb of a policeman, carried to a watch-house, and, without friends or money, is sent next day to the work-house. A colored man has a store containing a heavy stock of goods; it takes fire in the night, and his sons start for the rescue of their property, are seized by a relentless officer, and held, as in the other case, till morning at police head-quarters. These are not imaginary cases, and yet this was a mild restraint compared with many others found in the corporation ordinances of all three cities.

It will, however, be seen that the ordinances of Washington were less stringent in their restraints upon the assembling of colored people than those of Alexandria and Georgetown, and that they were less severe in Alexandria while that city was in the District than in Georgetown. This is peculiarly surprising from the fact that while the laws of Virginia were absolutely prohibitory of education to every class of its colored population, the statutes of Maryland contain not a word of positive prohibition even against *teaching slaves*.

THE DISENTHRALMENT.

Thus stood this barbarous, execrable system of tyrannical legislation in the District when the Moloch of slavery marshalled its forces to overthrow the best government that human wisdom had ever devised. Under the operation of these hateful and inhuman enactments the liberty of a free colored person was but a delusion. "A free colored or mulatto person" was not a free individual, neither in the spirit nor in the phraseology of this legislation, and

the change which the mere abolition of slavery in the District wrought in the condition of the bondmen was scarcely less than an aggravation of their miseries, while to those who were not slaves it brought no relief at all. General Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, who had carefully studied the history of this vile legislation, and with pain and indignant emotions witnessed the deplorable condition of its victims, was the foremost to engage in the work of emancipation. The earliest movement looking to the repealing and annulling of the black codes of the District after the rebellion opened was the introduction into the Senate, by Mr. Wilson, of a resolution "that all laws in force relating to the arrest of fugitives from service, and *all laws concerning persons of color within the District*, be referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia, and that the committee be instructed to consider the expediency of abolishing slavery in the District." The chairman of the committee was Mr. Grimes. On the 16th of December, 1861, twelve days after this resolution was offered, Mr. Wilson, apparently impatient with the delay of the committee, introduced a bill to abolish slavery in the District, and on the 24th of February, 1862, brought in a bill to abrogate and annul the black codes, which he very appropriately affirmed to be only a measure following up the bill abolishing slavery in the District.

When these two measures were under discussion in the Senate, in March, 1862, General Wilson, on the 25th of that month, addressed that body in an elaborate and powerful speech in their favor, reviewing the black codes with indignant and impressive eloquence. After declaring that these infamous codes had outraged the moral sense of the American people; that the fame of the nation had been soiled and dimmed by the deeds of cruelty perpetrated in the interests of slavery in its capital, he breaks forth in language forcible, feeling, and just, as follows:

"In what age of the world, in what land under the whole heavens, can you find any enactment of equal atrocity to this iniquitous and profligate statute; this legal presumption that color is evidence that a man made in the image of God is an absconding slave? This monstrous doctrine, abhorrent to every manly impulse of the heart, to every Christian sentiment of the soul, to every deduction of human reason, which the refined and Christian people of America have upheld for two generations, which the corporation of Washington enacted into an imperative ordinance, has borne its legitimate fruits of injustice and inhumanity, of dishonor and shame." In relation to the fact that "the oath of the black man afforded no protection whatever to his property, to the fruits of his toil, to the personal rights of himself, his wife, his children, or his race," he said: "Although the black man is thus mute and dumb before the judicial tribunals of the capital of Christian America, his wrongs we have not righted here will go up to a higher tribunal, where the oath of the proscribed negro is heard, and his story registered by the pen of the recording angel. * * * These colonial statutes of Maryland, reaffirmed by Congress in 1801; these ordinances of Washington and Georgetown, sanctioned in advance by the authority of the federal government, stand this day unrepealed. Such laws and ordinances should not be permitted longer to insult the reason, pervert the moral sense, or offend the taste of the people of America. Any people mindful of the decencies of life would not longer permit such enactments to linger before the eye of civilized man."

The denunciation of these measures by members who had been familiar with slavery all their lives was exceedingly violent, and to the coarse exclamation of one of these senators, "Why do you not go out into this city and hunt up the blackest, greasiest, fattest old negro wench you can find, and lead her to the altar of Hymen?" Senator Harlan was provoked to reply in these words:

"I regret very much that senators depart so far from the proprieties, as I consider it, of this chamber, as to make the allusions they do. It is done merely to stimulate a prejudice which exists against a race already trampled under foot. I refer to the allusions to white people embracing colored people as their brethren, and the invitations by senators to white men and white women to marry colored people. Now, sir, if we were to descend into an investigation of the facts on that subject, it would bring the blush to the cheeks of some of these gentlemen. I once had occasion to direct the attention of the Senate to an illustrious example from the State of the senator who inquired if 'any of us would marry a

greasy old wench.' It is history that an illustrious citizen of his State, who once occupied officially the chair that you, sir, now sit in, lived notoriously and publicly with a negro wench, and raised children by her. * * * I refer to a gentleman who held the second office in the gift of the American people; and I never yet have heard a senator on this floor denounce the conduct and the association of that illustrious citizen of our country. I know of a family of colored or mulatto children—the children, too, of a gentleman who very recently occupied a seat on the other side of the chamber—who are now at school in Ohio; yes, sir, the children of a senator who very recently (not to exceed a year) occupied a seat on this floor, a senator from a slave State."

The allusion in the first of these cases was to Richard M. Johnson, who, it is well known, brought a colored woman with him when he came here as senator from Kentucky. It is due Mr. Johnson to say that he acknowledged his children, educated them, and left them free. The senator from Delaware might also have been reminded of a decision made in 1838 by the highest legal tribunal of his State, declaring that a *father cannot hold his child as a slave*. "We ought not," says the court in Tindal *vs.* Hudson, (1838, 2d Harrington, 441,) "to recognize the right of a father to hold his own children in slavery. Humanity forbids it. The natural rights and obligations of a father are paramount to the acquired rights of the master." The second allusion made by Mr. Harlan was to Senator Hemphill, of Texas, and the school referred to was the Wilberforce University, at Xenia, Ohio, founded by the Cincinnati conference of the Methodist Episcopal church "for the special benefit of colored youth;" but in 1863 transferred to the African Methodist Episcopal church, and Bishop D. A. Payne made president. "While under the care of the Cincinnati conference it was supported," the annual report says, "mainly by southern slaveholders, who *sent their children* there to be educated." The following brief statement was recently made by an officer of that institution:

"Senator Hemphill came to Wilberforce University late in the autumn of 1859, having with him three children, a lad of about 18, and two girls, of about 12 and 10 years of age. The lad, who was evidently his son, he took to Washington. His two daughters, Theodora and Henrietta, remained with us until 1862, when the pressure of the civil war constrained the trustees to suspend the operations of the institution, and they went to Cincinnati, where Henrietta (the younger) died of consumption. Theodora was, at the last time we heard of her, living in Cincinnati. The young ladies were both beautiful. Their complexion proclaimed their mother to have been a black woman. She died before they were brought to Wilberforce. They were well supported by Senator Hemphill, who kept up his correspondence with them, both by letters and presents, till he left Washington to perform his part in the drama of the rebellion. The last time we heard from their brother he wrote to me from California touching the condition and wants of his sisters."

The recital of the black laws of this District which has been made in these pages furnishes ample reason for the solicitude which was manifested by "the slaves, free negroes, and mulatto persons," when the above bills were under discussion, and when the bill abolishing slavery in the District became a law, April 16, 1862, all classes of the colored people, bond and free, gave expression to their sense of gratitude by assembling in their churches and offering up homage to God for the great deliverance; and when the black codes were, thirty-five days subsequently, swept into the receptacle of the wretched things that were, the feeling of relief and thankfulness was hardly less deep and universal. The mode in which this measure was accomplished was interesting.

On the 29th of April, 1862, Mr. Grimes introduced into the Senate a bill providing for the education of colored children in the city of Washington; and on the 30th of the same month, when the subject was under discussion in the Senate, General Wilson moved to amend the bill by adding the following section:

"SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That all persons of color in the District of Columbia, or in the corporate limits of the cities of Washington and Georgetown, shall be subject and amenable to the same laws and ordinances to which free white persons are or may be subject or amenable; that they shall be tried for any offences against the laws in the same manner as free whites are, or may be tried for the same offences; and that upon being legally convicted of any crime or offence against any law or ordinance, such persons of color shall be liable to

the same penalty or punishment, and no other, as would be imposed or inflicted upon free white persons for the same crime or offence; and all acts or parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed."

The object of the bill, which was simply to secure to the colored people of the District the exclusive use of the tax levied upon their property, for the education of their children, failed, as has been seen in a previous part of this history, by reason of the fact that the municipal authorities, in whose hands the execution of the law was reposed, were hostile to its humane and just designs. This amendment, however, did its work promptly and effectually in all particulars. In support of his amendment, after alluding to the odious old laws of Maryland and of Washington and Georgetown, which were admitted by everybody to be very oppressive to the colored people, he said: "As we are now dealing with their educational interests, I think we may as well at the same time relieve them of these oppressive laws, and put them, so far as crime is concerned, and so far as offences against the laws are concerned, upon the same footing, and have them tried in the same manner and subject them to the same punishment as the rest of our people." The bill, as amended, passed the Senate May 9, and, reported by E. H. Rollins, of New Hampshire, from the House District Committee, passed that body and received the approval of the President May 21, 1862, as already stated. The colored people of this District, who are sensible of the great practical service which Mr. Wilson has in many ways done them here and in the country at large, have repeatedly, on public occasions, since this bill became a law, signified their profound gratitude for this release, by specially designating this measure in connection with the author's name.

There was a singular fitness, as has been intimated, in the mode by which this great deliverance was consummated. It had been the chief and essential idea of all this odious and barbarous legislation to shut its unhappy victims out from every highway and by-way of learning, to put out the eye of the understanding, and to doom a whole race, made in the image of God and endowed with immortal longings for knowledge, to brutal and besotted ignorance. It was, therefore, a just and signal providence which made the very cause of education, against which these infamous enactments had been formed, the avenging instrument in the destruction of the accursed system. The circumstance that this was the first measure for the education of the colored race ever enacted by Congress renders this providential coincidence still more striking.

Negro testimony.—The original bill for the abolition of slavery, which, introduced into the Senate December 16, 1861, became a law May 16, 1862, contained a provision securing to the person claimed to owe service or labor the right to testify before the commissioners who were to be appointed under the law. This provision was expanded by an amendment incorporated into the bill on motion of Mr. Sumner, April 3, 1862, which empowered the commissioners to take testimony "without the exclusion of witnesses on account of color;" "to assess the sum to be paid for each slave claimed to owe service or labor: to examine and take the testimony, in the pending cases, *of colored witnesses, free or slave.*" These were the initial steps which resulted, in July following, in the full recognition of the rights of the colored people in the matter of their testimony before the legal tribunals of the District. On the 7th of July Senator Wilson's supplementary bill for the release of certain persons held to labor or service in the District of Columbia was passed, and approved on the 12th, having been amended, on motion of Mr. Sumner, by adding as a new section: "*That in all judicial proceedings in the District of Columbia there shall be no exclusion of any witness on account of color.*" This just measure was followed up by Mr. Sumner, who, on the 25th of June, 1864, moved an amendment to the civil appropriation bill, by adding "that in the *courts of the United States* there shall be no exclusion of any witness on account of color." On the 2d of July, 1864, this bill, thus amended, became a law, and since then no distinction on account of color has been recognized in the federal courts. It remains for the just people of the American nation, by constitutional amendment, to extend this principle to every State tribunal of the land.

Rights of colored people in the cars.—Mr. Sumner persistently followed up his efforts to secure to the colored people the privileges in the District which reason and humanity alike

dictated as their due. In the Senate, February 27, 1863, on his motion, an amendment to the House bill to extend the charter of the Washington and Alexandria Railroad Company was added, providing "that no person shall be excluded from the cars on account of color," and this became a law March 3, 1863. On the 16th of March, 1864, Mr. Sumner moved an amendment to the bill, then before the Senate, incorporating the Metropolitan Railroad Company: "That there shall be no regulation excluding *any* persons from *any* car on account of color," and this bill, with the amendment, was passed and approved July 1, 1864.

But the Washington and Georgetown railroad was not yet reached. This road was chartered May 17, 1862, and not being able to exclude colored people from the cars, had set aside certain cars, so designated by a sign on the outside, for such persons. It was in one of these placarded cars that the writer had the pleasure, in the autumn of 1863, of seeing Charles Sumner and Henry W. Longfellow riding up the avenue. In June, 1864, a bill being before the Senate to amend the bill incorporating the above-named railroad, Mr. Sumner moved to add a provision corresponding to the one in the original charter of the Metropolitan railroad, viz: "That there shall be *no exclusion* of *any person* from *any* car on account of color." The amendment was carried in the Senate June 21 by the close vote of 17 to 16, but was lost in the controversy between the two branches of Congress; but February 4, 1865, a similar provision, though of still wider application, was moved by Mr. Sumner in committee of the whole as a separate section, to be added to a bill amendatory of the charter of the Metropolitan railroad. The motion was lost, 20 to 19. The bill, with certain other amendments, was then passed, and thus coming before the Senate, Mr. Sumner, with his wonted promptness and parliamentary skill, renewed his motion, and two days after the vote was reached and the amendment adopted—yeas 26, noes 10. The section reads as follows, and went into effect March 3, 1865:

"SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the provision prohibiting any exclusion from any car on account of color, already applicable to the Metropolitan railroad, is hereby extended to every other railroad in the District of Columbia." Approved March 3, 1865.

These amendments produced animated debates in both houses, especially when before them March 17, 1864. Mr. Saulsbury, Mr. Powell, Mr. Hendricks, and Mr. Willey, in the Senate, being very determined and bitter in their opposition, while Mr. Sumner, Mr. Wilson, Mr. Morrill, of Maine, and Mr. Grimes supported them with rare force of argument. Mr. Morrill's speech was elaborate in discussion and eloquent in language. Mr. Reverdy Johnson, like Mr. Trumbull and some others, though in favor of the object of the amendment, at first voted against it as unnecessary, maintaining in a speech of much power the right of a colored person, under the legal guarantees already secured, to ride in any railroad car in the District, and in that speech he also replied to Senator Saulsbury in a defence of the colored race in character and mental ability. He finally gave his vote for the amendment. Mr. Conness, of California, also objected to the provision as unnecessary, it being included, as he said, in a bill already before the Senate. Mr. Sumner replied, "I am in favor of getting what I can as soon as I can, and not postponing to an indefinite future."

Colored mail carriers.—The law prohibiting persons of color from carrying the mails was passed and approved March 3, 1825, and, as Mr. Wickliffe stated in the discussion on the motion for its repeal, "was originally enacted to exclude some men in the south who were in the habit of obtaining mail contracts and employing their negroes to drive their stages and carry the mails." The act reads as follows:

"That no other than a free white person shall be employed in conveying the mail, and any contractor who shall employ or permit any other than a free white man to convey the mail shall for every offence incur a penalty of $20."

The following facts as to the origin of this offensive legislation make the subject appropriate to this history. When Gideon Granger was Postmaster General, in 1802, he wrote a letter to James Jackson, senator from Georgia, in which, after stating that "an objection exists against employing negroes or people of color in transporting the public mails of a nature too delicate to engraft into a report which may become public," he proceeds to explain as follows:

"The most active and intelligent negroes are employed as post riders. These are the

most ready to learn and the most able to execute. By travelling from day to day and hourly mixing they must, they will, acquire information. *They will learn that a man's rights do not depend on his color.* They will in time become teachers to their brethren. They become acquainted with each other on the line. Whenever the body or a portion of them wish to act they are an organized corps, circulating our intelligence openly, their own privately."

The words placed in italics assert a fact which it was the purpose of every black law and ordinance to subvert, the law under consideration being peculiarly of that nature. On the 18th of March, 1862, Mr. Sumner introduced a bill in the Senate providing "that from and after its passage *no person by reason of color* should be disqualified from employment in carrying the mails." It was referred to the Committee on Post Offices and Post Roads, and on March 27, 1862, it was reported back by Mr. Collamer without amendment, passing the Senate April 10 by a very large majority, but was defeated in the House by an equally decided vote. Mr. Colfax, May 20, 1862, reported it from the House Post Office Committee, with the recommendation that it do not pass. In assigning reasons for the action of the committee, he said: "It will throw open the business of mail contracting, and of thus becoming officers of the Post Office Department, not only to blacks, but also to the Indian tribes, civilized and uncivilized, and to the Chinese, who have come in such large numbers to the Pacific coast."

This argument, the best that could be urged, was sufficient—astonishing now to contemplate—to carry the House two to one against the bill. On the 18th of January, 1864, however, Mr. Sumner again introduced the subject to the Senate, and Mr. Collamer reported the old bill with an amendment, providing "that in the courts of the United States there shall be *no exclusion of any witness* on account of color, it being necessary for the protection of the mail service that all mail carriers should be allowed to testify in the federal courts. The bill met with bitter opposition from the pro-slavery party, opposed also by some of the true friends of freedom, but passed and was approved March 3, 1865, and henceforth color is no disqualification in carrying the mails.

To secure, still more thoroughly, to the colored population of the District full political rights, the present Congress passed the following act, which was approved by President Grant March 18, 1869:

AN ACT for the further security of equal rights in the District of Columbia.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the word "white," wherever it occurs in the laws relating to the District of Columbia, or in the charter or ordinances of the cities of Washington or Georgetown, and operates as a limitation on the right of any elector of such District, or of either of the cities, to hold any office or to be selected and to serve as a juror, be, and the same is hereby, repealed, and it shall be unlawful for any person or officer to enforce or attempt to enforce such limitation after the passage of this act.

This bill had twice before passed both houses, first in July, 1867, and again in December of the same year; but in both cases failed to receive President Johnson's signature.

Thus was consummated by bold and faithful statesmen the series of measures which have cleared away the manifold disabilities and execrable exactions of the black codes that for more than sixty years had disgraced this District and shed infamy upon the whole country.

ALABAMA.

With the exception of a small portion of her territory, which belonged to Florida, Alabama was originally within the jurisdiction of Georgia, but became a part of the territory of Mississippi in 1800, and an independent State in 1820, her constitution having been adopted in 1819, by the provisions of which the privileges of citizenship and education were confined to the white population only. Prior to the organization of the State government, the territorial legislation of Mississippi respecting the unlawful meeting of slaves, and trading with or by them, included Alabama.

There was little State legislation relating to the colored people previous to the act of 1832, which provided that "Any person or persons who shall attempt to teach any free person of color or slave to spell, read, or write, shall, upon conviction thereof by indictment, be fined in a sum not less than $250, nor more than $500." This act also prohibited with severe penalties, by flogging, "any free negro or person of color" from being in company with any slaves without written permission from the owner or overseer of such slaves; it also prohibited the assembling of more than five male slaves at any place off the plantation to which they belonged; but nothing in the act was to be considered as forbidding attendance at places of public worship held by white persons. No slave or free person of color was permitted to "preach, exhort, or harangue any slave or slaves or free persons of color, except in the presence of five respectable slave-holders," or unless the person preaching was licensed by some regular body of professing Christians in the neighborhood, to whose society or church the negroes addressed properly belonged.

In 1833, the mayor and aldermen of the city of Mobile were authorized by law to grant licenses to such persons as they might deem suitable, to instruct for limited periods the free colored creole children within the city and in the counties of Mobile and Baldwin, who were the descendants of colored creoles residing in said city and counties in April 1803; provided, that said children first received permission to be taught from the mayor and aldermen, and had their names recorded in a book kept for that purpose. This was done, as set forth in the preamble to the law, because there were many colored creoles there whose ancestors, under the treaty between France and the United States, in 1803, had the rights and privileges of citizens of the United States secured to them; and because these creoles had conducted with uniform propriety, and were anxious that their children should be educated.

The constitution adopted September 30, 1865, provides that the general assembly shall, from time to time, make necessary and proper laws for the encouragement of schools and education; take proper measures to preserve from waste or damage any lands granted by the United States for the use of schools, and apply the funds derived from them to that object; place the school fund under the control and management of a superintendent of education, requiring such a superintendent to be appointed for the whole State; provide for a county superintendent of free public schools in each county, and for the appointment of three trustees of free public schools in each township.

In accordance with the provisions of the constitution, the revised code, adopted February 19, 1867, provides that "every child between the ages of six and twenty years shall be entitled to admission into and instruction in any of the free public schools of the township in which he or she resides, or to any school in any adjacent township." Color is not mentioned in the chapter relating to the public school system.

SCHOOLS FOR THE FREEDMEN SINCE 1864.

Under the auspices of the assistant commissioner for the Freedmen's Bureau, for the State of Alabama, (General Swayne,) a great amount of local good feeling was enlisted in that State towards establishing schools for the colored population. School buildings were provided and kept in repair at the expense of the Freedmen's Bureau. By a bill introduced into the legislature in 1867, to establish a common school system, it was provided that the board of directors of each township in the State should "establish separate schools for the

education of negro and mulatto children, and persons of African descent between the ages of six and twenty-one years, whenever as many as thirty pupils in sufficient proximity for school purposes claim the privilege of public instruction, and the fund for that purpose is sufficient to support a school for four months in the year." This movement, on the part of the citizens and legislature of Alabama, was seconded by northern societies, and schools were opened particularly at Mobile, Montgonery, Huntsville and other places, in the northern part of the State. Among the societies thus giving aid may be mentioned the American Missionary Association, the Freedmen's Aid Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and the American Freedmen's Union Commission, operating through its Pennsylvania, Cleveland, western and northwestern branches, the latter of which had 11 teachers in its employment in 1866. In order to train their beneficiaries up to a system of self-reliance and support, all of these schools in Alabama, while closing their doors to none, enforced the principle of requiring a small tuition fee from such as might be able to pay.

In this educational work the important duty of providing for the training of teachers has not been overlooked, and two normal schools have been established, one at Talladega and the other at Mobile.

THE TALLADEGA NORMAL SCHOOL.

This institution was opened in 1867, commencing its first session with 140 pupils, under the superintendence of Rev. H. E. Brown. By the aid of the government, a fine piece of property was procurred, consisting of 34 acres of land and a handsome three-story brick building, 100 feet long by 60 feet in width. This building was erected before the war for college purposes, at a cost of $23,000.

EMERSON INSTITUTE AT MOBILE.

The Emerson Institute is the name of the other school, which occupies a large brick edifice, with four acres of land, fronting upon Government street, in Mobile. This property was procured by the aid of the Freedmen's Bureau and the liberality of two gentlemen of Rockford, Illinois, in compliment to one of whom it received its name. The property was formerly the seat of the "Blue College," and is estimated to be worth more than $60,000. The institute is now conducted by a corps of able instructors, having under their charge more than 500 pupils, in rooms amply supplied with furniture of approved modern construction, and with a complete equipment of chemical and philosophical apparatus.

SWAYNE SCHOOL.

The Swayne school, Montgomery, so named in honor of General Swayne, was erected under the auspices of the American Missionary Association, and was dedicated April 21, 1869. This is a handsome edifice, three-stories in height, built by Henry Duncan in a thorough and workmanlike manner, and provided with convenient and ample means for ventilation by Isaac Frazier, both of whom are skillful colored mechanics. There are six recitation rooms, with modern seats, desks, and blackboards; and by the liberality of friends at the north an ample supply of outline maps, tablets, and other educational appliances have been provided, as well as an organ, costing $200. Here, in this neat and comfortable edifice the freed children of Montgomery find an agreeable change from "Fritz & Frazer's Trade House," where, within a few years past, they conned their lessons; or in earlier and darker days many of them may have been put up as merchandise for sale.

The following tables, compiled by Professor Vashon, exhibits the progress and condition of the schools for the colored population in Alabama from 1865 to 1868:

Number of schools, teachers, and scholars, 1865 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	......	......	13	......	......	15	....	....	817	....	......
1866	......	......	28	......	......	31	....	....	3,338	3,065	91
1867	122	53	175	126	24	150	4,373	5,426	9,799	8,123	82
1868	62	22	84	77	32	109	2,055	2,260	4,315	3,297	76

Studies and expenditures, 1867 *and* 1868.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	3,390	4,385	2,314	3,447	1,782	2,888	813	$2,974	$14,801	$17,775
1868	519	2,873	2,292	1,698	1,197	1,861	390	4,207	4,682	8,889

ARKANSAS.

The province ceded by France in 1803, under the general designation of Louisiana, was in in 1804 organized by Congress into two parts—the Territory of Orleans and the district of Louisiana. The latter embraced the country out of which was constituted in 1805 the Territory of Louisiana, which was again reorganized in 1812 into the Territory of Missouri, the southern part of which erected into a distinct jurisdiction as Arkansas Territory in 1819, and as a State in 1836, and another portion into the State of Missouri in 1821. The laws governing the colored population were nearly the same in both States. The first statute relating to them was passed by the governor and judges of the district of Indiana Territory in 1806, and provided that no slave should go from the plantation of his master, or other person with whom he lived, without a pass, under penalty of "stripes at the discretion of the justice of the peace;" and if found on any other plantation without leave in writing from his owner, it was lawful for the owner or overseer "to give or order such slave 10 lashes on his or her bare back for every such offence." It forbid the master, mistress, or overseer to suffer meetings of slaves alone for more than four hours at any one time, or to go abroad to trade, on penalty of $3 for each offence. All trading with slaves or allowing slaves to trade was forbidden under severe penalties. All assemblages of the slaves of different estates in the night or on Sunday, except at the church of white people, were forbidden.

The first act relating to slaves after Arkansas became a State was passed in 1838, in which their owners were authorized to permit slaves "to labor for themselves on Sunday, if such labor is done voluntarily by such slaves and without the coercion of the master, and for the sole use of the slave." As this was the only day allowed for such religious instruction as the slave could receive, this provision cannot be regarded as being beneficent. This act forbids any white persons, or free negro, being found in company of slaves at any unlawful meeting, on severe penalty for each offense. In 1843 all migration of free negroes and mulattoes into the State was forbidden; but no law is found on the statute book directly prohibiting teaching slaves or persons of African descent.

In the constitution adopted in 1836, all the privileges of citizenship were confined to the whites. In the constitution adopted in 1864, it is provided that "neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall hereafter exist in this State," and "that no act of the legislature prohibiting the education of any class of the inhabitants thereof shall have the force of law." In the constitution adopted by the people of the State, March 13, 1868, the language of that instrument recognizes no distinction in citizenship on account of color. The first section of article IX, relating to education, reads as follows:

"A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence among all classes being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the general assembly shall establish and maintain a system of free schools for the gratuitous instruction of all persons in this State between the ages of five and twenty-one years." * * *

In the "Act to establish and maintain a system of free common schools for the State of Arkansas," approved July, 23, 1868, the State board of education, (composed of the State and circuit superintendents) is directed "to make the necessary provisions for establishing separate schools for white and colored children and youth," and to adopt such other measures as shall be deemed expedient for carrying the system into effectual and uniform operation, and provide as nearly as possible for the education of every youth.

EDUCATION AND SCHOOLS FOR THE FREEDMEN SINCE 1864.

For reasons that will be apparent from the remarks that follow, fewer schools for colored persons have been established in Arkansas since 1864 than in any other of the formerly slave-holding States. Yet the educational work was commenced there while the war for the Union was still raging; and, from its commencement, it has been prosecuted in such a spirit as promises the most satisfactory results in the future. In the third year of the rebellion, several thousands of persons liberated by President Lincoln's proclamation of freedom had sought protection within the military lines of the government, and were congregated in camps at Helena, Pine Bluff, Little Rock, and other points within the limits of this State. Destitute of all the comforts and necessaries of life, they immediately aroused the sympathy of benevolent individuals throughout the northwestern portion of the country. Associations for the relief of their physical wants were speedily formed; but these soon discovered that the mental and moral needs of these unhappy creatures were fully as pressing as their hunger and nakedness. To break through the barriers raised by legislation in the interest of the slave power, and carry food to those starving souls as well as to their bodies, was an evident duty. In its performance, schools were established at these different cam ps; and self-denying men and women, braving the manifold perils of those unsettled times, willingly assumed their charge. Prominent among the philanthropists who labored in this section of the country were the Friends, constituting what is known as the Indiana Yearly Meeting. First to enter upon this Christian work, they have at no time since relaxed their generous exertions; and they now have the satisfaction of seeing them rewarded by the establishment at Little Rock and elsewhere of several graded schools, which, in their appointments and in the improvement made by their pupils, will compare favorably with those of any other localities.

At the outset, these schools were, as might naturally be expected, very deficient in everything needful for the pleasant pursuit of learning. Within the rudely-constructed shanty which served as the school-room, the only books usually found were a few tattered primers, spelling-books, and Testaments, which had already done good service for other children in far happier circumstances. But for this dearth of facilities in the acquisition of knowledge the patient assiduity of teacher and the earnest application of pupils made ample amends; so that, in spite of all obstacles, an astonishing progress in the primary studies was a frequent, indeed an ordinary, result. It was not long, however, before the kindness of northern friends supplied the wants of those humble establishments; and, by the time that these eager scholars were ready for the use of slates, maps, and appropriate books in the different branches of learning, these articles were furnished to them quite liberally. The number of these schools, too, was increased by a timely measure on the part of the government. In ts efforts to restore the industrial interests of the south, and to regulate the relations between

employers and the emancipated laborers, it established a system by which abandoned plantations were leased out upon certain conditions, one of which required, for every lot of 500 acres so leased, the employment of at least one teacher for the freedmen who cultivated them.

The colored people thus benefited showed themselves deserving of the interest taken in their behalf by the willingness which they manifested to do everything in their power for the support of these schools. Indeed it will be remembered to their credit that they established the first free schools that ever were in Arkansas. This they did at Little Rock, where, after paying tuition for a short time, they formed themselves into an educational association, paid by subscription the salaries of the teachers, and made their schools free.

Notwithstanding this willingness on the part of the freed people of Arkansas to co-operate with those desirous of educating them, that State has fared somewhat indifferently in the matter of schools, from the fact that it has no important commercial centers, and that, from a want of good roads, its interior is difficult of access. These circumstances render it an uninviting field for teachers. Still, quite a number of these have seconded the efforts made by the educational officers of the Freedmen's Bureau to establish schools, and have cheerfully endured the dangers and fatigues of travel, in going even as far as the Red River country in the extreme southwestern part of the State, by almost impassable roads and in the rudest conveyances, to enter upon their duties. The planters of Arkansas, too, have quite generally exhibited a commendable friendliness towards any movements touching the instruction of their laboring hands, by inviting the establishment of schools in their localities, and engaging to provide board and suitable accommodations for teachers who might come among them. Under these favorable circumstances, and through the aid of the congressional appropriation for building schools, nearly $30,000 of which was allotted to Arkansas, quite an increased activity marked educational affairs there during 1867 and 1868. This was in some measure checked by political disturbances, and by the privations incident to a succession of scanty harvests; but it is to be hoped that with the prevalence of good order, and the return of prosperity, the schools for colored people in Arkansas will again begin to increase in number and to improve in condition.

The following tables, prepared by Prof. Vashon, exhibit the progress of the schools from 1866 to 1868:

Number of schools, teachers, and scholars, 1866 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1866	......	......	30	23	5	28	....	....	1,584	1,209	......
1867	25	10	35	33	7	40	950	1,042	1,992	1,625	81
1868	22	5	27	31	12	43	715	822	1,537	1,225	79

Distribution of studies and expenditures.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	304	1,197	494	629	347	805	128	$2,987	$7,982	$10,969
1868	201	811	573	787	386	783	55	3,415	7,232	10,647

CALIFORNIA.

By the census of 1860 the population of California was 379,994, of which number 4,086 were free colored.

In the constitution of California, adopted in 1849, prior to its admission into the Union as a State in 1850, the right of suffrage is limited to white male citizens, but the establishment of slavery or involuntary servitude, except for crime, is prohibited.

In the revised school law, approved March 24, 1866, the following sections apply to colored children:

SEC. 57. Children of African or Mongolian descent, and Indian children not living under the care of white persons, shall not be admitted into public schools, except as provided in this act: *Provided*, That, upon the written application of the parents or guardians of at least 10 such children to any board of trustees or board of education, a separate school shall be established for the education of such children, and the education of a less number may be provided for by the trustees in any other manner.

SEC. 58. When there shall be in any district any number of children, other than white children, whose education can be provided for in no other way, the trustees, by a majority vote, may permit such children to attend school for white children: *Provided*, That a majority of the parents of the children attending such school make no objection, in writing, to be filed with the board of trustees.

SEC. 59. The same laws, rules, and regulations which apply to schools for white children shall apply to schools for colored children.

The superintendent of public instruction, Hon. John Swett, in his annual report for 1867, reports as follows:

Number of negro children in the State between 5 and 16 years of age	709
Number of separate schools	16
Number of pupils in attendance	400

"The people of the State are decidedly in favor of separate schools for colored children."

CONNECTICUT.

In 1860 the free colored population of Connecticut was 8,627, out of a total of 460,147 inhabitants.

The constitution of 1818 limits the privilege of the elector to white male citizens, but the public schools of the State have never been restricted to any class on account of color, although in the city of Hartford, in 1830, a separate school was established under legislative permission granted on application made by the school committee at the request of the colored people of the city.

This example was followed in two or three towns, but the system of separate schools, under special legislation or the action of school committees, was broken up by the legislature in 1868, and the old practice of "schools good enough for all" revived and established by law.

The legislature in 1833, under the lead of a few influential men, passed a law which illustrated the extent to which the prejudices of the community could be enlisted against the colored people, but this law was repealed in 1838, having accomplished its object in a manner no way creditable to the State.

PRUDENCE CRANDALL AND THE CANTERBURY SCHOOL.

The following account of the efforts made by Miss Prudence Crandall, in the town of Canterbury, to establish a boarding and day school for young women of African descent, is abridged from the "Recollections of the Anti-Slavery Conflict," by Rev. Samuel J. May:

In the summer of 1832, Miss Prudence Crandall, an excellent, well-educated Quaker young lady, who had gained considerable reputation as a teacher in the neighboring town of Plainfield, purchased, at the solicitation of a number of families in the village of Canterbury, Connecticut, a commodious house in that village, for the purpose of establishing a boarding and day school for young ladies, in order that they might receive instruction in higher branches than were taught in the public district school. Her school was well con-

ducted, but was interrupted early in 1833, in this wise: Not far from the village a worthy colored man was living, by the name of Harris, the owner of a good farm, and in comfortable circumstances. His daughter Sarah, a bright girl, 17 years of age, had passed with credit through the public school of the district in which she lived, and was anxious to acquire a better education, to qualify herself to become a teacher of the colored people. She applied to Miss Crandall for admission to her school. Miss Crandall hesitated, for prudential reasons, to admit a colored person among her pupils; but Sarah was a young lady of pleasing appearance and manners, well known to many of Miss Crandall's present pupils, having been their classmate in the district school, and was, moreover, a virtuous, pious girl, and a member of the church in Canterbury. No objection could be made to her admission except on account of her complexion, and Miss Crandall decided to receive her as a pupil. No objection was made by the other pupils, but in a few days the parents of some of them called on Miss Crandall and remonstrated; and although Miss Crandall pressed upon their consideration the eager desire of Sarah for knowledge and culture and the good use she wished to make of her education, her excellent character, and her being an accepted member of the same Christian church to which they belonged, they were too much prejudiced to listen to any arguments—"they would not have it said that their daughters went to school with a nigger girl." It was urged that if Sarah was not dismissed, the white pupils would be withdrawn; but although the fond hopes of success for an institution which she had established at the risk of all her property, and by incurring a debt of several hundred dollars, seemed to be doomed to disappointment, she decided not to yield to the demand for the dismissal of Sarah; and on the 2d day of March, 1833, she advertised in the Liberator that on the first Monday in April her school would be open for "young ladies and little misses of color." Her determination having become known, a fierce indignation was kindled and fanned by prominent people of the village, and pervaded the town. In this juncture, the Rev. Samuel J. May, of the neighboring town of Brooklyn, addressed her a letter of sympathy, expressing his readiness to assist her to the extent of his power, and was present at the town meeting held on the 9th of March, called for the express purpose of devising and adopting such measures as "would effectually avert the nuisance or speedily abate it if it should be brought into the village."

The friends of Miss Crandall were authorized by her to state to the moderator of the town meeting that she would give up her house, which was one of the most conspicuous in the village, and not wholly paid for, if those who were opposed to her school being there would take the property off her hands at the price for which she had purchased it, and which was deemed a reasonable one, and allow her time to procure another house in a more retired part of the town.

The town meeting was held in the meeting-house, which, though capable of holding a thousand people, was crowded throughout to its utmost capacity. After the warning for the meeting had been read, resolutions were introduced in which were set forth the disgrace and damage that would be brought upon the town if a school for colored girls should be set up there, protesting emphatically against the impending evil, and appointing the civil authority and selectmen a committee to wait upon "the person contemplating the establishment of said school and persuade her, if possible, to abandon the project."

The resolutions were advocated by Rufus Adams, esq., and Hon. Andrew T. Judson, who was then the most prominent man of the town, and a leading politician in the State, and much talked of as the democratic candidate for governor; and was a representative in Congress from 1835 to 1839, when he was elected judge of the United States district court, which position he held until his death in 1853, adjudicating, among other causes, the libel of the Amistad and the 54 Africans on board. After his address on this occasion, Mr. May, in company with Mr. Arnold Buffum, a lecturing agent of the New England Anti-Slavery Society, applied for permission to speak in behalf of Miss Crandall but their application was violently opposed, and the resolutions being adopted, the meeting was declared, by the moderator, adjourned.

Mr. May at once stepped upon the seat where he had been sitting and rapidly vindicated Miss Crandall, replying to some of the misstatements as to her purposes and the character of her

expected pupils, when he gave way to Mr. Buffum, who had spoken scarcely five minutes before the trustees of the church ordered the house to be vacated and the doors to be shut. There was then no alternative but to yield.

Two days afterwards Mr. Judson called on Mr. May, with whom he had been on terms of a pleasant acquaintance, not to say of friendship, and expressed regret that he had applied certain epithets to him; and went on to speak of the disastrous effect on the village from the establishment of "a school for nigger girls." Mr. May replied that his purpose was, if he had been allowed to do so, to state at the town meeting Miss Crandall's proposition to sell her house in the village at its fair valuation, and retire to some other part of the town. To this Mr. Judson responded: "Mr. May, we are not merely opposed to the establishment of that school in Canterbury, we mean there shall not be such a school set up anywhere in the State."

Mr. Judson continued, declaring that the colored people could never rise from their menial condition in our country, and ought not to be permitted to rise here; that they were an inferior race and should not be recognized as the equals of the whites; that they should be sent back to Africa, and improve themselves there, and civilize and christianize the natives. To this Mr. May replied that there never would be fewer colored people in this country than there were then; that it was unjust to drive them out of the country; that we must accord to them their rights or incur the loss of our own; that education was the primal, fundamental right of all the children of men; and that Connecticut was the last place where this should be denied.

The conversation was continued in a similar strain, in the course of which Mr. Judson declared with warmth: "That nigger school shall never be allowed in Canterbury, nor in any town of this State;" and he avowed his determination to secure the passage of a law by the legislature then in session, forbidding the institution of such a school in any part of the State.

Undismayed by the opposition and the threatened violence of her neighbors, Miss Crandall received early in April 15 or 20 colored young ladies and misses from Philadelphia, New York, Providence, and Boston; and the annoyances of her persecutors at once commenced; all accommodations at the stores in Canterbury being denied her, her pupils being insulted whenever they appeared on the streets, the doors and doorsteps of her house being besmeared, and her well filled with filth; under all of which, both she and her pupils remained firm. Among other means used to intimidate, an attempt was made to drive away those innocent girls by a process under the obsolete vagrant law, which provided that the selectmen of any town might warn any person, not an inhabitant of the State, to depart forthwith, demanding $1 67 for every week he or she remained after receiving such warning; and in case the fine was not paid and the person did not depart before the expiration of ten days after being sentenced, *then he or she should be whipped on the naked body not exceeding ten stripes.*

A warrant to that effect was actually served upon Eliza Ann Hammond, a fine girl from Providence, aged 17 years; but it was finally abandoned, and another method was resorted to, most disgraceful to the State as well as the town. Foiled in their attempts to frighten away Miss Crandall's pupils by their proceedings under the obsolete "pauper and vagrant law," Mr. Judson and those who acted with him pressed upon the legislature, then in session, a demand for the enactment of a law which should enable them to accomplish their purpose; and in that bad purpose they succeeded, by securing the following enactment, on the 24th of May, 1833, known as the "*black law.*"

"Whereas attempts have been made to establish literary institutions in this State for the instruction of colored persons belonging to other States and countries, which would tend to the great increase of the colored population of the State, and thereby to the injury of the people: Therefore,

"*Be it enacted, &c.*, That no person shall set up or establish in this State any school, academy, or other literary institution for the instruction or education of colored persons, who are not inhabitants of this State, or harbor or board, for the purpose of attending or being taught or instructed in any such school, academy, or literary institution, any colored person who is not an inhabitant of any town in this State, without the consent in writing, first obtained, of a majority of the civil authority, and also of the selectmen of the town in which such school, academy, or literary institution is situated, &c.

"And each and every person who shall knowingly do any act forbidden as aforesaid, or shall be aiding or assisting therein, shall for the first offense forfeit and pay to the treasurer of this State a fine of $100, and for the second offense $200, and so double for every offense of which he or she shall be convicted; and all informing officers are required to make due presentment of all breaches of this act."

On the receipt of the tidings of the passage of this law, the people of Canterbury were wild with exultation; the bells were rung and a cannon was fired to manifest the joy. On the 27th of June Miss Crandall was arrested and arraigned before Justices Adams and Bacon, two of those who had been the earnest opponents of her enterprise; and the result being redetermined, the trial was of course brief, and Miss Crandall was "committed" to take her trial at the next session of the supreme court at Brooklyn, in August. A messenger was at once dispatched by the party opposed to Miss Crandall to Brooklyn to inform Mr. May, as her friend, of the result of the trial, stating that she was in the hands of the sheriff, and would be put in jail unless he or some of her friends would "give bonds" for her in a certain sum.

The denouement may be related most appropriately in the language of Mr. May:

"I calmly told the messenger that there were gentlemen enough in Canterbury whose bond for that amount would be as good or better than mine, and I should leave it for them to do Miss Crandall that favor." 'But,' said the young man, 'are you not her friend?' 'Certainly,' I replied, 'too sincerely her friend to give relief to her enemies in their present embarrassment, and I trust you will not find any one of her friends, or the patrons of her school, who will step forward to help them any more than myself.' 'But, sir,' he cried, 'do you mean to allow her to be put in jail?' 'Most certainly,' was my answer, 'if her persecutors are unwise enough to let such an outrage be committed.' He turned from me in blank surprise, and hurried back to tell Mr. Judson and the justices of his ill success.

"A few days before, when I first heard of the passage of the law, I had visited Miss Crandall with my friend, Mr. George W. Benson, and advised with her as to the course she and her friends ought to pursue when she should be brought to trial. She appreciated at once and fully the importance of leaving her persecutors to show to the world how base they were, and how atrocious was the law they had induced the legislature to enact—a law, by the force of which a woman might be fined and imprisoned as a felon in the State of Connecticut for giving instruction to colored girls. She agreed that it would be best for us to leave her in the hands of those with whom the law originated, hoping that, in their madness, they would show forth all their hideous features.

"Mr. Benson and I, therefore, went diligently around to all who he knew were friendly to Miss Crandall and her school, and counseled them by no means to give bonds to keep her from imprisonment, because nothing would expose so fully to the public the egregious wickedness of the law and the virulence of her persecutors as the fact that they had thrust her into jail.

"When I found that her resolution was equal to the trial which seemed to be impending, that she was ready to brave and to bear meekly the worst treatment that her enemies would venture to subject her to, I made all the arrangements for her comfort that were practicable in our prison. It fortunately happened that the most suitable room, unoccupied, was the one in which a man named Watkins had recently been confined for the murder of his wife, and out of which he had been taken and executed. This circumstance we foresaw would add not a little to the public detestation of the *black law*. The jailor, at my request, readily put the room in as nice order as was possible, and permitted me to substitute for the bedstead and mattress on which the murderer had slept, fresh and clean ones from my own house and Mr. Benson's.

"About 2 o'clock, p. m. another messenger came to inform me that the sheriff was on the way from Canterbury to the jail with Miss Crandall, and would imprison her unless her friends would give the required bail. Although in sympathy with Miss Crandall's persecutors, he saw clearly the disgrace that was about to be brought upon the State, and begged me and Mr. Benson to avert it. Of course we refused. I went to the jailor's house and met Miss Crandall on her arrival. We stepped aside. I said: 'If now you hesitate—if you dread the gloomy place so much as to wish to be saved from it, I will give bonds for you even now.' 'O, no,' she promptly replied, 'I am only afraid they will not put me in jail.

Their evident hesitation and embarrassment show plainly how much they deprecate the effect of this part of their folly, and therefore I am the more anxious that they should be exposed, if not caught in their own wicked devices.'

"We therefore returned with her to the sheriff and the company that surrounded him to await his final act. He was ashamed to do it. He knew it would cover the persecutors of Miss Crandall and the State of Connecticut with disgrace. He conferred with several about him, and delayed yet longer. Two gentlemen came and remonstrated with me in not very seemly terms: 'It would be a ——— shame, an eternal disgrace to the State, to have her put into jail—into the very room that Watkins had last occupied.'

"'Certainly, gentlemen,' I replied, 'and this you may prevent if you please.'

"'O!' they cried, 'we are not her friends; we are not in favor of her school; we don't want any more ——— niggers coming among us. It is your place to stand by Miss Crandall and help her now. You and your ——— abolition brethren have encouraged her to bring this nuisance into Canterbury, and it is ——— mean in you to desert her now.'

"I rejoined: 'She knows we have not deserted her, and do not intend to desert her. The law which her persecutors have persuaded our legislators to enact is an infamous one, worthy of the dark ages. It would be just as bad as it is whether we would give bonds for her or not. But the people generally will not so soon realize how bad, how wicked, how cruel a law it is unless we suffer her persecutors to inflict upon her all the penalties it prescribes. She is willing to bear them for the sake of the cause she has so nobly espoused. If you see fit to keep her from imprisonment in the cell of a murderer for having proffered the blessings of a good education to those who in our country need it most, you may do so; *we shall not.*'

"They turned from us in great wrath, words falling from their lips which I shall not repeat.

"The sun had descended nearly to the horizon; the shadows of night were beginning to fall around us. The sheriff could defer the dark deed no longer. With no little emotion, and with words of earnest deprecation, he gave that excellent, heroic, Christian young lady into the hands of the jailor, and she was led into the cell of Watkins. So soon as I had heard the bolts of her prison door turned in the lock and saw the key taken out, I bowed and said: 'The deed is done, completely done. It cannot be recalled. It has passed into the history of our nation and our age.' I went away with my steadfast friend, George W. Benson, assured that the legislators of the State had been guilty of a most unrighteous act, and that Miss Crandall's persecutors had also committed a great blunder; that they all would have much more reason to be ashamed of her imprisonment than she or her friends could ever have.

"The next day we gave the required bonds. Miss Crandall was released from the cell of the murderer, returned home, and quietly resumed the duties of her school until she should be summoned as a culprit into court, there to be tried by the infamous '*Black Law of Connecticut.*' And, as we expected, so soon as the evil tidings could be carried in that day, before Professor Morse had given to Rumor her telegraphic wings, it was known all over the country and the civilized world that an excellent young lady had been imprisoned as a criminal—yes, put into a murderer's cell—in the State of Connecticut, for opening a school for the instruction of colored girls. The comments that were made upon the deed in almost all the newspapers were far from grateful to the feelings of her persecutors. Even many who, under the same circumstances, would probably have acted as badly as Messrs. A. T. Judson & Co., denounced their procedure as "unchristian, inhuman, anti-democratic, base, mean."

On the 23d of August, 1833, the first trial of Miss Crandall was had in Brooklyn, the seat of the county of Windham, Hon. Joseph Eaton presiding at the county court.

The prosecution was conducted by Hon. A. T. Judson, Jonathan A. Welch, esq., and I. Bulkley, esq. Miss Crandall's counsel was Hon. Calvin Goddard, Hon. W. W. Elsworth, and Henry Strong, esq.

The judge, somewhat timidly, gave it as his opinion "that the law was constitutional and obligatory on the people of the State."

The jury, after an absence of several hours, returned into court not having agreed upon a verdict. They were instructed and sent out again, and again a third time, in vain; they

stated to the judge that there was no probability that they could ever agree. Seven were for conviction and five for acquittal, so they were discharged.

The second trial was on the 3d of October, before Judge Daggett of the supreme court, who was a strenuous advocate of the black law. His influence with the jury was overpowering, insisting in an elaborate and able charge that the law was constitutional, and, without much hesitation, the verdict was given against Miss Crandall. Her counsel at once filed a bill of exceptions, and took an appeal to the court of errors, which was granted. Before that, the highest legal tribunal in the State, the cause was argued on the 22d of July, 1834. Both the Hon. W. W. Elsworth and the Hon. Calvin Goddard argued with great ability and eloquence against the constitutionality of the black law. The Hon. A. T. Judson and Hon. C. F. Cleaveland said all they could to prove such a law consistent with the *Magna Charta* of our republic. The court reserved a decision for some future time; and that decision was never given, it being evaded by the court finding such defects in the information prepared by the State's attorney that it ought to be quashed.

Soon after this, an attempt was made to set the house of Miss Crandall on fire, but without effect. The question of her duty to risk the lives of her pupils against this mode of attack was then considered, and upon consultation with friends it was concluded to hold on and bear a little longer, with the hope that this atrocity of attempting to fire the house, and thus expose the lives and property of her neighbors, would frighten the instigators of the persecution, and cause some restraint on "the baser sort." But a few nights afterwards, about 12 o'clock, being the night of the 9th of September, her house was assaulted by a number of persons with heavy clubs and iron bars; and windows were dashed to pieces. Mr. May was summoned the next morning, and after consultation it was determined that the school should be abandoned. Mr. May thus concludes his account of this event, and of the enterprise.

"The pupils were called together and I was requested to announce to them our decision. Never before had I felt so deeply sensible of the cruelty of the persecution which had been carried on for 18 months in that New England village, against a family of defenseless females. Twenty harmless, well behaved girls, whose only offense against the peace of the community was that they had come together there to obtain useful knowledge and moral culture, were to be told that they had better go away, because, forsooth, the house in which they dwelt would not be protected by the guardians of the town, the conservators of the peace, the officers of justice, the men of influence in the village where it was situated. The words almost blistered my lips. My bosom glowed with indignation. I felt ashamed of Canterbury, ashamed of Connecticut, ashamed of my country, ashamed of my color. Thus ended the generous, disinterested, philanthropic, Christian enterprise of Prudence Crandall, but the law under which her enterprise was defeated was repealed in 1838."

The principal championship of the repeal of the "Canterbury Law," as the act of 1833 was called, in the legislature of 1838, was made by Hon. Francis Gillette, then and always an earnest member of the house from Bloomfield:

"This law is unwise, impolitic, and preposterous. Colored children, and any other persons, may come into this State in any numbers, and for any other purpose than that of acquiring knowledge—no matter what they are, idlers, thieves, vagabonds, the very sweepings of the globe; but if an innocent child comes into this State for the purpose of attending school, and that child's complexion is a little dashed, if it has not the Caucasian dye, that child is liable, by this law, to be treated as a vagrant pauper, and hurried out of the State, as though its very breath was contagion and death. Notwithstanding, if it will throw away its books, and turn to some menial employment; if it will abandon the pursuit of knowledge and become a waiter or a boot-black, it may, forsooth, tarry within the State, unmolested by this or any other law. It may, indeed, remain for any other purpose than to prepare itself to become an intelligent and worthy citizen; but across the path of knowledge it finds the Canterbury black act, snake-like distended. We admit the vicious and degraded, while we reject the pure-hearted and aspiring.

"Connecticut has ever shown herself deeply sensible of the value of education to all classes, and of its inseparable connection with her prosperity, happiness, and glory. Her munificent school fund attests it; her school-houses dotting thickly her surface evince it; her general policy from her earliest settlement confirms it; but we here find in her recent legislation a law diametrically opposed to her past policy, and conflicting with her whole system of measures for pouring the light of knowledge over the youthful mind, and thus enriching herself, not with pelf, but with the treasures of cultivated intellect.

"In vain shall we look for a parallel to this legislation in any modern free State; but in an earlier and darker age it is recorded of the inhabitants of Mitylene that they forbade the people of a tributary province to give the least instruction to their children, they having learned the close connection between light and liberty. Let us be mindful of our obligation to treat the children of this unfortunate race—the victims of ages of barbarous cruelty—with some little justice and humanity; and when they come to us asking for the bread of knowledge, let us not give them a stone, and thrust them from our presence, but cheer their wounded hearts with kindness and compassion, and welcome them to participate with us in the blessings of knowledge, of wise government, and impartial laws."

SCHOOLS FOR COLORED CHILDREN IN HARTFORD.

The following letter from Rev. W. W. Turner, to the Commissioner of Education, gives the history and present status of the colored population in respect to public schools not only in Hartford but in the State generally:

DEAR SIR: Until the year 1830 no separate schools for colored children had ever been organized in this town. From the beginning they had been received into the schools for other children, with equal privileges and advantages for instruction, support being derived from school funds and public taxation, and no distinction was recognized between them and the white children in the same school. Such in general was the fact throughout this State and the whole of New England.

About the year above specified, the colored people expressed a desire that one or more separate schools for their own children should be formed in the city of Hartford, on which should be expended that part of the public school money which would be drawn by them according to their number. A mutual agreement to that effect was entered into, and the legislature, by request of the School Society of Hartford, passed a law authorizing within its limits one or more separate colored schools, and the appropriation to them of their share of the public money. This arrangement was consummated the same year, and was continued without any special change until the autumn of 1846. A memorial or petition was then sent to the School Society by the pastor of the colored congregational church showing that since the separation above described nothing had been done for the colored schools by said society beyond the paying over of their share of the public fund every year. No school-houses had been built or furnished, and excepting small contributions from a few benevolent persons, not a farthing had been given for the payment of their teachers and the support of their schools by the white citizens of Hartford. The colored population from want of means had been unable to procure suitable rooms, or competent teachers, and consequently the education of their children had been exceedingly irregular, deficient and onerous—much of the time being without any schools at all. The School Society promptly voted to raise a tax sufficient to support two schools for colored children with suitable rooms and teachers, and appointed a committee to receive and apply the money raised for that purpose. This arrangement was entirely satisfactory to all concerned, and its results were especially beneficial to the colored population of the city. By the natural increase of this class of children, the rooms occupied by their schools some years after had become quite too small; and as graded schools had been established for other children, patrons of the colored schools of the city felt that the time had come when a suitable building for the accommodation of their schools should be built for them at the public expense. A petition to that effect was sent by many of the principal colored residents of Hartford to the School Society, which appointed a committee to investigate and report on the whole subject. As a preliminary step to all future action, this committee called a meeting of the colored people to discuss and to decide for themselves the question whether they would have their children taught in future with the white children, or in schools of their own as heretofore. After a free and full deliberation upon the matter, they came almost, if not quite, unanimously to the conclusion that they preferred to have their children taught in separate schools in a building sufficiently large and properly arranged for classification to accommodate them all. The committee reported in favor of the plan, and the society authorized the erection of such a building in April, 1852. From that time until August of last year the colored schools, in common with all the public schools of the city, have been supported by tax on the property of our citizens, without any other expense to the parents of the children; and the full benefits of this judicious policy have been experienced by all classes of the community. In 1868 a law was enacted by the legislature of Connecticut providing that "the public schools of this State should be open to all persons between the ages of four and sixteen; and that no person should be denied admittance to and instruction in any public school in the school district where such person resides, on account of race or color." This law permitted the colored parents of this city to send their children to any of the public schools of the districts in which they resided—a privilege denied them in some of these districts, and one which they very much desired to enjoy. They had for a good while been certain that the white population of the city would not furnish for them as good school accommodations as they had already done for their own children; and that it was impossible for the colored people to establish and keep up such schools as were regarded essential to the thorough training of their children for the new fields of usefulness now

opening before them. Immediately, therefore, on the passage of the law referred to, they concluded with entire unanimity to avail themselves of its provisions. They gave up their separate schools, and sent their children to the public schools of their respective districts. The new law and the new arrangement obtained the cheerful acquiescence of the teachers and scholars of these schools; the colored parents made special efforts to clothe and otherwise prepare their children for the new positions assigned them; and up to the present time the plan has worked admirably, and has already developed a rapid improvement in learning, and in the deportment and self-respect of the colored children for whose benefit mainly the law was enacted."

The act of 1868, referred to in the foregoing communication, is as follows:

"The public schools of this State shall be open to all persons between the ages of four and sixteen years, and no person shall be denied admittance to and instruction in any public school in the school district where such person resides, on account of race or color, any law or resolution of this State heretofore passed to the contrary notwithstanding."

DELAWARE.

Out of a population of 112,216, in 1860, there were in Delaware 21,627 blacks, of which number 19,829 were free.

In 1739, free negroes or mulattoes were forbidden by law to harbor or entertain any slave without the consent of the owner of such slave, under severe penalties; and this was the only legislative action by this State, relating exclusively to the colored people, during the colonial period. Nearly one hundred years later, in 1832, an act was passed, providing that no congregation or meeting of free negroes or mulattoes, of more than 12 persons, should be held later than 10 o'clock in the night, except under the direction of three respectable white men, who were to be present during the continuance of the meeting, under a penalty of $10 for each offense; and on failing to pay, the offender was to be sold into slavery for a term not to exceed three years. It was also further enacted, that no free negro or mulatto, not a resident of the State, should "attempt or presume to hold any meeting for the purpose of religious worship, or for the purpose of, or under the pretense of, preaching or exhortation, without the license of some judge or justice of the peace in this State, granted upon the recommendation of five respectable and judicious citizens." The penalty was a fine of $50 and costs; and on failure to pay, to be sold "to the highest bidder for a term not exceeding seven years."

In 1833 a law was passed requiring the owner of any slave to pay $5 for a license to sel the same to a person in Maryland; and in the case of the importation of a slave from Maryland, $10 was to be paid; and the sums thus paid were to be added to the fund for the education of the children of the white population.

The laws respecting free negroes and mulattoes remained essentially unchanged until 1852; and they did not, in express language, forbid the establishment of schools for their instruction; nor was the instruction of the slaves expressly forbidden, though the Revised Statutes of 1852 provided for the taxation of all the property of the State for the benefit of schools for the children of whites alone.

In 1863 a positive enactment was made against all assemblages for the instruction of colored people, and forbidding all meetings except for religious worship and the burial of their dead. The penalty for each offense was a fine of $10 and costs, and on failure to pay, to be sold into slavery not exceeding seven years, to any person residing in the county.

While the free colored people were taxed to a certain extent for school purposes they could not enjoy the privileges of public instruction thus provided, and were left for many years to rely principally upon individual efforts among themselves and their friends for the support of a few occasional schools. In 1840 the Friends formed the African School Association, in the city of Wilmington; and by its aid two very good schools, male and female, were established in that place.

In 1866 the Delaware Association for the Moral Improvement and Education of the Colored People of the State was organized through the efforts of General E. M. Gregory, an earnest and efficient assistant commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau. He was aided therein by Judge Hugh M. Bond and Francis T. King, of Baltimore, Maryland; and also by the Right Reverend Alfred Lee, Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church of Delaware.

The latter gentleman penned an appeal to the public, in which he urgently pressed the considerations that should influence all classes to give to this movement their sympathy and co-operation. These considerations were alleged to be: 1st. The manifest equity of no longer excluding any class of the community from the advantages of mental culture; 2d. The rescue of a large number of the young from indolence and vice; 3d. The general social improvement which might be expected in the State; 4th. The certain benefits to productive industry; and, 5th. The satisfaction of doing something to redress a great wrong, and so pay a debt long overdue to the poor and defenseless. To the association thus founded and advocated the African School Association transferred its school property in Wilmington, valued at about $4,000, and also the income of its funds, in trust, that the former should establish and maintain on the premises transferred as high an order of schools for the colored people as their condition permitted. The Delaware Association also took charge of a school in Wilmington, which had been sustained previously by private contributions, and opened another in the school-room of the African Zion church. Besides these, it speedily established schools in the following places, viz: Dover, Milford, Seaford, Smyrna, Odessa, Christiana, New Castle, Laurel, Georgetown, Milton, Newark, Delaware City, Lewis, Camden, Newport, Williamsville, and Port Penn. These schools have generally been well conducted, and attended with very satisfactory results. In their establishment the association was largely indebted to the Freedmen's Bureau, which contributed over $10,000 in furnishing building materials; and in their support it has, also, had the co-operation of the colored people themselves, who have contributed about $8,000 in payment of tuition, teachers' board, purchase of books, and erection of school buildings.

On the 3d of October, 1867, two normal schools, male and female, were opened in the old African Association building, which had been altered to suit their purposes. Of these schools Professor William Howard Day, an educated colored gentleman, who is superintendent of education under the Freedmen's Bureau for the States of Maryland and Delaware, speaks in very commendable terms. The following statistics for the years 1867 and 1868 present the educational work done in the State of Delaware during that period:

Number of schools, teachers, and pupils—1867-'68.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1867	20	....	20	4	16	20	269	443	712	581	81
1868	32	3	35	10	25	35	767	510	1,277	904	71

Studies and expenditures for schools—1867-'68.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading lessons.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher br's.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	338	265	189	203	133	282	....	$5,800	$34,963	$40,763
1868	158	570	433	545	287	551	25	2,299	6,191	8,490

FLORIDA.

By the census of 1860 Florida had 140,425 inhabitants, of whom 62,677 were blacks, and of these 61,747 were slaves.

While Florida was still a Territory, in 1832, the immigration of any free negro or mulatto into its jurisdiction was forbidden by legal enactment; and at the same time an act was passed forbidding any of the same class of persons, resident in the Territory, "to assemble

at any time or place" for any purpose except for labor—not even for a funeral. They might, however, "attend divine worship at any church, chapel, or other place of congregated white persons for that purpose"

In 1846, one year after the admission of Florida as a State, "all assemblies and congregations of slaves, free negroes, and mulattoes, consisting of four or more, met together in a confined or secret place," were declared to be unlawful, and the most stringent measures were used to prevent them; but no "church or place of public worship," where any religious society should be assembled, "a portion of whom" were white, could be broken into or disturbed "at any time before 10 o'clock in the evening."

December 28, 1848, an act was passed "to provide for the establishment of common schools," and giving to any person, liable to taxation on his property for the erection of school-houses, the right to vote at the district meetings; but white children only, of a specified age, were entitled to school privileges.

In the same year an act was passed providing that the school fund should consist of "the proceeds of the school lands," and of all estates, real or personal, escheating to the State, and "the proceeds of all property found on the coast or shores of the State." In 1850 the counties were authorized to provide, by taxation, not more than four dollars for each child within their limits of the proper school age. In the same year the amount received from the sale of any slave, under the act of 1829, was required to be added to the school fund. The common school law was revised in 1853, and the county commissioners were authorized to add from the county treasury any sum they thought proper for the support of common schools.

January 18, 1866, an act establishing common schools for freedmen was passed, providing for a tax of one dollar each upon "all male persons of color between the ages of 21 and 45" for the support of such schools, which were placed under the care of a superintendent appointed by the governor. In 1869, by act approved January 30, a common school law was established, in which no reference is made to the complexion of the pupils.

EDUCATION OF THE FREEDMEN.

Among the various agencies engaged in the work of educating the freedmen of the South are two consisting of colored people in the northern States, and known respectively as the African Civilization Society and the Home Missionary Society of the African Methodist Episcopal Church. Both of these societies have shown no lack of interest in the great matter of improving the condition of their formerly enslaved brethren, and both of them have labored zealously, as far as their means would permit, either independently or in co-operation with others, in the establishment of schools at different points in the southern States. Several of these schools were opened at Tallahassee and other places in Florida shortly after the close of the war, and have proved important and successful instrumentalities for good.

More sparsely settled than the other States, and lacking in the advantages of convenient roads, this State has not furnished so inviting a field to philanthropic effort as others; yet, in spite of these obstacles, the northern societies have not been without their representatives here, the New York branch of the American Freedmen's Union Commission having the greatest number of teachers employed in this section. As elsewhere, their labors have been blessed in the improvement of their pupils both in school learning and in the general conduct of life. Besides the schools already mentioned there were yet others, amounting, perhaps, to one-half of the entire number of schools in the State. These last were taught by freed persons who had acquired a little learning in their bondage. However poorly qualified they may have been to act as instructors, the existence of their schools was evidence both of their desire to labor in the elevation of their brethren and of the necessity felt by the latter for acquiring some knowledge, were it only the merest rudiments of learning. It is to be hoped, then, that even these schools were not wholly destitute of their wished-for fruit. Through the three several agencies already mentioned 30 schools were in existence in Florida at the close of 1865.

Early in the following year, January 16, 1866, the State legislature created a public

system of education for the freedmen of the State. This enactment proivdes for the appointment of a superintendent, whose duty is to "establish schools for freedmen, when the number of children of persons of color shall warrant the same," and to employ competent teachers for them. For the support of these schools it also provides that, besides a tuition fee of 50 cents per month to be collected from each pupil, a fund, "to be denominated the common school fund for the education of freedmen," shall be raised by levying a tax of $1 upon all male persons of color between the ages of 21 and 55 years. The good effects of this law were apparent in the increased number of schools during that year and the following.

The action of the legislature was heartily seconded by the freedmen themselves, who, in a number of instances, erected school-houses at their own expense, besides contributing from their scanty means towards the support of teachers. Here, too, as in other States, the Freedmen's Bureau proved itself their efficient friend. In order to enable them to secure for themselves school-houses as well as schools, it advised the formation of "school societies," and suggested a course of procedure upon compliance with which its assistance would be extended to them. It stipulated that each society should acquire, by gift or purchase, the perfect title to an eligible lot of ground not less than one acre in extent, to be vested in a board of trustees for school purposes, and that it should then secure good pledges of labor and money sufficient to provide for all the work required in the erection of the school-house and in making needed improvements of the property. Upon these conditions it agreed to supply all the lumber and other materials necessary for the construction of the building. Not only did the freedmen accede to this plan, but also quite a number of the landed proprietors entered cordially into it, readily furnishing the school lots required.

The reports of 1868 showed, in the diminished number of schools, that Florida had not been exempt from the sufferings which hard times had entailed upon other States. With all the advantages just mentioned, it became evident, in the stringency of money matters, that its public school system, however judicious and commendable it may be, cannot be a complete success until years of patient and earnest labor shall be blessed with that prosperity which such labor must inevitably secure.

The following table, compiled by Professor Vashon, presents the statistics of these schools from 1865 to 1868:

Number of schools, teachers, and scholars, 1865 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	Whites.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	......	......	30	......	......	19	......	......	1,900	......	.....
1866	......	......	38	......	......	51	......	......	2,663	......	.....
1867	42	29	71	32	32	64	1,053	1,175	2,228	1,815	81
1868	33	21	54	24	37	61	1,032	1,150	2,182	1,619	74

Studies and expenditures, 1867 *and* 1868.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced reading.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	418	1,047	432	562	208	481	19	$608	$20,392	$21,000
1868	212	1,163	683	1,040	485	898	50	629	18,571	19,200

The State superintendent of public instruction, in a report submitted to Governor Reed January 9, 1869, remarks, respecting the schools conducted under the auspices of northern benevolent associations:

"Many of the ladies who assumed the duties of teachers were persons of wealth and high social positions at home. Coming at a time when the freed children were cast suddenly at the threshold of a new life, unused to the responsibilities and ignorant of the duties thus thrust upon them, they were welcomed with great joy, and labored with sincere Christian devotion, amidst hardships and privations. The teachers have changed, but most of the schools are still maintained."

GEORGIA.

By the census of 1860 the population of Georgia was 1,057,286; and of this number 465,698 were black, of whom all but 3,500 were slaves.

The Province of Georgia, in 1770, adopted the law of South Carolina, passed in 1740, providing a lighter penalty only for teaching slaves to write—a fine of £20 instead of £100. The same law provided that any magistrate or constable must "disperse any assembly or meeting of slaves which may disturb the peace and endanger the safety of his Majesty's subjects;" and any slave found at such meeting might, by order of the magistrate, be immediately corrected, *without trial*, by whipping on the bare back "twenty-five stripes with a whip, switch, or cowskin." The reason for the passage of this provision of the law was, as stated, because "the frequent meeting of slaves, under the pretense of feasting, may be attended with dangerous consequences." The "feasting" referred to was the love feast of the Methodist church.

In 1829 the following law was enacted: "If any slave, negro, or free person of color, or any white person, shall teach any other slave, negro, or free person of color to read or write either written or printed characters, the said free person of color or slave shall be punished by fine and whipping, or fine or whipping, at the discretion of the court; and if a white person so offend, he, she, or they shall be punished with a fine not exceeding $500 and imprisonment in the common jail at the discretion of the court."

In December, 1833, the penal code was consolidated, and in it a provision from the act of 1829 was embodied, providing a penalty not exceeding $100 for the employment of any slave or free person of color in setting up type or other labor about a printing office requiring a knowledge of reading or writing. This penal code continued in force until swept away by the events of the late war.

In 1833 the city of Savannah adopted an ordinance "that if any person shall teach or cause to be taught any slave or free person of color to read or write within the city, or who shall keep a school for that purpose, he or she shall be fined in a sum not exceeding $100 for each and every such offense; and if the offender be a slave or free person of color he or she may also be whipped, not exceeding thirty-nine lashes." And yet, in the face of such ordinances, instruction was imparted by persons of color in the city of Savannah, and individuals were to be found who a few years later advocated a more humane and liberal policy toward the entire laboring class of the State.

In the summer of 1850 a series of articles by Mr. F. C. Adams appeared in one of the papers of Savannah, advocating the education of the negroes as a means of increasing their value and of attaching them to their masters. The subject was afterwards taken up in the Agricultural Convention which met at Macon in September of the same year. (See the Macon Journal and Messenger, Chapman, editor.) The matter was again brought up in September, 1851, in the Agricultural Convention, and after being debated, a resolution was passed that a petition be presented to the legislature for a law granting permission to educate the slaves. The petition was presented to the legislature, and Mr. Harlston introduced a bill in the winter of 1852, which was discussed and passed in the lower house, to repeal the old law, and to grant to the masters the privilege of educating their slaves. (See Milledgeville Recorder.) The bill was lost in the senate by two or three votes.

SCHOOLS FOR THE BLACKS IN GEORGIA.

The following account of the efforts to establish schools in Georgia since 1865 was prepared by Professor Vashon:

Among the many secret things brought to light by the opening of the southern prison-house, there was one at least which did not challenge the public regard by its atrocity, but rather by the evidence which it afforded of the futility of oppressive enactments in crushing out the soul's nobler aspirations. This was a school for colored persons in Savannah, Georgia. For upwards of 30 years it had existed there, unsuspected by the slave power, and sucessfully eluding the keen-eyed vigilance of its minions. Its teacher, a colored lady by the name of Deveaux, undeterred by any dread of penalties, throughout that long period silently pursued her labors in her native city, in the very same room that she still occupies; and she now has the satisfaction of knowing that numbers who are indebted to her for their early training are, in these more auspicious days, co-workers with her in the elevation of their common race. It is not a matter for surprise that a city favored with such an establishment as Miss Deveaux's should prove a field ripe for the harvesters, or that its colored residents should hail with appreciative joy the advent of a better time. Within a few days after the entrance of Sherman's army, in December, 1865, they opened a number of schools having an enrolment of 500 pupils, and contributed $1,000 for the support of teachers. In this spontaneous movement they were fortunate in having the advice and encouragement of the Rev. J. W. Alvord, then secretary of the Boston Tract Society, and of other friends who were with the invading forces. Two of the largest of these schools were in "Bryant's Slave Mart;" and thus the very walls which had, but a few days before, re-echoed with the anguish of bondmen put up for sale, now gave back the hushed but joyous murmurs of their children learning to read. In a very little while this effort attained to such a development as to compel an appeal for outside assistance. To the Macedonian cry, "Come over and help us," the American Missionary Association and also the Boston and New York societies responded, both by sending additional teachers and by engaging to pay the salaries of those already on the ground. Schools were also established at Augusta, Macon, and other places thoughout the State; so that, at the close of the year, there were 69 schools in existence, with as many teachers, 43 of whom were colored, and with over 3,600 pupils in attendance.

The same spirit that prompted the negroes of Georgia to open these schools was still manifested by them in a continuance and enlargement of the good work. In January, 1866, they organized the Georgia Educational Association, whose object was to induce the freedmen to establish and support schools in their own counties and neighborhoods; and, in furtherance of this end, it provided for the formation of subordinate associations throughout the State. The purpose of its projectors was to act in harmony with agencies already in the field, with the educational officers of the Freedmen's Bureau, and with all other parties who were willing to assist them in the moral and mental culture of their race. Thus, they hoped, by this union of effort, to accomplish much immediate good, and to lay deeply and permanently the foundation of a system of public instruction which should, in time, place an education within the reach of all the citizens of Georgia. The plan thus proposed met with an approving response from the people, and schools were rapidly opened in many counties of the State. In many quarters, however, great opposition was offered to this new order of things; and the newspapers, in alluding to the female teachers, would descend to the most abusive ribaldry. In frequent instances, too, this opposition did not stop short of acts of violence and outrage. During the year 1866 seven school buildings were destroyed by white incendiaries; and, at a number of points, teachers were forced either to close their schools or to appeal to the bureau for protection. In the following year, however, Mr. G. L. Eberhart, the State superintendent of education under the bureau, reported a wonderful change in this matter, in the following words: "At the beginning of the current school year scarcely any white persons could be found who were willing to '*disgrace*' themselves by '*teaching niggers*;' but, as times grew hard, and money and bread scarce, applications for employment became so numerous that I was obliged to prepare a printed letter with which

to answer them. Lawyers, physicians, editors, ministers, and all classes of white people applied for employment; and while a few by their letters evinced only tolerable qualifications —none of them first class—a vast majority were unable to write grammatically or to spell the most simple and common words in our language correctly. Not a few appeared to think that '*anybody can teach niggers*.'" This change in popular sentiment rendered it possible to establish schools to a much greater extent in the country districts; and the result was that at the close of the school year, in 1867, 191 day schools and 45 night schools were reported as existing. Of these schools 96 were supported either wholly or in part by freedmen, who also owned 57 of the school buildings. The poverty which had contributed so much towards diminishing the prejudices of the white residents, had, on the other hand, an unfavorable effect on the prosperity of the schools. Through its pressure many of the subordinate societies ceased to exist, and the schools supported by them were discontinued; and as the northern associations deemed it to be the better policy to confine their work to the cities in the training of prospective teachers, the rural districts suffered somewhat, and the exhibit of schools for 1868 was about 100 less than in the preceding year. Some compensation for this, however, was found in the establishment by the American Missionary Association of three permanent institutions of a higher grade, with brief notices of which this sketch shall be closed.

THE GEORGIA UNIVERSITY, ATLANTA.

Early in the year 1867 the Georgia University was incorporated, $10,000 having been contributed from the educational fund of the Freedmen's Bureau towards establishing its normal department. A desirable tract of land, consisting of 53 acres within the city limits, and known as Diamond Hill, was purchased and two brick buildings erected thereon. These are to be used as dormitories, after the completion of the main edifice, which it is the intention of the trustees to put up at as early a date as their means will permit.

THE BEACH INSTITUTE, SAVANNAH.

The Beach Institute, at Savannah, was established in 1867, and was thus named in honor of Alfred E. Beach, esq., editor of the Scientific American, who generously donated the means for purchasing the lot upon which it stands; and it is a neat and substantial frame structure, erected by the Freedmen's Bureau at a cost of $13,000. This building, which rests upon brick foundations, is 55 feet by 60 feet, and has, at the north and south ends, two Ls, each 10 feet by 35 feet. On the first floor are four large school-rooms, all of which can be converted into one when desired, by means of sliding doors and windows. Four other school-rooms and an ante-room are on the second floor. All of these rooms have high ceilings, and are well lighted, and furnished with substantial desks, seats, black-boards, &c. A staircase at each end furnishes ready egress from the upper story. On the east side of this building stands the "Teachers' Home," a neat and comfortably arranged two-story frame house, erected by the association at a cost of $3,000. There are 600 pupils in the institution, which is under the charge of Mr. O. W. Dimick, assisted by nine female teachers, eight of whom are white and one colored.

THE LEWIS SCHOOL, MACON.

The Lewis School, at Macon, was dedicated, with appropriate exercises, to God, and to the Christian education of the freed people of Georgia, on the 26th day of March, 1866. It is named in honor of General John R. Lewis, inspector of the Freedmen's Bureau, and is a handsome two-story building 80 feet long by 60 in width, affording accommodations for over 500 pupils. The school-rooms are neatly finished with Georgia pine, and furnished with cherry desks, and all the other most approved modern educational appliances. With a corps of teachers, intelligent, refined, and thoroughly capable, there is no doubt that the Lewis School will justly continue to be, as it is now the pride of its founders and of the colored people of Macon.

Number of schools, teachers, and pupils—1865–'68.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	....	....	69	26	43	69	....	....	3,603	....	....
1866	....	....	79	....	....	113	....	....	7,792	....	....
1867	191	45	236	148	91	239	6,033	7,448	13,481	10,231	76
1868	103	26	132	127	47	174	4,035	4,507	8,542	6,708	78

Studies and expenditures—1867–'68.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	2,600	8,987	2,318	3,020	1,854	2,810	139	$35,224	$40,000	$91,096
1868	1,560	4,592	2,366	3,573	2,361	3,102	253	21,596	31,000	52,596

ILLINOIS.

Out of a total population of 1,711,951 in 1860 there were returned 7,628 free colored inhabitants. By the constitution of 1847 the right of suffrage is restricted to white male citizens, and the benefits of the school law are by implication extended exclusively to children of white parents. Hon. Newton Bateman, in his exhaustive, elaborate, and every way excellent report as superintendent of public instruction, submitted to the governor December 15, 1868, introduces the subject of schools for the colored population, as follows:

"The number of colored persons in the State under 21 years of age, as reported for 1867, was 8,962, and the number reported for 1868 was 9,781. The number between the ages of 6 and 21 years, or of lawful school age, was in 1867, 5,492, and in 1868 the number of school-going colored children reported in the State was 6,210. * * *

"I have made every effort to obtain reliable statistics in respect to this element of our population, but there is good reason to believe that the actual number of colored persons in the State is much greater than is exhibited in the above statement. As children of color are not included in the numerical basis upon which either the county superintendent or the township trustees apportion the school fund, there is no special or pecuniary motive to care and diligence in taking this census, as there is in taking that of white children, as previously shown. Indifference and other causes have also operated, in some portions of the State, to prevent a faithful effort to collect and report the desired information in regard to these people. Taking the figures as reported and comparing them, it will be seen that the number of colored persons under 21 has increased 1,565, or over 18 per centum, in the last two years; and that the number between 6 and 21 has increased 1,279, or 26 per centum. I have no doubt that the actual number of colored children in the State, between 6 and 21, is at least 7,000, and probably more. Indeed this is demonstrated from the statistics which are given. The number under 21 reported is 9,781. Of these, the number under six must be deducted. The ratio of 6 to 21 is two-sevenths; hence, the number between 6 and 21 should be very nearly five-sevenths of the whole number under 21; but five-sevenths of 9,781 is 6,987, being an inconsiderable fraction under 7,000. While, for reasons previously given, the number reported as under 21 is undoubtedly too small, yet, being more easily taken than the number between 6 and 21, it is no doubt the more nearly correct of the two. At all events, it is not too large, and if there are 9,731 colored people in the State under 21, it is absolutely certain that there are not less than 7,000 between 6 and 21, being a little less than one per centum of the number of white children between the same ages."

"In remarking upon the condition of these people in respect to school privileges, in the last biennial report, the following language was used: 'For the education of these 6,000 colored children the general school law of the State makes, virtually, no provision. By the discriminating terms employed throughout the statute, it is plainly the intention to exclude them from a joint participation in the benefits of the free school system. Except as referred to by the terms which imply exclusion, and in one brief section of the act, they are wholly

ignored in all the common school legislation of the State. The purport of that one section (the 80th) is that the amount of all school taxes collected from persons of color shall be paid back to them; it does not say what use shall be made of the money so refunded, although the intention (if there was any) may be presumed to be that it should be used for separate schools for colored children. But if that was the object it has not been attained, except in a few instances, for two reasons: first, the school taxes paid by persons of color are not generally returned to them; and, second, even when they are refunded, there are not colored children enough, except in a few places, to form separate schools. In some of the cities and larger towns, where the schools are under special acts and municipal ordinances, the education of colored children is provided for in a manner worthy a just and Christian people; and in many other instances the requirements of the law are faithfully observed, and the efforts of the colored people to provide schools for their children are heartily seconded. But the larger portion of the aggregate number of colored people in the State are dispersed through the different counties and school districts, in small groups of one, two, or three families, not enough to maintain separate schools for themselves, even with the help of the pittance paid for school taxes by such of them as are property holders. This whole dispersed class of our colored population are without the means of a common school education for their children; the law does not contemplate their co-attendance with white children, and they are without recourse of any kind. I think it safe to say that at least one-half of the 6,000 colored children, between the ages of 6 and 21, are in this helpless condition with respect to schools. They are trying, by conventions, petitions, and appeals, to reach the ears and hearts of the representatives of the people and the law-making power of the State, to see if anything can be done for them. I have tried to state their case; I think it is a hard one. I commend the subject to the attention of the general assembly, as demanding a share of public regard.'

"I desire again to call attention to the fact that, as I understand the law, those people are excluded from all participation in the benefits of the public schools, except by common consent, or as a matter of sufferance. The recurrence throughout the statute of the restrictive word 'white' leaves no room for doubt that it was the intention to provide for the education of white children only, in the free schools of the State, and upon this principle the school law has been interpreted, and the system administered, from the first. I approve the resolution adopted by the State Teachers' Association, 'that the distinctive word "white," in the school law and the 80th section of the same, are contrary to the true intent of the principle on which the school system is based, and should be repealed.' I regard the longer presence in the school law of this great and free commonwealth, of provisions which now exclude 7,000 children of lawful school age from all the blessings of public education, and which, if not repealed, will continue to exclude them and the thousands which may hereafter be added to the number, as alike impolitic and unjust; the opprobium and shame of our otherwise noble system of free schools. No State can afford to defend or perpetuate such provisions, and least of all the State that holds the dust of the fingers that wrote the proclamation of January 1, 1863. Let us expunge this last remaining remnant of the unchristian 'black laws' of Illinois and proclaim in the name of God and the Declaration of Independence, that *all* the school-going children of the State, without distinction, shall be equally entitled to share in the rich provisions of the free school system. Nor need any one be scared by the phantom of blended colors in the same school-room. The question of co-attendance, or of separate schools, is an entirely separate and distinct one, and may safely be left to be determined by the respective districts and communities to suit themselves. In many places there will be but one school for all; in many others there will be separate schools. That is a matter of but little importance, and one which need not and cannot be regulated by legislation. Only drive the spirit of caste from its *intrenchments in the statute*, giving all equal educational rights *under the law*, and the consequences will take care of themselves."

COLORED SCHOOLS IN CHICAGO.

From the following note of Mr. Packard, superintendent of public schools in Chicago, addressed to the State superintendent of public instruction in Indiana, it appears that the experiment of a separate school for the colored children was tried without satisfactory results. Why the school was abolished by the legislature does not appear:

"For one year, 1864 and 1865, the experiment of a separate colored school was tried. The school was disorderly and much trouble existed in the vicinity of the school. The legislature in 1864-'5 abolished this school, and since that time colored children have been admitted to the public schools on an equality with other children. Not a word of complaint has come, with perhaps one or two individual exceptions, arising from seating pupils—a matter which is easily remedied. Colored children are admitted to our high school: one graduated last year; others will graduate this year. All difficulty with the children of color has disappeared, except such as may be common to all children who have had no better advantages than themselves; we certainly have less frequent complaints than in the separate system."

INDIANA.

By the census of 1860 the population of Indiana was 1,350,428, and of this number 11,428 were free colored; and towards this class a violent and persistent hostile legislation has been pursued from the earliest history of the State.

The constitution in 1851 provides that "no negro or mulatto shall have the right of suffrage" and after the date of its adoption, "no negro or mulatto shall come into or settle in the State," and "all contracts made with such persons are declared void;" and "any person who shall employ such negro or mulatto, or otherwise encourage him to remain in the State, shall be fined in any sum not less than $10 nor more than $500, such fines to be appropriated to the colonization of such negroes as desire to leave the State." The general assembly are directed to pass laws to give effect to these provisions. The utterly un-American, undemocratic and unchristian character of these provisions has been frequently exposed, and particularly by the State superintendents of public instruction. Professor Hoss, in his report to the general assembly dated December 31, 1866, remarks:

"I am fully aware of the public sensitiveness on this subject. hence conscious of the difficulty of preventing it. If the time ever was in Indiana when it was honestly believed, that the colored man could be kept out of the State by stringent legislation, that time has passed and that belief cannot exist now, unless in an illiberal or prejudiced mind. The severe logic of events proves the truth of this assertion. These events and agencies, such as the abolition of slavery, the enactment of the civil rights bill, the nullification of the 13th article of the constitution of Indiana, and the changed and changing tone of public sentiment concerning the colored man, are all of too recent a date and of too great a magnitude to require presentation here.

"Therefore, whereas it is clear, first, that the colored man is to remain with us. i e, in our State; second, that he is being, and is to be, clothed with new and larger powers of citizenship, it follows that he is becoming a greater force in both society and the State. Any force generated in, or injected into, the social or political organism at once suggests the necessity of guidance or control; uncontrolled, evil if not ruin will ensue. But in a popular government like ours, human force in the aspect now under consideration is most easily controlled for the good of society and the State when the party possessing and exerting such force is educated. The constitution of our State broadly and explicitly recognizes the above truth as applied to governments. The constitution holds the following: 'knowledge and learning generally diffused throughout a community, being *essential* (italicizing mine) to the preservation of a free government,' it becomes the duty of the legislature to provide a system of common schools and other means of securing popular intelligence, also to encourage 'moral, intellectual, and scientific improvement.'

"Therefore, the above granted true, it follows that the welfare of the government, i. e., the State, requires the education of all the community, hence of the colored man. A non-sequitur can hardly be pleaded here by saying the negro is not a citizen. If such were true, it is not material to the argument, as the constitution speaks not narrowly of citizens only, but of members of community in general. Hence under the narrowest logic and most prejudiced definition of terms, the constitution includes the colored man as an element of that community throughout which 'knowledge and learning are to be diffused.' Therefore, the above true, the constitution seems clearly to contemplate the education of colored children.

"But, granting the above all true, we are in the lower story of the argument, namely, among policies and expediencies, which look to the 'preservation of a free government.' Let none suppose that I do not regard this a great, a glorious object. It is both great and glorious, yet justice may be as great and glorious.

"The question occurs, how far justice will sustain the State in closing, or at least refusing to open, the avenues of knowledge to the eager minds of several thousand members of the community.

"Independent of recent events I submit that these children are as clearly entitled to their share of the congressional township revenue as any children in the State. Congress in granting this land did not use the now ambiguous term 'citizen,' but the plainer term 'inhabitant,' saying that 'section numbered 16 in every township * * * shall be granted to the inhabitants of such township for the use of schools.' Consequently, every colored child resident of the State, being an 'inhabitant' of some one of the congressional townships, is entitled to its pro rata of the congressional revenue of that township.

"Second and higher, I suppose it will be granted that there are claims higher than the claims of mere inhabitancy, namely the claims of a human being as such. The claims of a colored man are the claims of a human being with human responsibilities, human aspirations, with human hopes and sympathies, and bearing as others bear, marred by sin, the image of his Creator. Hence both State policy and justice say that he should be educated.

"Deference to the extreme sensitiveness of public opinion may say, wait for a more opportune time. If it be true that this be not the time, the time is coming, and coming surely if

not speedily. 'The mills of God grind slowly, but surely.' Justice, like truth, bides her time, but executes her mission.

"If the legislature shall deem it wise to inaugurate a movement looking to the above end, I would respectfully submit the following in aid of this result:

"1. That the school trustees open separate schools for colored children. when a given number of such children of school age reside within attending distance. Probably that number could not safely be less than 15.

"2. In case in any neighborhood the number of children be less than 15, then the distributive share of revenue due each colored child shall be set apart for the education of such child in such manner as the proper school trustee shall provide.

"3. Make it specially obligatory upon the trustee to make some provision for the education of the children to the extent of the money set apart for the same, as provided in case second."

Mr. Hobbs, in his annual report submitted December 31, 1868, remarks:

"We cannot avoid the grave consideration, that there is a large colored population in the State who have hitherto submitted patiently to the ordeal of adverse public sentiment and the force of our statutes, in being denied participation in the benefits of our public school funds, while at the same time no bar can be discovered to their natural and constitutional right to them. By the grants of Congress, whence mainly we derive these funds, no exclusion is made. They were evidently designed for the citizens of the State without regard to color. Whatever additions our States may have made, they are still known as one 'common school fund' But whatever distinctions may have been made in the rights and privileges of citizens by our laws, they have been set aside by the emendations of our national constitution and the 'civil rights bill.' All citizens are now equal before the law. Colored citizens, while hitherto deprived of their natural and constitutional rights, have been *subject to the special school tax* for township purposes in common with *white citizens*, and have thus paid their proportion of expense for building school-houses for white children. After being denied all privilege to the school funds and thus taxed, they have been under the necessity of levying on themselves an additional tax to build their own school-houses and for the entire cost of their tuition. The historian will find this a dark chapter in our history.

"Whatever elements of ignorance and incompetency the population of a State may contain, is so much that may damage its prosperity and safety. How can we inspire these people with gratitude and patriotism, and win them to the support of law and virtue, when we repel them by cold indifference and deny them their natural and constitutional rights?"

To reach a safe decision, founded on the experience of other States, as to the true policy of dealing with this portion of the population, the superintendent ascertained by correspondence the practice of other free States in this regard, and finds that "Illinois and Indiana are alone of States north of Mason and Dixon's line" in denying educational privileges to colored citizens, and urges that "the deeply seated prejudices in the minds of many citizens should yield to duty, justice, and humanity."

IOWA.

Iowa had in 1860 a population of 674,913 inhabitants, of whom 1,069 were free blacks. By the constitution of 1857 the right of suffrage was limited to white male citizens; "but by sundry amendments," writes the late Franklin D. Wells, superintendent of public instruction, to the superintendent of schools in Indiana, "to our State constitution submitted to the people, and by them adopted at the election on the 3d of November, 1868, by nearly 30,000 majority, a man's rights and privileges are no longer determined by the color of his skin. Colored citizens of Iowa are entitled to vote, to hold office, and hold property; are a part of the militia, and are entitled to the benefits of our public school system on the same footing with white citizens. Wherever the word 'white' occurred in the constitution it has been stricken out."

KANSAS.

In 1860 Kansas had a population of 107,206, of which number 625 were free colored persons.

By the constitution adopted July 29, 1861, the right of suffrage is restricted to white male persons; but the first school law provides that equal educational advantages "shall be extended to all children in the State." A clause in the law leaves it to the discretion of the board of directors to establish separate schools for the colored children; but the legislature, in 1867, provided that when any children are denied admittance to a public school by vote

or action of the directors, the members of such board shall each pay a fine of $100 for any school month the children are thus excluded.

The people of this State have from its earliest settlement been imbued with the spirit of freedom; and their legislation in reference to educational matters has consequently been free from invidious discriminations as to the several races. Their schools are generally open to black and to white children alike; and it is only at a few points, where large numbers of negro emigrants are to be found, that schools for colored children exist separately. About 15 of these schools have been established and maintained through benevolent agencies; among which may be mentioned the American Missionary Association, the Michigan and the Northwestern branches of the American Freedmen's Union Commission, and the General Assembly of the Presbyterian church, old school. The last of these, operating through a standing committee originally formed in 1864, and reorganized in the following year, has labored with praiseworthy efficiency not only in this State but also in Tennessee, Virginia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Arkansas, and the District of Columbia. Its mission in Kansas is located at Quindaro, where, under the superintendence of the Rev. E. Blachly, D. D.,

THE QUINDARO HIGH SCHOOL

has been established. This institution, situated on the western bank of the Missouri river, and on the line of the Pacific railroad, is readily accessible from every quarter. In the face of great discouragements it has gone quietly forward, and had, at the date of its last catalogue, 180 students, 95 of whom were males and 85 females. Colonel F. A. Seely, the superintendent of education under the Freedmen's Bureau, in speaking of this institution says: "In respect to orderly conduct, thoroughness of instruction, and advancement in study, this school is unsurpassed." It is the purpose of its trustees to establish a department of theological instruction, and to this end they are desirous to secure the services of an efficient teacher in that branch. The property of the institution, valued at $6,200, consists at present of a commodious seminary building and three dwelling houses for teachers. Besides this, the trustees hope to secure 200 acres of land, so as to add a manual labor feature to their promising institution.

KENTUCKY.

Out of a population of 1,555,684, in 1860, 336,167 were blacks, and of these 10,684 were free and 225,483 were slaves.

In 1738 Kentucky was included in what was then formed into the county of Augusta, in Virginia. In 1769 Botetourt county was cut off from the county of Augusta; in 1772 Fincastle was cut off from Botetourt; and in 1776, the first year of the commonwealth of Virginia, Fincastle was divided into three counties, Washington, Montgomery, and Kentucky, the latter constituting what is now the State, and which was originally the hunting and battle ground of the savages, north and south, from whom it received the name Cane-tuck-ee, signifying "the dark and bloody ground."

In the compact with Virginia, in 1789, by which Kentucky was empowered to originate an independent State, "free male inhabitants above the age of 21 years" were designated as electors; and the constitution, adopted June 1, 1800, declared "every free male citizen, negroes, mulattoes, and Indians excepted," of the age of 21 years, to be electors. It also prohibited the emancipation of slaves by the general assembly, without the consent of the owner, but gave to slaves the right of "an impartial trial by a petty jury" in charges of felony.

The first legislation in the State, on the subject of the colored people, declared that no persons should be slaves in the State, except those who were slaves on the 17th of October, 1785, and their descendants; and in other respects the laws were essentially the same as those of Virginia, in relation to the colored population, until 1792. In 1816, and also in 1830, stringent laws were enacted to prevent cruelty in the treatment of slaves, and in 1833 the importation of slaves was forbidden under a penalty of $600 for each offense. No laws are found on the statute books of Kentucky forbidding the instruction of slaves.

In 1830 a school system was established, by which school districts had the power to tax the inhabitants of the district for school purposes. In this provision the property of colored people was included, although they could not vote nor have the benefits of the school. The provision for a full tax not exceeding 50 cents was, however, confined to "every *white* male inhabitant over 20 years of age; but the right to vote in the school district meeting was in certain cases extended to white females over 21 years of age. The Revised Statutes of 1852 provided that "any widow, having a child between six and 18 years of age should be allowed to vote in person, or by written proxy." But colored children were excluded from the district school, even though their parents were taxed for its support.

In 1864 the school laws were revised, but the benefits of the system were still confined to free white children. In 1867, however, an act was passed and approved March 9, "for the benefit of the negroes and mulattoes" of the State, providing that all taxes collected from negroes and mulattoes shall be set apart and constitute a separate fund for their use, one-half, if necessary, to be applied to the support of their paupers and the remainder to the education of their children. An additional tax of $2 was also to be levied upon every male negro 18 years of age, for this fund. Separate schools may be established in each district, for the support of which they are to receive their proportion of the appropriate fund. As to the operation of this law the State superintendent, (Z. F. Smith,) in his annual report, dated March 25, 1868, remarks as follows:

"The new law, approved March 9, 1867, has not operated to the satisfaction of its framers, as was hoped. I think the following extract from a letter of one of our commissioners explains the chief ground of difficulty:

"'There were no colored schools taught in my county in 1867, under the supervision of trustees; consequently none reported. The trustees have all been apprised of the fact that the law makes it their duty to have colored schools taught. But they reply "the law says they *may* have, but don't say they *shall* have, colored schools taught in their districts." The trustees therefore are perfectly indifferent in regard to colored schools.'"

"There is nothing obligatory in the law making the trustees responsible for neglecting its enforcement. They have no personal interest in its operations, and to leave its execution to the chance impulses of the spirit of philanthropy is a very doubtful reliance for the application of a general law. The difficulties are magnified, also, by the fact that there exists yet in some quarters much of morbid and unreasonable prejudice against legislating in any way for the benefit of the colored population, and especially for the education of their children. Trustees do not like always to encounter this prejudice, especially when they conclude that they have no personal interest in so doing, and the law is left to become a dead letter.

"I prepared some amendments to the law, which, I thought, would make it practicable and efficient; but these did not seem to meet the approval generally of the legislators, and were not adopted. But another amendment was introduced, and became a law, which requires all the revenues from taxes collected of negroes and mulattoes to be used, first, for pauper purposes; and, if there should be any excess, for school purposes. The amendment is published as part of this report. With the embarrassing provisions of the original law, it virtually destroys the practicability of existing legislation to furnish the colored people with any educational advantages. I think there is little hope of accomplishing anything for the education of the negroes until a law, independent of any pauper scheme, is passed, and the execution of such law left, in its details, to agencies from among their own people."

SCHOOLS FOR FREEDMEN.

The attempts to establish schools for colored children have encountered greater obstacles, perhaps, in Kentucky than in any other of the former slave States. As it did not engage in the rebellion as a State, slavery only ceased there upon the official announcement, on the 10th day of December, 1865; and until then no colored child within its limits was by law permitted to go to school. On account of its *quasi* loyalty, the Freedmen's Bureau has had but little power there, while the opposition prompted by intense local prejudice to the education of the blacks has deterred northern benevolent societies from sending their teachers to a quarter where they could not expect adequate protection. Then, too, the freedmen who had enlisted in great numbers in the Union army returned to their homes at the close of the war, with a manful worthiness well attested by courage on the battle-field, and by their eager desire for mental improvement, but hampered by a degree of poverty that hindered them in many instances from doing anything to secure instruction for themselves or their children. Yet, in spite of all these obstacles, the educational work which had been begun in the camps

of colored troops, at such brief intervals as are afforded by a soldier's life, found its continuance, on the return of peace and the subsequent proclamation of liberty. More than 30 schools with an attendance of over 4,000 pupils were soon in operation at different points in the State. Most of these schools were taught by colored teachers, and mainly supported by the freed people themselves. In Lexington, Frankfort, Danville, and, perhaps, one or two other places, public opinion looked somewhat favorably upon this innovation; but elsewhere great opposition to it was manifested not only in opprobrious words, but often in acts of violence. Still, in the face of all these discouragements, the work of enlightenment went on increasing, until, at the close of the school-year in 1868, 178 schools were reported in Kentucky, with an enrolment of 8,189 pupils.

For a time it seemed that liberal views would influence the legislation of this State in behalf of the education of its freedmen. By an act approved February 16, 1866, it was provided that the taxes collected from negroes and mulattoes should be "set apart as a separate fund for their use, one-half, if necessary, to go to the support of their paupers, and the remainder to the education of their children." Under this law, which permitted separate schools for colored children, but failed to make their establishment obligatory, a few hundred dollars were appropriated in accordance with its provisions, during the year following its enactment. In 1867, it was amended so as to entitle each colored child attending school for at least three months during the year to receive $2 50 from taxes collected within its county. But the assembly of 1868 rescinded the doings of the preceding assemblies and directed that all taxes collected from negroes and mulattoes should be devoted only to the support of their paupers.

It is well that in this desert there is an oasis or two for the eye to rest upon. Such an oasis is

BEREA COLLEGE.

Berea College was established in Madison county in 1858, and which was an outgrowth of the missionary work of the Rev. John G. Fee, a native Kentuckian, and of his co-laborers, under the care of the American Missionary Association. From its commencement its founders took quiet but firm ground against the spirit of caste; and it is, therefore, not to be wondered at that in the popular agitation consequent on the John Brown raid this school fell a prey to lawless fanaticism. Its teachers were driven into exile and its students scattered. The rebellion soon followed; and, after the war which crushed out both the rebellion and slavery, its cause, most of the Berea exiles returned to their homes. The school was re-opened January 1, 1866; and, although its trustees steadfastly adhered to their position not to tolerate distinctions of color and race, its success has exceeded the sanguine expectations of its friends. The last catalogue showed 301 students in attendance, about one-third of whom were white, and the remainder colored.

Berea College has an able corps of instructors, made up as follows, viz: Rev. J. G. Fee, A. M., president and lecturer on Biblical Antiquities and the Evidences of Christianity.

Rev. J A. R. Rogers, A. M., principal, and teacher of Latin and Mathematics.

Rev. W. E. Lincoln, teacher of Greek, Rhetoric, &c.

Teachers: Mrs. Louie M. Lincoln, Miss Eliza M. Snedeker, Miss Louisa Kaiser, Miss Jennie Donaldson.

THE ELY NORMAL SCHOOL, LOUISVILLE.

The Ely normal school was formally dedicated April 6, 1868, with appropriate exercises, including addresses by the Rev. Messrs. Hayward, Cravath, Right Rev. B. B. Smith, Bishop of Kentucky, the Hon. Bland Ballard, the Hon. James Speed, and others. It received its name in compliment to General John Ely, who, as chief superintendent of freedmen's affairs, first organized the bureau in this State, and by faithful labors in behalf of the freedmen, both in redressing their wrongs and in securing their just prerogatives, had merited their lasting gratitude.

This school is delightfully situated. It is located on a corner lot having one front of 100 feet on Broadway, the finest street in the city, and another of 220 feet on 14th street. In point of convenience and simple architectural beauty the building has no superior in the

city. It is a two-storied structure, built of the best quality of brick, is 50 by 70 feet in extent, and contains nine rooms suitably furnished for its purposes. The total cost of this handsome property was $20,000, of which sum the government appropriated the sum of $12,300.

This institution is under the control of the American Missionary Association, and has an attendance of over 400 pupils. Mr. A. H. Robbins, a graduate of Oberlin College is its superintendent.

The following tables, prepared by Professor Vashon, give the number of scholars and attendance, as well as teachers and studies for 1867–'68.

Table giving the number of schools, teachers, scholars, and attendance.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1866	....	....	35	....	....	58	....	....	4,122	....	.....
1867	88	14	107	36	98	124	2,765	3,606	6,371	5,396	84
1868	155	23	178	37	155	190	3,741	4,441	8,182	6,236	76

Table showing the number in different studies, and cost of maintaining schools.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expended in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced reading.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	834	3,160	1,883	2,310	1,332	2,355	388	$21,736	$10,027	$31,763
1868	984	3,584	2,476	2,810	1,770	2,810	490	17,138	20,996	38,134

LOUISIANA.

By the census of 1860 there were 708,002 inhabitants, of whom nearly one-half were blacks, viz: 331,726 slaves, and 18,647 free; a total of 350,373.

By the treaty of Paris, April 30, 1803, for the purchase of the province of Louisiana, it was stipulated that "the inhabitants of the ceded territory" should be admitted to "all the rights, advantages, and immunities of *citizens* of the United States." As early as January, 1805, a law was enacted by the territorial legislature of Orleans, containing a provision as to the mode of selling slaves at auction; and in May of that year an act was passed "for the punishment of crimes and misdemeanors," which declared that nothing in the act should be construed to extend to slaves, but that they should be punished for the specified offenses by "the laws of Spain for regulating her colonies." The "Black Code," approved June 7, 1806, was rigorous, but protected slaves from outrage. By it slaves were to have the enjoyment of Sundays; or, if employed, to receive 50 cents a day But by the same code it was declared that "no slave can possess anything in his own right or dispose of the proceeds of his industry without the consent of his master." No slave was permitted to go out of the plantation to which he belonged without written permission, under a penalty of 20 lashes. Free people of color were never "to presume to conceive themselves equal to the whites; but they ought to yield to them in every occasion, and never speak to or answer them disrespectfully," under the penalty of imprisonment, according to the nature of the offense;" for the third offense of striking a white man, the slave might suffer death.

In 1814 a law was passed forbidding any free negro or mulatto to settle in the Territory, or remain in it more than two weeks after coming into it from another State; and as a penalty, if unable to pay the fine and costs, he was to be sold to pay them.

Louisiana was admitted into the Union April 30, 1812, and in September of that year an

act was passed authorizing the organization of "a corps of militia," from among the free creoles who had paid a State tax. The commander of the corps was to be a white man, and the corps was to consist of four companies of 64 men each. In January, 1815, "an auxiliary troop of free men of color" was authorized to be raised in the parish of Natchitoches, not exceeding 80 men, who were to furnish themselves with arms and horses. Each member of the corps was to be the owner or the son of the owner "of some real property of the value of at least $150." In 1830 the prohibitions of the act of 1814 against the immigration of free people of color were re-asserted, with additional provisions of greater rigor. This act also provided that whoever should "write, print, publish, or distribute anything having a tendency to produce discontent among the free colored population, or insubordination among the slaves," should, on conviction, be imprisoned "at hard labor for life, or suffer death, at the discretion of the court." Whoever used language having a similar tendency, or was "instrumental in bringing into the State any paper, book, or pamphlet having such tendency," was to "suffer imprisonment at hard labor, not less than three years nor more than 21 years, or death, at the discretion of the court." It was also provided that "all persons who shall teach, or permit or cause to be taught, any slave to read or write, shall be imprisoned not less than one month nor more than 12 months."

From the headquarters, seventh military district, at Mobile, on the 21st of September, 1814, General Andrew Jackson addressed a proclamation to the free colored inhabitants of Louisiana, inviting them to participate in the military movements of that section of the country, "as a faithful return for the advantages enjoyed under her mild and equitable government," with the same pay in bounty money and land received by white soldiers. On the 18th of December he reviewed the troops, white and colored, and in the address calculated to awaken their enthusiastic ardor, he said to the colored soldiers: "I expected much from you, for I was not uninformed of those qualities which must render you so formidable to an invading foe. I knew that you could endure hunger and thirst, and all the hardships of war. I knew that you loved the land of your nativity, and that, like ourselves, you had to defend all that is most dear to man. But you surpass my hopes. I have found in you, united to those qualities, that noble enthusiasm which impels to great deeds."

In 1847 a system of public schools for "the education of white youth" was established, by which "one mill on the dollar, upon the *ad valorem* amount of the general list of taxable property," might be levied for its support. The income from the sale of the public lands donated by Congress was given for the same purpose. In 1857 an act was passed forbidding the emancipation of slaves; and this was the last legislation on the subject previous to the rebellion.

By the act of January 3, 1864, the article of the then existing civil code which declared that there were in the State "two classes of servants, to wit, free servants and the slaves," was changed so as to declare "there is only one class of servants in this State, to wit, free servants." In 1867 an act establishing a system of free schools in Baton Rouge limited the taxation for their support and their benefits to the white population. By the constitution, ratified April 23, 1868, all discrimination based on race, color, or previous condition, are prohibited in the public schools. Under the operations of this provision $70,000 were appropriated to the support of schools for colored children.

FREEDMEN'S SCHOOLS.

For the following account and tables of the schools for colored children in Louisiana, since 1865, we are indebted to Professor Vashon:

Prior to the rebellion the only schools for colored children in Louisiana, were a few private ones in the city of New Orleans, among that somewhat favored class of mixed blood known as "Creoles." Even these schools, although not in contravention of any specific law, were barely tolerated by a community whose criminal code declared, that to teach a slave to read and write, was an offense "having a tendency to excite insubordination among the servile class, and punishable by imprisonment at hard labor for not more than 21 years, or by death at the discretion of the court." Thus, even the wealthy tax-paying persons of the pro-

scribed race, as well as its less fortunate members, were debarred from any participation in the benefits of the system of public instruction provided by law.

Only one attempt to open a school for the poor of the colored people of this State is to be noted. Mrs. Mary D. Brice, of Ohio, a student of Antioch College, went with her husband to New Orleans in December, 1858, feeling that she was called by heaven to make this attempt. Poor and unaided, she was unable to begin her school until September, 1860; and so great was the popular outcry against the proceedings, that she was compelled to close it the following year. After the lapse of five months, receiving, as she believed, a divine intimation that she would be sustained, she reopened her school; and in spite of frequent warnings and threats, persisted in teaching until the triumph of the Union forces under Farragut, in April, 1862, made it safe for her to do so. With the advent of these forces, too, a few other private teachers appeared in response to the urgent call of the colored people for instruction.

In October, 1863, the first public colored schools were established by the commissioners of enrolment, created by order of Major General Banks, then commanding the Department of the Gulf. Soon seven of these were in operation under the charge of 23 teachers, and having an average attendance of 1,422 scholars. On March 22, 1864, General Banks issued his general order No. 38, which created a board of education for freedmen in the Department of the Gulf, with power to establish common schools, employ teachers, erect school houses, regulate the course of studies, and have, generally, the same authority that assessors, supervisors and trustees have in the northern States, in the matter of establishing and conducting common schools. The purpose of this order was stated to be "for the rudimental instruction of the freedmen of the department, placing within their reach those elements of knowledge which give intelligence and greater value to labor." And for the accomplishment of this purpose the board was empowered to assess and levy upon all real and personal property, taxes sufficient to defray the expense of the schools established, for the period of one year. On the first day of the following month, the schools already established were transferred to this board, which also accepted other schools that had been recently opened under the auspices of benevolent societies, and provided additional ones in 14 other parishes. In the performance of its duties the board encountered great difficulties, not only in obtaining suitable school accommodations, but also in taking measures to guard against attacks by guerilla bands, and to repress the opposition of persons professedly loyal. But it labored energetically, and in December, 1864, it reported as under its supervision 95 schools, 162 teachers, and 9,571 scholars.

The system of schools thus established continued to progress satisfactorily until November 7, 1865, when the power to levy the tax was suspended. This suddenly deprived the schools of nearly all their support. Through the restoration of property to pardoned rebels too, many of the buildings used for school purposes had to be given up. The consequence of all this was that the number of colored schools in Louisiana, which had increased to 150, was speedily cut down to 73. In this sad juncture of affairs the freedmen manifested the most profound solicitude, and thousands of them expresed a willingness to endure, and even petitioned for increased taxation, in order that the means for supporting their schools might be obtained.

But the depression in educational matters thus caused did not long continue. The northern benevolent societies came to the rescue, and labored with increased zeal in this crisis. The freedmen, too, strenuously insisted upon the fullfilment of the contracts which required planters to provide means of instruction for their children, while the planters themselves found their manifest profit in aiding to build school houses, thus securing willing and industrious laborers. Through the operation of these combined causes, the schools of Louisiana not only regained their highest number under the system created by military authority, but even doubled it, thus manifesting a prosperity which, it is hoped, will long continue.

Number of schools, teachers, and pupils, 1865 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	......	......	150	......	......	265	......	......	19,000	......	...
1866	......	......	73	......	......	90	......	......	3,348	2,093	62
1867	195	105	300	142	152	294	5,640	5,063	10,703	9,383	87
1868	162	63	225	151	122	273	5,622	5,123	10,745	8,265	76

Studies and expenses, 1867 *and* 1868.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	2,636	4,067	3,044	3,951	2,150	3,356	501	$39,230	$7,537	$46,767
1868	1,718	4,229	3,374	3,696	2,974	4,026	513	52,866	7,150	60,016

MAINE.

By the census of 1860 the population of Maine was 628,279, of whom 1,327 were free blacks.

By the constitution of 1820 the right of suffrage is not affected by color or race, and the common school is open to all children of the community for which it is established.

MARYLAND.

By the census of 1860 Maryland had 687,049 inhabitants, of whom 171,131 were blacks, viz: 87,189 slaves and 83,942 free.

By constitutional provision from 1776 down to 1867, the right of suffrage has been restricted to white male citizens having certain qualifications.

By early legal enactments, the earliest in 1633, the poor negro slave was treated as not to be numbered among the Christian inhabitants, and in 1692 it was provided that the sacrament of baptism should not be construed to work the freedom or manumission of any negro or slave. In 1695 "the frequent assembling of negroes within the province" was prohibited, and in 1723 this restriction was specifically extended "to the Sabbath and other holidays." Although numerous enactments of similar character were made down to the abolition of slavery, no statute of Maryland that we have read ever expressly prohibited the instruction of either its free or slave colored population. And there were not wanting at all times in her history men, like Bacon, Bray, and Boucher, who urged the duty of preparing the way for the emancipation of the slaves and of mitigating its evils by Christian teaching.

By the constitution of 1864 it is made imperative on the general assembly, at its first session after the adoption of this fundamental law, "to provide a uniform system of free public schools," and "to levy at each regular session an annual tax of not less than 10 cents on each $100 of taxable property, for the support of free public schools," to be distributed to the several counties "in proportion to their respective population between the ages of 5 and 20 years."

One of the earliest schools for colored children in Baltimore was the St. Frances academy, established in 1831, in connection with the Oblate Sisters of Providence Convent, some account of which has been given already.

The Wells school, so called in memorial of Nelson Wells, a colored man, who left by will

to trustees the sum of $7,000, the income alone to be applied to the education of free colored children, was opened about 1835, and has been maintained as a free school ever since.

In 1864 an association was formed in Baltimore, comprised principally of members of the Society of Friends, "for the moral and educational improvement of the colored people," and before the close of their first year's operations it had 7 schools in the city and 18 schools in the county in successful operation, with an aggregate of about 3,000 scholars, at an expense of $9,566; and at the end of the second year there were 79 schools, with 7,300 pupils, at an expense of $52,551.

In submitting a bill for "*a uniform system of public instruction for the State of Maryland,*" Dr. Van Bokkelen, the State superintendent, provided for the establishment of separate schools for children and youth of African descent, in all respects equal to schools designed for the education of other children and subject in every particular to the same rules as to teachers, text-books, &c. On these provisions he makes the following comments.:

"Maryland has given freedom to or removed the stain of degraded servility from more than one-fourth of her people. It remains for her to vindicate the policy and humanity of this act of emancipation, by fitting its recipients for their new privileges and obligations. Shall we leave these colored people in ignorance and permit them to degenerate until they become worthless and vicious, inmates of almshouses or of jails? or shall we educate them, make them intelligent, virtuous, useful? Upon the action of the general assembly depends the fact whether freedom shall be fraught with richest blessings, or leave the freedman no better than when he was a slave, unless he avails himself of his new facilities for change of residence and leaves us for a more favored latitude.

"I have no doubt as to what duty demands, no doubt but that duty will be our guide. These freedmen and those who have been degraded because of the same color as the slave, must be educated; they must be made intelligent and skillful, according to their capacity; they must have every opportunity that intelligent legislation and a sense of moral obligation can give them. It is their right as much as that of white children, for they have to do their part to develop the resources of the State, and they have to bear their full proportion of taxation upon every dollar of property which they own or may earn. Hence it is proposed that they shall have schools; schools adapted to their wants; schools as good as any in the State, and have a fair opportunity to show what they can do when they have a fair chance.

"Private benevolence has commenced the work which properly belongs to the State, and agencies are now in successful operation to which the taxes collected from colored persons can be paid over for the benefit of their own children.

"I am informed that the amount of school tax paid annually by these people to educate white children in the city of Baltimore for many years has been more than $500. The rule of fair play would require that this be refunded, unless the State at once provides schools under this title."

These recommendations were not heeded, but the superintendent, in his first annual report after the inauguration of the system, dated December 30, 1865, urges immediate and liberal action in the following earnest language:

"By the friends of universal education our system of public instruction will not be recognized as such, unless it provides for all the children in the State. Knowledge is better than ignorance, and virtue is better than vice, and therefore it is wise that the opportunity of instruction shall be proffered to all who have minds to be cultivated or moral sentiments to be developed. If ignorance leads to idleness and crowds our almhouses with paupers—if vice tends to crime and fills our jails and penitentiaries with wretched convicts—then it is good policy to open the school-house to every child whom ignorance may degrade or vice corrupt. It matters not what may be the color of the skin or the land of nativity, the shape of the cranium or the height of the cheek-bones, whether the child be of Indian or African, European or Asiatic descent; his ignorance will be a blight and his vice a curse to the community in which he lives.

"Whether the pauper be white or black, the tax to support him is equally great; and it costs as much to conduct the trial by which an Americo-African or a Chinese is convicted of crime, as it would were he of the superior race. All the economic arguments, therefore, which are advanced for the education of the white child are equally applicable to the black. They are even more forcible, because the colored race, having been so long degraded by ignorance, needs education the more.

"We cannot reconcile it to sound judgment that any portion of our thinking population be deprived of instruction; if knowledge be good for any, it is good for all. Yet we record the fact that Maryland, while devising a uniform system of what is termed public instruction, closed the school door against one-fourth of her people, they representing one-half of her laboring population.

"We all know that the prosperity of our State and the development of her vast resources depend upon the skill and intelligence of the industrial classes. The labor of Maryland is her wealth. The more persevering and expert the labor, the greater and more valuable its

product. The virtue of the laboring class is the strongest incentive to preserving industry, and the only certain assurance that the gains of diligence will be well applied and frugally consumed.

"What, then, must be the result if, through prejudice or because of a short-sighted policy, we cramp the minds and thus pervert the morals of one-half of our laborers? what if, instead of energizing the mass of muscle by an active brain, we withhold the influences of education? what if, instead of developing those moral sentiments which counsel temperance and frugality, we give the low vices a chance to grow in the rank soil of ignorance? Will the State become any richer by such a course? Will it be more desirable as a home? Will the poor-tax and jail-tax be lessened? Will property be more valuable or shall we be more honored because we have kept a portion of our people down? These are questions for citizens of Maryland to ponder. They have a very significant claim upon our thoughts. They involve our interests and even our dignity as a civilized and progressive community of intelligent and liberal-minded men. They are directly, intimately, connected with the education of the colored persons who are among us, who intend to remain with us, and whose services we need; the services of every one of them, and even more; for the cry from all sections of the State is that labor is scarce, and industrious workmen can find prompt and abundant work.

"Other reasons may be urged why schools ought to be opened for colored children. These people for many years have been to us faithful servants they have tilled our fields; and worked in our dwellings, performing acceptably all those duties which increase the conveniences and comforts of social life. They have been our hewers of wood and drawers of water. Generation after generation has followed our bidding and helped to earn for us what we possess. In our homes their kind hearts have attracted the love of our children, and the faithful nurse is remembered with affection and treated even with respect. Now that they are free and provide for themselves—and this by no act of theirs, but by our will—our duty is to educate them, to give them knowledge enough to know how to provide for themselves. Grant them at least this much of the inheritance, that they may be able to take care of themselves and their families, and become valuable members of the community. This we owe to the colored people. To educate them is our duty as well as our interest.

"The constitutional provision by which the school money is divided according to population, without regard to color, I think imposes upon us a legal obligation to educate all children without reference to caste, class, or condition; and therefore, in framing the bill which was presented to the general assembly, I considered it my duty, as under the constitution, to provide separate schools for colored children, just as I would for any other class that I found in the State which could not mingle with the white children.

"Money is appropriated and therefore ought to be used for colored schools. According to the constitution, all the money received from the 15-cent State tax is divided by the total number of persons between 5 and 20 years, white and black. Thus, $1 68 per year was apportioned to each person, and that sum multiplied by the total population between 5 and 20 years gave the amount received by each county. Charles county, for instance, has 6,466 persons between 5 and 20, she therefore receives $10,883 47. But by act of legislature she is released from the responsibility of educating 4,381 of those persons, they being black, and use the entire school money for the education of 2,082, thus receiving $5 for each. On the other hand, Alleghany county receives $18,264 24 for a population of 10,851, nearly all of whom have to be educated, there being only 464 colored children in the county; thus receiving only $1 94 for each pupil.

"This is an unjust discrimination in favor of certain counties. It alone would furnish sufficient reason for requiring separate schools to be opened for colored children, even were there no arguments upon economic and general grounds.

"If the money is given for a specific purpose, it is the duty of legislators to require its faithful application.

"While the State is holding back, an association of citizens, influenced by philanthropic motives, is endeavoring to make up our lack of duty. Their report shows 34 schools in the different parts of the State maintained by private liberality. The plan of operations for 1866 embraces 116 schools, at an expense of $56,000. If nothing more can be done, this association ought at least to be authorized to draw from the treasury the amount paid for each colored child, but I trust the general assembly will put into the law the sections reported by me last February, directing that separate schools shall be established for the instruction of youth of African descent, whenever as many as 40 claim the privileges of public instruction; these schools to be under the control of the board of school commissioners.

"No person of intelligence pretends to doubt the capacity of colored children to acquire knowledge. The experience of the past three years settles this point very satisfactorily; not only in our midst, but even in those portions of the south where slavery was more exacting, and the negroes were worked in large bodies upon the rice and cotton plantations, having very little intercourse with persons of any degree of intelligence. Our labor then will not be in vain, and I invoke the general assembly to manifest its wisdom and philanthropy by proffering the blessings of education to a class of children long neglected, whose parents have rendered faithful service, and by whose labor millions of dollars have been added to our wealth.

"I leave politicians to discuss the question of suffrage, but this much may be asserted, that while it is very doubtful whether the colored man is to be trusted with the ballot, there can be no doubt that he ought to have the spelling book."

In his second annual report, dated December 15, 1867, the superintendent submits the following remarks and statistics respecting schools for colored children:

"No public organized plans have been adopted for the education of this class of children, except in the city of Baltimore, as reported last year. Schools have been continued in the counties under the direction of the Baltimore Association for the Moral and Mental Improvement of Colored Persons, supported by contributions from benevolent associations, and the payment of tuition fees by the parents or friends of the children educated.

"The extent and efficiency of this work are indicated by the following statistics furnished by the actuary of the Baltimore association:

Summary of statistics of schools for colored persons for year ending June 30, 1867.

Total number of schools for colored persons	84
In the city of Baltimore	22
In 19 counties	62
Number of pupils registered	8,600
In the city	2,800
In the counties	5,800
Average attendance	6,600
Number of teachers	89
Number of months schools were open	9
Total expense of 84 schools, including books, furniture, and supervision	$61,808 50
Average cost of each school	734 62
Average salary of each teacher	364 46
Cost of each different pupil	7 19
Cost of each average pupil	9 35
Cost of each different pupil per month	80
Contributions to sustain the schools were received from—	
Citizens of Baltimore	$3,305 16
Appropriation of city council	20,000 00
Associations in other States	10,787 97
Friends in England and Ireland	1,144 23
Colored people in the State	23,371 14
Loan	3,200 00

"A normal school has been established in the city of Baltimore, in which teachers for colored schools are trained for their special work, and subjected to a rigorous examination before taking charge of a school. A large building has been purchased and furnished with all requisites for the success of the institution.

"The schools for colored people in the city of Baltimore were adopted by the city council in September, 1867, and are now conducted under the supervision of the city school commissioners.

"The large amount contributed by the colored people towards the support of their schools, being more than one-third the whole income, is proof of their interest in the education of their children, and is worthy of special commendation. It is the best guarantee that they will use faithfully whatever facilities may be given them for establishing a school system.

"Upon this important topic I have nothing to add to the views presented in previous reports. The opinions then advocated have been strengthened by observation during official visits. Whatever prejudice may have existed in the minds of some of our citizens on this subject is rapidly disappearing, and I think it may be asserted that, while there is not at present a willingness to educate colored children at the public expense, there is a readiness to grant them such facilities and encouragements as will not prove a burden upon the resources of the State."

The general school law adopted in 1865, in pursuance of Article VIII in the constitution as revised in 1867, by which the system established in 1865 is abolished, dispenses with a State superintendent, but provides for an annual report by the principal of the State normal school on the condition of the schools based on the reports of the county school commissioners. The legislature by special act relating to the colored population, passed March 30, 1868, provides as follows:

"Section 1. The total amount of taxes paid for school purposes by the colored people of any county, or in the city of Baltimore, together with any donations that may be made for the purpose, shall be set aside for the maintaining the schools for colored children, which schools shall be conducted under the direction of the board of county school commissioners or the board of commissioners of public schools of the city of Baltimore, and shall be subject to such rules and regulations as said respective board shall prescribe."

Professor Newell, in the report required of him on the condition of schools in the State for the year ending September 30, 1868, embraces the following items and statements respecting the colored schools:

"In the city of Baltimore there were 13 public schools for colored children with 1,312 pupils on the roll, under 29 teachers. These schools were maintained at an expense of $22,166, of which sum $2,856 were paid by the pupils in tuition."

The school commissioners of Frederick county, after referring with just pride to the action of the State in extending liberal aid to the instruction of the blind, of the deaf mute, of the orphan, of the juvenile offender, and the adult criminal, remark:

"And with all this her labor of amelioration is not complete, nor can it be until she meets squarely the question of State policy, which demands some attention to the mental and moral culture of her negro population. Shall this large and increasing population continue in its present ignorant and vicious condition? Does not every consideration of morality and enlarged benevolence, and indeed self-protection, plead the cause of the poor abject negro?

"Torn from his relation to his master by a violent political convulsion, in which he acted no voluntary part; thrown upon the world in his weakness, poverty, and ignorance, among a race with which, with equal advantages, he can never compete; is it wise, is it politic, that he should be left to grope back to his original barbarism? This is a question of grave importance, and should be met promptly and without prejudice. Its postponement will only increase the burden; its neglect is cruel: he is tantalized with a personal liberty, whilst the shackles of ignorance and vice are riveted upon his mind and soul. To ameliorate his condition he is powerless. Give him education or take back that which has been thrust upon him—his personal liberty—which is but the instrument of his extermination."

The school commissioner of Dorchester county remarks:

"In obedience to the order of the board last summer, I visited the Jenifer Institute, a school for colored children in the town of Cambridge. My report of the admirable condition of the school, the perfect discipline maintained, the evidences of real progress made by the pupils, induced the board to take some action with regard to these schools. In a short time trustees were nominated to the board by the patrons of these schools, and confirmed, so that we have had a sort of oversight of them. The colored people seem most anxious to be under the control of the board, and the warm interest taken in their schools by the commissioners and the examiner is evidently most grateful to them. The amount of their school tax will be divided between the schools, but this amount is so small that they continue to help themselves, with such assistance as they can get from the Baltimore association."

The following tables, prepared by Professor Vashon, will exhibit the progress of the schools for colored children, from 1865 to 1868:

Table giving the number of schools, teachers, scholars, and attendance.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	....	....	47	24	27	51	....	....	4,016	....	......
1866	....	....	86	....	....	101	....	....	8,144	....	......
1867	69	38	107	28	75	103	3,390	2,657	6,047	4,220	69
1868	102	32	134	44	110	154	2,882	2,576	5,458	4,547	83

Table showing the numbers in different studies and cost of maintaining schools.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expended in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced reading.	Writing.	Geograp'y.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	638	3,004	1,940	2,837	1,755	2,426	118	....	....	$92,781
1868	393	2,174	2,526	3,241	1,680	3,241	497	....	....	....

MASSACHUSETTS.

In Massachusetts, out of a population of 1,231,066, in 1860, there were 9,602 free colored persons. By the constitution and laws of the State, the right of suffrage, eligibility to office, and the advantages of the public schools of every grade, are open to all citizens without distinction of color.

SEPARATE SCHOOLS FOR COLORED CHILDREN PROHIBITED.

In Boston, as early as 1798, a separate school for colored children was established in the house of Primus Hall, a respectable colored man, and taught by Elisha Sylvester, a white man, at the expense of the parents sending to it. In 1800 a petition was presented to the school committee by 66 colored persons, praying for the establishment of a public school for their benefit. The petition was referred to a sub-committee, who reported in favor of granting the petition; but the request was refused by the town at a special meeting, in the call for which a notice that this question would be acted upon was inserted.

The private school, first taught by Elisha Sylvester, was continued until 1806 by two gentlemen, Messrs. Brown and Williams, from Harvard College. In 1806, the African meeting-house in Belknap street was erected, and the lower story was fitted up as a school-room for colored children, to which place the school kept in Mr. Hall's house was transferred, where it was continued until 1835, when a school-house was erected out of a fund left by Abiel Smith, known as the Smith school-house. Towards this school the town made an annual appropriation of $200, the remainder of the expense being defrayed by the parents, those who were able to do so paying 12½ cents per week. The erection of the Smith school-house was deemed at the time of sufficient importance to be marked by appropriate public exercises, as part of which Hon. William Minot delivered an address.

From 1809 to 1812 this school was taught by the well-known Prince Sanders, who was brought up in the family of a lawyer in Thetford, Vermont, and who in 1812 became a civil and diplomatic officer in the service of Christophe, Emperor of Hayti. He was brought to the city by the influence of Dr. Channing and Mr. Caleb Bingham, and was supported by the liberality of benevolent persons in Boston.

The African school in Belknap street was under the control of the school committee from 1812 to 1821, and from 1821 was under the charge of a special sub-committee. Among the teachers was John B. Russworm, from 1821 to 1824, who entered Bowdoin college in the latter year, and afterwards became governor of the colony of Cape Palmas in southern Liberia.

The first primary school for colored children in Boston was established in 1820, two or three of which were subsequently kept until 1855, when they were discontinued as separate schools, in accordance with the general law passed by the legislature in that year, which provided that, "in determining the qualifications of scholars to be admitted into any public school, or any district school in this commonwealth, no distinction shall be made on account of the race, color, or religious opinions of the applicant or scholar." "Any child, who, on on account of his race, color, or religious opinions should be excluded from any public or district school, if otherwise qualified," might recover damages in an action of *tort*, brought in the name of the child in any court of competent jurisdiction, against the city or town in which the school was located.

MICHIGAN.

The population of Michigan in 1860 was 749,113, of whom 6,799 were colored. Under a decision of the Supreme Court, a man with not over one-fourth negro blood is a "white man;" but for 15 years colored men (and women if liable to taxation) have been legal voters in school meetings, on an equality with whites. Colored children are included in the school census, and the public money is apportioned upon all between 5 and 20 years of age, the public schools being free to all alike.

MISSISSIPPI.

Mississippi had a population of 791,305 in 1860, of whom more than half were slaves, the number being 436,631; and the number of free colored people was only 773.

This State was originally principally embraced in the charter of Georgia of 1732, which extended to the Mississippi river. Its early laws pertaining to the colored race were almost exact transcripts of the laws of Louisiana Territory of 1804. An early act, July 20, 1805, prohibited the emancipation of any slave, except for some meritorious act for the benefit of his owner or of the Territory. An act of 1807 prohibited slaves from going from home without a pass, the penalty being limited to "20 stripes." Unlawful assemblies were to be atoned for by a penalty of 39 stripes. White men, free negroes, and mulattoes, found in company with slaves at an unlawful meeting, were fined $20 and costs for each offense.* In 1817 the western portion of the Territory became a State, and in 1819 a law was passed forbidding the immigration of any free negro or mulatto into the State. In 1818 provision was made for a separate burial place for "the bodies of slaves and colored persons" in the city of Natchez, with a penalty not exceeding $50 for the burial of any slave or colored person in any other place than the one designated. In 1822 the several acts relating to colored people were arranged together, and a provision was introduced declaring it to be unlawful for any slave to possess in his or her own right, any horse, mare, gelding, mule, or any other cattle, sheep, or hogs whatever;" or to cultivate cotton for his own use. Any negro or mulatto, bond or free, might be a "good witness" in cases where free negroes or mulattoes alone were interested; but the law adds, "if any negro or mulatto shall be found, upon proof made to any county or corporation court of this State, to have given false testimony, every such offender shall, without further trial, be ordered by said court to have one ear nailed to the pillory, and there to stand for the space of one hour, and then the said ear to be cut off, and thereafter the other ear nailed in like manner and cut off at the expiration of one other hour, and moreover to receive 39 lashes on his or her bare back, well laid on, at the public whipping-post, or such other punishment as the court shall think proper, not extending to life or limb." This law remained in force until the period of the rebellion.

By an act of January, 182[illegible], all meetings of slaves, free negroes, or mulattoes, above the number of five, at any place of public resort or meeting-house, in the night; or at any schoolhouse, for teaching, reading, or writing, in the day or night, was to be considered an unlawful assembly; and the penalty was lashes, "not exceeding 39." With the permission of their master or overseer, however, slaves might attend a meeting for religious worship, conducted by a regularly ordained or licensed white minister, or attended by at least two discreet and reputable white persons, appointed by some regular church or religious society.

In 1831 "every free negro or mulatto in the State, under the age of 50 years, and over the age of 16 years," was peremptorily ordered, within 90 days from the date of the passage of the act, to "remove and quit the State," and not to return on any pretense. The penalty for such a person remaining in the State was to be sold into slavery for five years. But exceptions were made in cases where licenses to remain were obtained from the court, founded upon evidence of "good character and honest deportment." By the same act it was "unlawful for any slave, free negro, or mulatto, to preach the gospel," under a penalty of 39 lashes, except to slaves upon the plantation where the one preaching belonged, and with the permission of the owner.

In March, 1846, an act was passed to establish a system of common schools, and creating a fund from "all escheats and all fines and forfeitures and amercements;" from licenses to hawkers; and all incomes from school lands. The several counties were authorized to levy a special tax, not exceeding the State tax, for common school purposes. In 1848 another act was passed to provide for common schools in certain counties in which a tax equal to 25 per cent. of the State tax was annually levied upon all the taxable property of the county, to constitute a common school fund for such counties. All acts prescribed that the schools were for the education of "white youth between the ages of 6 and 20 years."

FREEDMEN'S SCHOOLS.

The work of establishing schools for the freedmen has not been as successful in the State of Mississippi as in some of the other States, owing to the unsettled condition of public affairs; but at different points schools have been established, some under the direction of northern associations, some under the auspices of the churches, and some through the efforts of the freedmen themselves, who have manifested great eagerness to learn to read and write. Several of the largest landed proprietors have taken up the subject and are establishing schools for the children of persons employed on their estates.

The following statistics have been prepared by Professor Vashon from the reports of the Freedmen's Bureau:

Number of schools, teachers, and scholars—1865 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	....	....	34	....	....	68	....	....	4,310	....	....
1866	....	....	50	....	....	80	....	....	5,407	....	....
1867	53	27	80	80	19	99	2,689	3,019	5,708	4,449	77
1868	102	32	134	94	46	140	3,090	3,663	6,753	5,226	77

Studies and expenditures—1867–'68.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	443	2,833	2,532	2,426	1,242	2,426	156	$2,020	$5,588	$7,608
1868	838	2,960	2,796	2,509	1,677	4,584	257	5,689	5,143	10,8[illegible]

MISSOURI.

There were in this State, in 1860, 1,182,012 inhabitants, 118,503 of whom were colored; of these 114,931 were slaves, and 3,572 were free.

The province ceded by France to the United States in 1803, under the general name of Louisiana, was organized by Congress in 1804, by the names of the Territory of Orleans, and the District of Louisiana, the latter embracing the territory now forming the States of Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, the greater part of Minnesota, and the region west of these States to the Rocky mountains. In 1805 the District of Louisiana was called the Territory of Louisiana; and this name was again changed in 1812 to that of the Territory of Mississippi. The first legislation relating to the colored people in Missouri was while it was in a territorial condition, by the governor and judges of the Indian Territory, who were authorized by Congress to make laws for the district. This act of 1804 provided that no slave should go from the tenements of his master "without a pass or some letter or token;" the penalty was "stripes at the discretion of the justice of the peace." If a slave presumed to go upon any other plantation than that of his master, without leave in writing from his or her owner, not being absent upon lawful business, the penalty was "10 lashes."

No master or mistress of slaves was permitted to suffer the meeting of slaves upon his or her plantation above four hours at any one time, without leave of the owner or owners. The penalty was $3 for each offense, increased by $1 for each negro present at the meeting, above the number five. Any white person, free negro, or mulatto, who should be found in company with slaves at any unlawful meeting, was fined $3 for each offense; and, on failure to

pay the fine and costs, he was to receive "20 lashes well laid on by order of the justice." All trading with or by slaves was strictly forbidden, "except with the consent of the master, owner, or overseer."

In 1817 the general assembly of the Territory of Missouri passed a more stringent act against slaves traveling without permission. In 1822, after Missouri was admitted as a State, more severe penalties were attached to the offense of trading with slaves; and in 1833 "slaves or free persons of color" were forbidden to assemble at any store, tavern, grocery, grog or dram shop" at any time by night or day, "more especially on the Sabbath day, commonly called Sunday."

In 1845 free negroes and mulattoes were forbidden to remain in the State except on license. Three days were allowed to depart, and one additional day for every 20 miles travel was allowed, to escape to some free State, on the penalty of fine, imprisonment, and lashes. In 1847 it was enacted that "no person shall keep or teach any school for the instruction of negroes or mulattoes in reading or writing, in this State." No meetings were allowed for religious worship, where the services were conducted by negroes or mulattoes, unless some sheriff or other officer or justice of the peace were present, "to prevent all seditious speeches and disorderly and unlawful conduct of every kind." Such meetings, held in violation of these provisions, were deemed unlawful, and the penalty was a "fine not exceeding $500 or imprisonment not exceeding six months, or both fine and imprisonment." No free negro or mulatto was henceforth to be permitted to come into the State.

By the present constitution and laws of the State, provision is made for a free public school system; for the appointment of a State superintendent of schools. In each county a county superintendent is elected every two years. Each congressional township composes a school district, under the control, in matters of education, of a board of education. Smaller divisions are regarded as sub-districts, under the management of local directors. The excellent system of public schools in the city of St. Louis includes a normal school, a high school 31 district schools, and three colored schools.

The following table, prepared by Professor Vashon, gives the progress of schools for colored youth from 1865 to 1868:

Table giving the number of schools, teachers, scholars, and attendance.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	....	....	24	....	....	31	....	....	1,925	....	....
1866	....	....	38	....	....	46	....	....	2,698	....	....
1867	44	11	55	32	30	62	1,290	1,469	2,759	1,918	69
1868	49	11	60	39	31	70	2,196	2,016	4,212	3,009	71

Table showing the numbers in different studies, and cost of maintaining schools.

Year.	Number of scholars in the different studies pursued.							Expended in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	237	1,074	604	881	523	837	87	....	....	....
1868	757	1,623	2,029	2,520	1,698	1,995	695	....	....	....

NEW YORK.

By the census of 1860 the total population of the State of New York was 3,880,735, of which number 49,005 were free colored.

By the constitution of 1777 the right of suffrage was extended to every male inhabitant of full age, without respect to color; but in the revision of 1821 this right was so far abridged that "no man of color, unless he shall have been for three years a citizen of this State and for one year next preceding any election shall be seized and possessed of a freehold estate of $250 over and above all debts and incumbrances charged thereon, and shall have been actually rated and paid a tax thereon, shall be entitled to vote at any such election. And no person of color shall be subject to direct taxation unless he shall be seized and possessed of such real estate as aforesaid." In 1846 and in 1850 the question of equal suffrage to colored persons was submitted separately, on the adoption of each revised constitution of those dates, and rejected by large majorities on both occasions. In 1867 the convention for revising the constitution adopted an article giving equality of suffrage to colored people, to be voted upon separately.

By act of 1841 the legislature authorized any school district, with the approbation of the school commissioners of the town in which the district was situated, to establish a separate school for the colored children of such district. This was not intended to deny them the privileges of the regular school, to which they were declared by the superintendent to be equally with all others entitled. In the revised school code of 1864 the school authorities of any city or incorporated village organized under special acts may establish separate schools for children and youth of African descent resident therein; "and such schools shall be supported in the same manner and to the same extent as the schools supported therein for white children; and they shall be subject to the same rules and regulations and be furnished with facilities for instruction equal to those furnished to the white schools therein."

EARLY EFFORTS OF ELIAS NEAU AT NEW YORK.

A school for negro slaves was opened in the city of New York in 1704 by Elias Neau, a native of France, and a catechist of the "Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts." After a long imprisonment for his public profession of faith as a Protestant, he founded an asylum in New York. His sympathies were awakened by the condition of the negroes in slavery in that city, who numbered about 1,500 at that time. The difficulties of holding any intercourse with them seemed almost insurmountable. At first he could only visit them from house to house, after his day's toil was over; afterwards he was permitted to gather them together in a room in his own house for a short time in the evening. As the result of his instructions at the end of four years, in 1708, the ordinary number under his instruction was 200. Many were judged worthy to receive the sacrament at the hands of Mr. Vesey, the rector of Trinity church; some of whom became regular and devout communicants, remarkable for their orderly and blameless lives.

But soon after this time some negroes of the Carmantee and Pappa tribes formed a plot for setting fire to the city, and murdering the English, on a certain night. The work was commenced but checked, and after a short struggle the English subdued the negroes. Immediately a loud and angry clamor arose against Elias Neau, his accusers saying that his school was the cause of the murderous attempt. He denied the charge in vain; and so furious were the people that, for a time, his life was in danger. The evidence, however, at the trial proved that the negroes most deeply engaged in the plot, were those whose masters were most opposed to any means for their instruction. Yet, the offense of a few was charged upon the race; and even the provincial government lent its authority to make the burden of Neau the heavier. The common council passed an order forbidding negroes "to appear in the streets after sunset, without lanthorns or candles;" and as they could not procure these, the result was to break up the labors of Neau. But at this juncture Governor Hunter interposed and went to visit the school of Neau, accompanied by several officers of rank, and by the society's missionaries; and he was so well pleased that he gave his full approval to the work, and in a public proclamation called upon the clergy of the province to exhort

their congregations to extend their approval also. Vesey, the good rector of Trinity church, had long watched the labors of Neau and witnessed the progress of his scholars, as well as assisted him in them; and finally the governor, the council, mayor, recorder, and two chief justices of New York joined in declaring that Neau "in a very eminent degree deserved the countenance, favor and protection of the society." He therefore continued his labors until 1722, when, "amid the unaffected sorrow of his negro scholars and the friends who honored him for their sake, he was removed by death."

The work was then continued by "Huddlestone, then schoolmaster in New York;" and he was succeeded by Rev. Mr. Wetmore, who removed in 1726 to Rye; whereupon the Rev. Mr. Colgan was appointed to assist the rector of Trinity church, and to carry on the instruction of the negroes. A few years afterwards Thomas Noxon assisted Mr. Colgan, and their ioint success was very satisfactory. Rev. R. Charlton, who had been engaged in similar labor at New Windsor, was called to New York in 1732, where he followed up the work successfully for 15 years, and was succeeded by Rev. Samuel Auchmuty. Upon the death of Thomas Noxon, in 1741, Mr. Hildreth took his place, who in 1764 wrote that "not a single black admitted by him to the holy communion had turned out badly, or in any way disgraced his profession." Both Auchmuty and Hildreth received valuable support from Mr. Barclay, who, upon the death of Mr. Vesey, in 1746, had been appointed to the rectory of Trinity church.

OTHER EARLY LABORERS FOR THE SLAVES.

The labors of Neau and others in New York, for a period of half a century, had their counterpart in many other places by other laborers. Taylor and Varnod, missionaries of the society in South Carolina, bestowed diligent care in giving religious instruction to the slaves; and they gratefully confess to have received assistance from the masters and mistresses, which was the more welcome, on account of the ill will and opposition which any attempt to ameliorate the condition of slaves provoked among most of the British planters of that day. In the ranks of the Pennsylvania missionaries was Hugh Neill, once a distinguished Presbyterian minister in New Jersey. During the 15 years of his ministry he labored with zeal and success for the instruction of the negroes. Dr. Smith, provost of the college of Philadelphia, engaged in the same work, and at the death of Neill, in 1766, was placed on the list of the society's missionaries. Dr. Jenney was rector of St. Peter's and Christ church in Philadelphia from 1742 to 1762, and during his incumbency the society appointed a catechetical lecturer in that church for the instruction of negroes and others. William Sturgeon, a student of Yale College, was selected for that office and sent to England to receive ordination. He entered upon his duties in 1747, and discharged them for 19 years. In 1763 a complaint of neglect of duty was brought before the society against him, in not catechizing the negro children; but, upon a full investigation by the rector and four vestrymen its falsehood was shown and his stipend was increased.

In 1706 Dr. Le Jean, a missionary of the society, was appointed to the mission at Goose creek, near Charleston, South Carolina, where he labored 11 years, especially among the negroes, and he succeeded in carrying on a systematic course of instruction. Dr. Le Jean was preceded in the same work by Rev. Mr. Thomas, in 1695, who had not only taught 20 negroes to read and write, but induced several ladies to engage in the work; among them was Mrs. Haige Edward, who instructed several of her slaves. I hope, writes Rev. Mr. Taylor, their example will provoke some masters and mistresses to take the same care with their negroes.

Bishop Gibson, who presided over the See of London from 1723 to 1748, did not hesitate to urge forward the work of Christian love in behalf of the negro slave. He wrote two public letters upon this subject in 1727; one exhorting masters and mistresses of families "to encourage and promote the instruction of their negroes in the Christian faith;" and the other, urging and directing the missionaries to assist in the work.

The bishop of London, in 1727, published a letter to the masters and mistresses of families in the English plantations abroad, exhorting them to encourage and promote the instruction of the negroes in the Christain faith, and in it remarks: "Considering the greatness of the

profit there is received from their labors, it might be hoped that all Christian masters—those especially who are possessed of considerable numbers—should also be at some small expense in providing for the instruction of those poor creatures, and that others, whose numbers are less, and who dwell in the same neighborhood, should join in the expense of a common teacher for the negroes belonging to them."

In the year 1733, among other Africans consigned to Michael Denton, of Annapolis, Maryland, was one of delicate constitution, who was sold to a gentleman living on the eastern shore. One day a white boy found him in the woods apparently engaged in prayer, and mischievously disturbed him by throwing sand in his face. Rendered unhappy by this and similar treatment, he ran away to a neighboring county, where his dignified but melancholy bearing excited attention. An old negro was at last found who understood his language, and from him it was discovered that the slave had been a foulah in Africa. He had in his possession slips of paper on which were written certain characters, which being sent to Oxford proved to be in the Arabic language. General Oglethorpe became deeply interested in the man and redeemed him from captivity. On his arrival in England he was treated with marked attention, dined with the Duke of Montague, received a gold watch from the Queen, and assisted Sir Hans Sloane in the translation of Arabic manuscripts. This romantic occurrence led to much discussion as to the duty of planters to the negro, and in 1735, when Oglethorpe was member of Parliament, an act was passed prohibiting the importation of black slaves or negroes into the province of Georgia.

In 1749 the Rev. Thomas Bacon, of Talbot county, Maryland, delivered some remarkable discourses to masters and mistresses, as well as to his "beloved black brethren and sisters," which were published in London, and in the present century reprinted at Winchester, Virginia, by the late Bishop Meade.

Williams, bishop of Chichester, in a discourse before the Society for Foreign Parts, says:

"These negroes are slaves, and for the most part treated as worse, or rather by some as if they were a different species, as they are of a different color, from the rest of mankind. The Spaniards are reproached for driving the poor Americans to the fort like the cattle of the field, but our slaves, on the other hand, are driven from it."

Bishop Butler, author of the Analogy of Religion, declared in a discourse that the slaves of the British colonies ought not to be treated "merely as cattle or goods, the property of their master. Nor can the highest property possible to be acquired in these servants cancel the obligation to take care of their religious instructions. Despicable as they may appear in our eyes, they are the creatures of God."

Archbishop Secker, in 1741, recommended the "employing of young negroes, prudently chosen, to teach their countrymen," and Dr. Bearcroft, in 1744, alludes to this project in a discourse before the Society for Propagating the Gospel in Foreign Parts, in these words:

"The society had lately fallen upon a happy expedient by the purchase of two young negroes, whom they have qualified by a thorough instruction in the principles of Christianity, and, by teaching them to read well, to become schoolmasters to their fellow-negroes. The project is but of yesterday, but the reverend person who proposed, and under whose care and inspection the two youths are placed, hath acquainted the society that it succeeds to his heart's desire; that one school is actually opened at Charles Town, South Carolina, which hath more than 60 young negroes under instruction, and will annually send out between 30 and 40 of them well instructed in religion and capable of reading their Bibles, who may carry home and diffuse the same knowledge which they shall have been taught among their poor relations and fellow-slaves. And in time schools will be spread in other places and in other colonies to teach them to believe in the Son of God, who shall make them free indeed."

Bishop Warburton, in 1766, says:

"From the free savages I come now to the savages in bonds. By those I mean the vast multitudes yearly stolen from the opposite continent and sacrificed by the colonists to their great idol, the god of gain. But what, then, say these sincere worshippers of mammon? They answer: 'They are our own property which we offer up.' Gracious God! talk as of herds of cattle, of property in rational creatures, creatures endowed with all our faculties, possessing all our qualities but that of color, our brethren both by nature and grace, shocks all the feelings of humanity and the dictates of common sense."

Bishop Lowth, formerly professor of poetry in the Oxford University, speaking of negroes in America, said:

"From their situation they are open and accessible to instruction, and by their subjection

are under the immediate influence and in the hands of those who ought to be their instructors. These circumstances, so favorable in appearance, have not been productive of the good effects which might have been expected. If their masters, tyrannizing over this people with a despotism beyond example, are determined to keep their minds in a state of bondage still more grievous than that in which they hold their bodies; should not suffer them to be instructed; * * * * should this in reality be a common practice among their masters, 'Woe unto you.'"

Bishop Porteus, whose mother was a native of Virginia, and whose father had resided there many years, in one of his discourses alludes to plantation negroes as being generally considered as mere machines and instruments to work with, rather than beings with minds to be enlightened and souls to be saved.

Bishop Wilson (Sodor and Man) was another distinguished clergyman, who watched for the opportunity to aid the missionaries who were laboring in the colonies for the instruction of the Indians and negroes; and in 1740 he published an "Essay towards the Instruction for the Indians," the germ of which was written by him in 1699, on "The Principles and Duties of Christianity," for the use of the people of the Isle of Man, and was the first book ever printed in the Manx language. He bequeathed £50 for the education of negro children in Talbot county.

In 1711 Bishop Fleetwood preached the anniversary sermon before the society, in which he urged the duty of instructing the negroes, the effect of which afterwards, on the heart of a prejudiced planter in North Carolina, is shown by an extract from a letter by Giles Rainsford, one of the society's missionaries. "By much importunity," he says, "I prevailed on Mr. Martin to let me baptize three of his negroes. All the arguments I could make use of would scarce effect it, till Bishop Fleetwood's sermon preached before the society turned the scale." These are a few only of the many instances going to show the prevailing sentiment of the laborers of a century and a half ago.

SCHOOLS FOR COLORED CHILDREN BY THE MANUMISSION SOCIETY.

The first school for colored children in the city of New York, established by the Manumission Society, was denominated "The New York African Free School."

It appears that in the years 1785 and 1786 the business of kidnapping colored people and selling them at the south was carried on in this city and vicinity to such an extent as to provoke public attention to the necessity of taking some measures to check this growing evil.

In the city of Philadelphia a society had already been formed to protect the blacks from similar dangers there. A deputation was sent from New York to that society for information, and to procure a copy of its constitution, which assisted much in the organization of "The New York Society for Promoting the Manumission of Slaves, and Protecting such of them as have been, or may be, Liberated." The following are the names of the members of this society, who composed the first board of trustees of the "New York African Free School:"

Melancthon Smith, Jno. Bleecker, James Cogswell, Lawrence Embree, Thomas Burling, Willett Leaman, Jno. Lawrence, Jacob Leaman, White Mattock, Mathew Clarkson, Nathaniel Lawrence, Jno. Murray, junior.

Their school, located in Cliff street, between Beekman and Ferry, was opened in 1786, taught by Cornelius Davis, attended by about 40 pupils of both sexes, and appears, from their book of minutes, to have been satisfactorily conducted. In the year 1791 a female teacher was added to instruct the girls in needlework, the expected advantages of which measure were soon realized, and highly gratifying to the society. In 1808 the society was incorporated, and in the preamble it is recorded that "a free school for the education of such persons as have been liberated from bondage, that they may hereafter become useful members of the community," has been established. It may be proper here to remark that the good cause in which the friends of this school were engaged was far from being a popular one. The prejudices of a large portion of the community were against it; the means in the hands of the trustees were often very inadequate, and many seasons of discouragement were witnessed; but they were met by men who, trusting in the divine support, were resolved neither to relax their exertions nor to retire from the field.

Through the space of about 20 years they struggled on; the number of scholars varying from 40 to 60, until the year 1809, when the Lancasterian, or Monitorial, system of instruction was introduced, (this being the second school in the United States to adopt the plan,) under a new teacher, E. J. Cox, and a very favorable change was produced, the number of pupils, and the efficiency of their instruction being largely increased.

Soon after this, however, in January, 1814, their school-house was destroyed by fire, which checked the progress of the school for a time, as no room could be obtained large enough to accommodate the whole number of pupils. A small room in Doyer street was temporarily hired, to keep the school together till further arrangements could be made, and an appeal was made to the liberality of the citizens and to the corporation of the city, which resulted in obtaining from the latter a grant of two lots of ground in William street, on which to build a new school-house; and in January, 1815, a commodious brick building, to accommodate 200 pupils, was finished on this lot, and the school was resumed with fresh vigor and increasing interest. In a few months the room became so crowded that it was found necessary to engage a separate room, next to the school, to accommodate such of the pupils as were to be taught sewing. This branch had been for many years discontinued, but was now resumed under the direction of Miss Lucy Turpen, a young lady whose amiable disposition and faithful discharge of her duties rendered her greatly esteemed, both by her pupils and the trustees. This young lady, after serving the board for several years, removed with her parents to Ohio, and her place was supplied by Miss Mary Lincrum, who was succeeded by Miss Elisa J. Cox, and the latter by Miss Mary Ann Cox, and she by Miss Carolina Roe, under each of whom the school continued to sustain a high character for order and usefulness.

The school in William street increasing in numbers, another building was found necessary, and was built on a lot of ground 50 by 100 feet square, on Mulberry street, between Grand and Hester streets, to accommodate 500 pupils, and was completed and occupied, with C. C. Andrews for teacher, in May, 1820.

General Lafayette visited this school September 10, 1824, an abridged account of which is copied from the Commercial Advertiser of that date:

Visit of Lafayette to the African school in 1824.

"At 1 o'clock the general, with the company invited for the occasion, visited the African free school, on Mulberry street. This shcool embraces about 500 scholars; about 450 were present on this occasion, and they are certainly the best disciplined and most interesting school of children we have ever witnessed. As the general was conducted to a seat, Mr. Ketchum adverted to the fact that as long ago as 1788 the general had been elected a member of the institution (Manumission Society) at the same time with Grenville Sharp and Thomas Clarkson, of England. The general perfectly remembered the circumstance, and mentioned particularly the letter he had received on that occasion from the Hon. John Jay, then president of the society. One of the pupils, Master James M. Smith, aged 11 years, then stepped forward and gracefully delivered the following address:

"'GENERAL LAFAYETTE: In behalf of myself and fellow schoolmates, may I be permitted to express our sincere and respectful gratitude to you for the condescension you have manifested this day in visiting this institution, which is one of the noblest specimens of New York philanthropy. Here, sir, you behold hundreds of the poor children of Africa sharing with those of a lighter hue in the blessings of education; and while it will be our pleasure to remember the great deeds you have done for America, it will be our delight also to cherish the memory of General Lafayette as a friend to African emancipation, and as a member of this institution.'

"To which the general replied, in his own characteristic style, 'I thank you, my dear child.'

"Several of the pupils underwent short examinations, and one of them explained the use of the globes and answered many questions in geography."

PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR COLORED CHILDREN.

These schools continued to flourish, under the same management, and with an attendance varying from 600 in 1824 to 862 in 1832, in the latter part of which year the Manumission Society, whose schools were now in part supported by the public fund, applied to the Public School Society for a committee of conference to effect a union. It was felt by the trustees

that on many accounts it was better that the two sets of schools should remain separate, but, fearing further diversion of the school fund, it was desirable that the number of societies participating should be as small as possible, and arrangements were accordingly made for a transfer of the schools and property of the elder society. After some delay, in consequence of legislative action being found necessary to give a title to their real estate, on the 2d of May, 1834, the transfer was effected, all their schools and school property passing into the hands of the New York Public School Society, at an appraised valuation of $12,130 22.

The aggregate register of these schools at the time of the transfer was nearly 1,400, with an average attendance of about one-half that number. They were placed in charge of a committee with powers similar to the committee on primary schools, but their administration was not satisfactory, and it was soon found that the schools had greatly diminished in numbers, efficiency, and usefulness. A committee of inquiry was appointed, and reported that, in consequence of the great anti-slavery riots, and attacks on colored people, many families had removed from the city, and of those that remained many kept their children at home; they knew the Manumission Society as their special friends, but knew nothing of the Public School Society; the reduction of all the schools, but one, to the grade of primary, had given great offense; also the discharge of teachers long employed, and the discontinuance of rewards, and taking home of spelling books; strong prejudices had grown up against the Public School Society. The committee recommended a prompt assimilation of the colored schools to the white; the establishment of two or more upper schools in a new building; a normal school for colored monitors, and the appointment of a colored man as school agent, at $150 a year. The school on Mulberry street at this time, 1835, was designated Colored Grammar School No. 1. A. Libolt was principal, and registered 317 pupils; there were also six primaries, located in different parts of the city, with an aggregate attendance of 925 pupils.

In 1836 a new school building was completed in Laurens street, opened with 210 pupils, R. F. Wake, (colored,) principal, and was designated Colored Grammar School No. 2. Other means were taken to improve the schools, and to induce the colored people to patronize them; the principal of No. 1, Mr. Libolt, was replaced by Mr. John Paterson, colored, a sufficient assurance of whose ability and success we have in the fact that he has been continued in the position ever since. A "Society for the Promotion of Education among Colored Children" was organized, and established two additional schools, one in Thomas street, and one in Center, and a marked improvement was manifest; but it required a long time to restore the confidence and interest felt before the transfer, and even up to 1848 the aggregate attendance in all the colored schools was only 1,375 pupils.

In the winter of 1852 the first evening schools for colored pupils were opened; one for males and one for females, and were attended by 379 pupils. In the year 1853 the colored schools, with all the schools and school property of the Public School Society, were transferred to the "Board of Education of the City and County of New York," and still further improvements were made in them; a normal school for colored teachers was established, with Mr. John Paterson, principal, and the schools were graded in the same manner as those for white children. Colored Grammar School No. 3 was opened at 78 West Fortieth street, Miss Caroline W. Simpson, principal, and in the ensuing year three others were added; No. 4, in One Hundred and Twentieth street, (Harlem,) Miss Nancy Thompson, principal; No. 5, at 101 Hudson street, P. W. Williams, principal; and No. 6, at 1167 Broadway, Prince Leveridge, principal. Grammar Schools Nos. 2, 3, and 4, had primary departments attached, and there were also at this time three separate primary schools, and the aggregate attendance in all was 2,047. Since then the attendance in these schools has not varied much from these figures. The schools' themselves have been altered and modified from time to time, as their necessity seemed to indicate; though under the general management of the Board of Education, they have been in the care of the school officers of the wards in which they are located, and while in some cases they received the proper attention, in others they were either wholly, or in part, neglected. A recent act has placed them directly in charge of the Board of Education, who have appointed a special committee to look after their interests, and measures are being taken by them which will give this class of schools every opportunity and convenience possessed by any other, and, it is hoped, will also improve the grade of its scholarship.

The organization and attendance of these schools in 1868 is shown in the following table, compiled from information received from the city superintendent of schools, Mr. S. S. Randall:

Schools.	Date of organization.	Teachers.				Pupils.		Location.
		Principals.	Assistants.	Of music.	Of drawing.	Whole number registered.	Average attendance.	
No. 1—Boys' department	1820	John Peterson	5	1	1	399	149	135 Mulberry street, 14th ward.
Girls' department		Eliza Gwynne	5			380	142	
No. 2—Boys' department	1836	Ransom F. Wake	2	2	1	(*)	(*)	51 and 53 Laurens street, 8th ward.
Girls' department		Fanny Tompkins	5			147	64	
Primary departm't		Sarah Ennalls	3			470	122	
No. 3—Grammar departm't	1853	Chas. L. Reason	3	1	1	102	46	78 West Fortieth street, 20th ward.
Primary departm't		Cath. A. Thomps'n	2			207	62	
No. 4—Grammar departm't	1840	S. J. S. Tompkins	5	1	1	310	143	98 West Seventeenth street, 16th ward.
Primary departm't		Elizabeth Pierce	3			....	......	
No. 5	1854	Mary E. Tripp	....	....	....	41	11	One-hundred-and-twentl'th st., (Harlem,) 12th ward.
No. 6	1868	Mary M. Moreau	1	....	....	(*)	(*)	155 Stanton st., 17th ward.
Evening schools.								
No. 1	1852	S. J. S. Tompkins	....	....	....	(*)	(†)	In building of school No. 2.
No. 2	1852	Ransom F. Wake	....	....	....	(*)	(†)	In building of school No. 4.
No. 3	1868	Mary M. Moreau	....	....	....	(*)	(†)	In building of school No. 6.
Normal school	1854	Chas. L. Reason Carol'e Hamilton	....	....	....	......	......	In building of school No. 1, on Saturdays.
Total	......	......	34	....	....	2,056	739	

GRADE OF SCHOLARSHIP.—Colored boys' grammar schools, 78; colored girls' grammar schools, 71½; colored primary schools, 76½; total of all the schools in the city, 80 3-7. (Whole number of sessions, 430 in each.)

* No report. † About 45 in each.

In addition to and independent of these schools there are four primaries in connection with the Colored Orphan Asylum at One hundred and fifty-first street. Their aggregate register last year was 264 pupils. There are also two or three small private primary schools for colored children in the city, and these, with the before-mentioned, comprise all those now in existence. The teachers in these schools are, with but two exceptions—the principal of No. 6 and the assistant principal of No. 1—of the same race as their pupils. The pupils are, for the most part, children of laboring people; many of them are put out to service at an early age, and only get a chance to go to school when they are out of a situation; while very few are able, or take sufficient interest to attend regularly all of the time; which in part accounts for the low grade of scholarship in this class of schools; but there has been an improvement in this respect of late, and, in view of the efforts being made in their behalf, we are encouraged to believe that their future history will show a brighter record.

GERRITT SMITH'S SCHOOL AT PETERBORO'.

In any historical survey of the progressive development of schools for colored people, the timely and liberal aid and efforts of Hon. Gerritt Smith, of Peterboro', New York, should not be omitted. This eminent philanthropist was one of the earliest to extend liberal aid to several, as well as the assurance of his sympathy to all, institutions which opened their doors to children and youth of the colored population. He established and maintained for a number of years in his own village a school, which was attended by colored pupils from different parts of the country. He was an early and very liberal patron of Oneida Institute, the doors of which were ever open to pupils without respect to complexion or race. He gave to it between $3,000 and $4,000 in cash, and 3,000 acres of land in Vermont. He did even more for Oberlin College, in Ohio, *because* of its hospitality to colored pupils. He gave it a few thousand dollars in money and 20,000 acres of land in Virginia, which brought to the

institution probably more than $50,000. The New York Central College, at McGrawville, where colored and white young men and women were instructed together, cost Mr. Smith several thousand dollars more.

NORTH CAROLINA.

The total population of North Carolina in 1860 was 992,622, of whom 361,522 were colored; and of these 331,059 were slaves, and 30,463 free. It was not until 1729 that any law relating to assemblies of slaves, free negroes, and mulattoes was enacted in North Carolina, when slaves were also forbidden to hunt or range over the lands not belonging to their owner; and when thus trespassing, the owner of the land on which they were found was authorized to whip them, "not exceeding 40 lashes." And, by the same law, "if any loose, disorderly, or suspected person, not being a white person, was found drinking, eating, or keeping company with slaves in the night time," he was liable to a penalty of 40 lashes, unless he could give a "satisfactory account of his behavior." If negroes belonging to one man were found in the quarters or kitchens of the negroes of another man, they were liable to a penalty of 40 lashes, while those who entertained them were subject to 20. In 1741 slaves not wearing a livery were forbidden to leave the plantation to which they belonged. In 1777 it was enacted that no negro or mulatto slave should be set free, "except for meritorious services." Among other enactments of about this period were those forbidding free negroes or mulattoes to entertain any slave during the Sabbath, or to trade with slaves, the penalties for either offense being severe. In 1812 slaves were forbidden to act as pilots on the coast of the State, and in 1830 it was provided that the owner of any slave consenting to such service should forfeit the value of the slave. This law was still in force in 1860.

Until the year 1835 public opinion permitted the colored residents of this State to maintain schools for the education of their children. These were taught sometimes by white persons, but more frequently by teachers of the same race as their pupils. After this period colored children could be educated only by finding a teacher within the circle of their own family, or out of the limits of the State; in which latter event they were regarded as expatriated, and prohibited by law from returning home. The public school system of North Carolina declared that no descendant from negro ancestors, to the fourth generation inclusive, should enjoy the benefit thereof. Thus matters continued until the success of the Union forces opened a way for educational effort. In 1863 thousands of freedmen had taken refuge at Newbern and on Roanoke island, and to both of these places the American Missionary Association sent teachers who opened schools. As in Virginia, so, too, in North Carolina other schools followed close upon the march of the United States troops. Immediately upon the entry of the latter into Wilmington, in 1865, the teachers of the association also made their appearance there, and were hailed by the negro population with indescribable delight. Mr. Coan, one of these teachers, thus describes the scene: "By appointment, I met the children at the church vestry the next morning. They were to come at 9 o'clock; by 7 the street was blocked, the yard was full. Parents, eager to get 'dese yer four childern's name tooken,' came pulling them through the crowd. 'Please, sir, put down dese yer.' 'I wants dis gal of mine to jine; and dat yer boy hes got no parents, and I jes done and brot him.' . . . The same evidences of joy inexpressible were manifest at the organization of evening schools for adults. About 1,000 pupils reported themselves in less than one week after our arrival in Wilmington." This thirst for knowledge, which was common to the freed people throughout the entire south, was met by efforts on the part of various benevolent agencies to satisfy it. Upon the cessation of hostilities schools were opened in different localities, and before the end of the year nearly 100 were in operation, with an attendance of more than 8,000 pupils. Each successive year since then has been marked by an increase in the number of these schools, in spite of the obstacles which presented themselves, in the scarcity of teachers, and of suitable school buildings, and, too often, in the unfriendly opposition of white residents. To overcome these obstacles the freedmen themselves have earnestly seconded the efforts of philanthropy in their behalf. In the depth of their poverty they have sustained a large portion of the schools, and cheerfully contributed to the support of others. In 1867 Mr. F. A. Fiske, the State superintendent of

education under the Freedman's Bureau, reported, that many instances had come under his notice where the teachers of a self-supporting school had been sustained till the last cent the freedmen could command was exhausted, and where these last had even taxed their credit in the coming crop to pay the bills necessary to keep up the school. As evidence of the great interest manifested in acquiring knowledge, the same officer mentioned a fact connected with one of the schools under his supervision which is, perhaps, without a parallel in the history of education. Side by side, commencing their alphabet together, and continuing their studies until they could each read the Bible fluently, sat a child of six summers, her mother, grandmother, and great-grandmother, aged 75 years, the representatives of four generations in a direct line.

The following tables, prepared by Professor Vashon, give the condition of the schools for the years specified:

Number of schools, teachers, and pupils, 1865 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	....	....	86	....	....	119	....	....	8, 506	....	......
1866	....	....	136	....	....	158	....	....	10, 971	....	......
1867	130	60	190	139	88	227	5, 922	6, 351	12, 273	8, 714	71
1868	238	104	342	146	221	367	8, 531	8, 879	17, 410	11, 078	63

Studies and expenditures, 1867 *and* 1868.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	1, 363	7, 425	3, 462	4, 005	2, 879	3, 872	321	$3, 671	$48, 249	$51, 920
1868	1, 286	6, 310	4, 043	6, 200	3, 652	5, 455	711	15, 510	69, 258	84, 768

There are two high schools in North Carolina, one at Wilmington, and another at Beaufort. These were established by the American Missionary Association.

Among the other benevolent educational agencies operating in this State, mention should be made of the American Freedmen's Union Commission, working principally through its New York and New England branches, and the Friends Association of Philadelphia. The last mentioned society, besides ministering largely to the relief of physical wants and suffering among the freedmen, since its organization on the 11th of November, 1863, has, also, maintained schools at different points throughout the south. Nineteen of these were within the limits of North Carolina.

The Protestant Episcopal church, too, has found here a field for its Christian labor; and its freedmen's committee has under its charge, at Raleigh,

THE ST. AUGUSTINE NORMAL SCHOOL.

This institution was incorporated in July, 1867, and opened in the following January for the admission of pupils, of whom 26 were enrolled. Its principal is the Rev. J. Brainton Smith, D. D. The trustees have now on hand and in pledges a fund of about $4,300, which they purpose to set apart as a permanent endowment. Besides, they have already purchased a tract of land, consisting of 100 acres, pleasantly situated just outside of the city limits. Here, in a beautiful grove, they are now erecting a commodious edifice that will, when completed, readily accommodate 150 pupils; they also intend to erect a boarding hall to serve as a home for pupils coming from a distance.

There is another academical school at Charlotte.

THE BIDDLE MEMORIAL INSTITUTE.

This institution was founded by a generous donation from the widow of the late Henry J. Biddle, of Philadelphia, and is, indeed, a fitting monument to the memory of that gentleman, who gave his life to his country in efforts to crush the slaveholders' rebellion. For this reason the Biddle institute appeals peculiarly to the regard of the freedmen, and they have not been deaf to its claims. It has been duly incorporated under the laws of North Carolina; and through the liberality of Colonel W. R. Myers, of Charlotte, has been made the recipient of a beautiful tract of eight acres in the immediate neighborhood of the city. Upon this site two houses intended for professors' residences have been erected and paid for, and the main building is now in process of erection. To complete the entire work $8,000 are required, which, it is confidently hoped, will be readily made up by the freedmen and their friends. The first session of the institute opened on the 16th of September, 1867, and 43 students were admitted during its first school year. Great care is exercised in the admission of students, and all of them are required to devote a part of their time to teaching among the people.

This institution was established under the auspices of the general assembly's committee on freedmen of the Presbyterian church, (old school,) whose praiseworthy labors in Kansas and elsewhere have already been adverted to, and who have, since 1865, supported 22 other schools at different points in the State of North Carolina.

The present constitution of North Carolina, adopted in April, 1868, provides for "a general and uniform system of free public schools." The governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of State, treasury, auditor, superintendent of public works, superintendent of public instruction, and attorney general, constitute a State board of education, which succeeds to all the powers and trusts of the president and directors of the literary fund of North Carolina; and has full power to legislate and make all needful rules and regulations in relation to free public schools and the educational fund. The superintendent of public instruction has the charge of the schools. Each county is divided into school districts, in each of which one or more public schools must be maintained at least four months in the year. The schools of each county are under the control of county commissioners, elected biennially.

OHIO.

By the census of 1860 the population of Ohio was 2,339,511, of which number 36,673 were free colored. By repeated votes of the people the right of suffrage has been denied to this portion of the population unless they have a preponderance of white blood.

The superintendent of common schools (John A. Norris) writes to the superintendent of public instruction in Indiana as follows: "Colored youths of legal school age, *i. e.*, between the ages of 5 and 21 years, are entitled to the privileges of the public school fund. Colored youth cannot of legal right claim admittance to our common schools for white youth. The local school authorities may, however, admit a colored youth to the public schools for white youth, and as a matter of fact in the larger part of the State the colored youth are admitted on equal terms with the white youth to the common or public schools." According to his report for 1869 there were, in 1868, employed in the colored schools of the State, 241 teachers, (male, 104; female, 137.) The number of schools was 189, having 10,404 pupils enrolled, (males 5,409; females, 4,995.) The average number in daily attendance was 5,246, (males, 2,730; females, 2,516.)

THE COLORED SCHOOLS OF CINCINNATI.

The first schools exclusively for colored persons were established in the year 1820, and by colored men. One of these schools was located in what was known as "Glenn's old pork house," on Hopple's alley, near Sycamore street. This school did not last long. Another was established, in the same year, by a colored man named Schooley. It was kept somewhere in the neighborhood of Sixth street and Broadway, which vicinity was then called "The Green," which has long since disappeared. Mr. Wing, who kept a private school near

the corner of Vine and Sixth streets, admitted colored students to his night school. During the period of time extending from 1820 to 1835 no school was regularly kept, teachers being few and patronage slack. Owen T. B. Nickens, a colored man, who still teaches at New Richmond, Ohio, was one of the prominent educators of that period.

About 1835 came the begining of the anti-slavery discussion among the people of Cincinnati. A number of young men and women, filled with a hatred to slavery and a desire to labor for a down-trodden race, came to Cincinnati and established several schools. One in the colored Baptist church, on Western row, was taught at various times by Messrs. Barbour, E. Fairchild, W. Robinson, and Augustus Wattles. Of the ladies, there were the Misses Bishop, Matthews, Lowe, and Mrs. Merrell. They were all excellent teachers, and deeply imbued with a desire to do good, and are remembered with gratitude by those who received instruction at their hands.

They were, of course, subjected to much contumely. Boarding-house keepers refused to entertain them, placing their trunks upon the sidewalks and telling them that they "had no accommodations for nigger teachers." They were obliged to club together, rent a house, and board themselves. Frequently the schools were closed because of mob violence.

A part of the salary of these teachers was paid by an educational society, consising of benevolent whites (many of whom have lived to witness the triumph of principles which they espoused amid so much obloquy) and the better class of colored people. Among the colored men who co-operated heartily in the work, may be named Baker Jones, Joseph Fowler, John Woodson, Dennis Hill, John Liverpool, and William O. Hara.

These schools continued with varying fortunes until 1844, when Rev. Hiram S. Gilmore, a young man of good fortune, fine talents, and rare benevolence, established the "Cincinnati high school," which was, in some respects, the best school ever established in Cincinnati for the benefit of the colored people. Its proprietor, or patron rather, spared no expense to make it a success. Ground was purchased at the east end of Harrison street and a commodious building of five large rooms and a chapel was fitted up. In the yard, an unusual thing at that time in any Cincinnati school, was fitted a fine gymnasium. Good teachers were employed to give instruction in the branches usual to a full English course of study, besides which, Latin, Greek, drawing, and music were taught.

The number of pupils at times rose to 300; but the receipts never equalled the expenses. Some of the pupils displayed such proficiency in singing, declamations, and the like, that regularly, every vacation, classes of them, in charge of the principal, journeyed through the States of Ohio and New York giving concerts. The profits realized by these expeditions were devoted to clothing and furnishing books to the poorer pupils of the school. In some cases the time of such poor pupils as gave sign of ability was hired from their parents. Never did a nobler soul exist than that which animated the breast of Hiram S. Gilmore! The teachers of this school were: Mr. Joseph H. Moore, Thomas L. Boucher, David P. Lowe, lately police judge of our city, and finally Dr. A. L. Childs; the musical proficiencies of the pupils was due to their thorough training by W. F. Colburn, their instructor in music. In 1848 the school passed into the hands of Dr. A. L. Childs, who was its principal at the time of its discontinuance.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR COLORED CHILDREN.

The law authorizing the establishment of schools for colored children at the public expense was passed in 1849. An attempt to organize schools under the law was made in 1850. Trustees were elected, teachers employed, and houses hired, but the money to pay for all this was not forthcoming from the city treasury. The law orders that so much of all the funds belonging to the city of Cincinnati as would fall to the colored youth, by a *per capita* division, should be held subject to the order of the colored trustees. The city declared that the colored trustees, not being electors, were not and could not be qualified as office-holders under the constitution of the State of Ohio, hence they could draw no money from the city treasury. They refused, therefore, to honor the drafts of the school board. The schools were closed after continuing three months, the teachers going unpaid. The colored school board, inspired by the appeals and counsels of the late John I. Gaines, called a meeting of

the colored people, and laid the case before them. It was resolved to raise money and employ counsel to contest this decision of the city officials. The legal proceeding was in the nature of an application for *mandamus*. The case was placed in the hands of Flamen Ball, esq. The colored people were victors, though not till the case had been carried to the supreme court by the contestants.

In 1851 the schools were again opened, but the accommodations were wretched. The amount falling to the colored schools was small. Good houses were needed, but eminent legal gentlemen declared there was no authority anywhere to build school-houses for colored children. The school board was proceeding cautiously in the matter, when, suddenly, by a change in the law, they were thrown out of power. The control of the colored schools was vested in the board of trustees and visitors which had control of the public schools for white children. This board was authorized by the new law to appoint six colored men, to whom the task of managing the schools was intrusted, except in the matter of controlling the funds. The leading colored men held aloof from this arrangement, feeling that if colored men were competent to manage the schools in one particular they were in all, and if colored men could manage the schools, colored men could select the managers as well or better than white men could.

The law was again altered in 1856, giving to the colored people the right of electing their own trustees. Thus it stands to-day.

The first school-house was erected and occupied in 1858. It was built by Nicholas Longworth and leased to the colored people, with privilege of purchasing in 14 years. It has been paid for several years ago. It cost $14,000. In 1859 the building on Court street, for the western district, was erected. Since then three other buildings, two of them small, have been completed. The total value of all the property used by the colored schools is about $50,000. The rooms will accommodate about 700 pupils. The title to this, as with other school property, is vested in the city of Cincinnati.

The schools are classified as primary, intermediate, and high school. Seventeen teachers are employed, all of whom are colored and former pupils, except two, who are Germans, and are employed, one in teaching the German language, the other in teaching music. The salaries paid are not so high as are paid in the other public schools of the city. The receipts for the year ending June 30, 1869, were about $24,000. The number of pupils enrolled in all departments was 1,006; average belonging, 522; average attendance, 475.

WILBERFORCE UNIVERSITY.

The earliest collegiate institution in the United States, founded and owned by colored men, is Wilberforce University, which originated in 1863, during the heat of the great rebellion. Although designed for the special training of colored youth, it is prohibited by its charter from making any distinctions on account of race or color, among its trustees, its instructors, or its students. The present faculty consists of five persons, three of whom are colored and two white. It is located three and a half miles east of Xenia, in Greene county, Ohio, and is under the management of members of the African Methodist Episcopal church.

The first establishment of Wilberforce University, however, is due to another body of Christians. In 1853 some of the ministers and members of the Methodist Episcopal church saw and felt the necessity of a more liberal and concentrated effort to improve the condition of the colored people in Ohio and other States, and to furnish the facilities of education to them. Deeming that colored men must be, for the most part, the educators and elevators of their own race in this and other lands, they conceived the idea of an institution wherein many of that class should be thoroughly trained for professional teaching, or for any other pursuit in life. At the session of the Cincinnati conference, in 1855, this movement culminated in the appointment of the Rev. John F. Wright as general agent to take the incipient steps for establishing such a college. This gentleman, with others, entered into negotiations for the purchase of the Xenia Springs property, which had been previously fitted up as a fashionable watering place, at a cost of some $50,000. This property consisted of 52 acres of land, in a beautiful and healthy region, upon which there had been erected a large edifice with numerous rooms, well adapted to the purposes of a collegiate institution. Besides this

principal building, there was a number of cottages upon the place well suited to the use of private families. Mr. Wright and his associates were fortunate enough to find about half a dozen wealthy and philanthropic gentlemen to second them in their efforts, and in May, 1856, the purchase was concluded for $13,500. In the following August application was duly made for incorporation under the general law of the State of Ohio, and every legal requisition having been complied with, the institution was organized and constituted a body corporate under the name of the Wilberforce University. It was kept in successful operation from October, 1856, until June, 1862, at which time, as it was supported mainly by southern slaveholders who sent their children there to be educated, the war cut off the greater portion of its patronage and compelled a suspension of its operations. The institution was then laboring under an indebtedness of $10,000; and for this sum the trustees offered to sell out all their right, title, and interest to the African Methodist Episcopal church, whose co-operation in this enterprise had been requested and declined as early as 1856. This offer was accepted; thus the *present* Wilberforce University came into being. The credit for this result is largely due to the Rt. Rev. Daniel A. Payne, one of the bishops of the African Methodist Episcopal church, who had favored co-operation with the white Methodists, and who has ever since been an untiring worker in behalf of this educational enterprise.

In the course of the two following years the new proprietors reduced their indebtedness to $3,000, having received aid from their white friends only to the extent of $260. The gratifying success attendant thus far upon the establishment of this unique institution was destined to encounter quite a serious check. On the 14th day of April, 1865—a day sadly memorable in the annals of our country as that of President Lincoln's assassination—the college edifice fell a prey to incendiarism; but the ardor of the friends of Wilberforce was quickened instead of being diminished by this misfortune. The amount of insurance upon the burnt building ($8,000) enabled them to discharge the obligations existing against them, and to reserve $5,000 as a fund for rebuilding. With this amount at their command, they confidently laid the foundation of a new structure 160 feet in length by 44 feet in width, at an anticipated cost of $35,000, and made appeal to their friends to aid them in their endeavors. Their call for assistance has been quite favorably responded to both by members of their own denomination and other parties; among the latter of whom may be mentioned the executors of the Avery estate, and the Society for the Promotion of Collegiate and Theological Education at the West. They are now enabled to show as the result of their persevering energy a handsome building, sufficiently advanced towards completion to accommodate their students, about 80 in number, equally divided between the two sexes. The prospects are quite flattering, too, for the endowment of their requisite number of professorships, and for making additions to their scientific apparatus and to their library, now already numbering about 2,500 volumes.

Wilberforce is designed to be a university complete in all the ordinary faculties. Those of literature, medicine, and theology have already been established, and additional ones in the department of science and law are contemplated. The several courses of instruction are full and thorough; and two features included in them are deserving of especial mention as showing the laudable spirit of its board of trustees. These are, first, that, in view of anticipated missionary effort in Hayti, particular attention is paid to the study of French; and, second, that, with the design of training teachers for labor among the freedmen, a normal day and Sunday school has been instituted.

The corps of instruction now employed at Wilberforce University is as follows, viz: Rt. Rev. Daniel A. Payne, D. D., President and Professor of Christian Theology, Mental Science, and Church Government; John G. Mitchell, A. M., Professor of Greek and Mathematics; Rev. William Kent, M. D., Professor of Natural Sciences; Theodore E. Suliot, A. M., Professor of English, Latin, and French Literature, and Associate Professor of Mathematics.

Medical Department.—William Kent, M. D., Professor of Practical and Analytical Chemistry; ——— Williams, M. D.; J. P. Marvin, M. D.; Alexander T. Augusta, M. D.

OBERLIN COLLEGE.

In any account of the higher education of colored youth in this country, Oberlin College must not be omitted. That institution, established in 1833, opened its doors to deserving applicants without distinction of sex, race, or color, and as early as 1836 had several colored students. The first colored graduate of the college was George B. Vashon, subsequently professor of languages in Avery College, at Pittsburg. The whole number of colored graduates is 20, three of whom are females. The whole number of colored graduates in the teachers' course is 16; in the theological department, 1. Before the war the ratio of colored students to the whole number was five per cent. for a period of nearly 20 years; since the war it has amounted to nearly eight per cent., making an average of nearly 50 colored students during the last 25 years.

PENNSYLVANIA.

By the census of 1860 there were returned, out of a population of 2,906,115, in Pennsylvania, 56,849 free blacks. By the constitution of the State the right of suffrage is restricted to whites; but by the school law the privileges of a public school education are extended to all children, whether white or black; and, by an act passed in 1854, the school directors of the several districts are authorized and required "to establish, within their respective districts, separate schools for the tuition of negro and mulatto children, whenever such schools can be so located as to accommodate 20 or more pupils; and whenever such separate schools shall be established and kept open four months in any year, the directors or controllers shall not be compelled to admit such pupils into any other schools of the district: *Provided*, That in cities and boroughs the board of controllers shall provide for such schools out of the general funds assessed and collected by uniform taxation for educational purposes."

To the members of the Society of Friends, in Philadelphia, and to associations originating under the auspices of that religious body, are the blacks of this country indebted for the earliest permanent and best developed schools for their children.

SCHOOLS FOR BLACK PEOPLE BY ANTHONY BENEZET.

Rev. George Whitefield—who visited America in 1739, partly to found an orphan house after the model of that of Franké, at Halle, purchased in 1740 a tract of land of about 5,000 acres in Upper Nazareth township; but in view of making a location further south, (in Georgia,) transferred his title to the Moravian brethren in 1843—contemplated, it is said, the establishment of a school for negro children, but accomplished nothing.*

The earliest school of any kind for the education of the children of negroes, in Philadelphia, so far as we can ascertain, was established as an evening school, by Anthony Benezet, about the year 1750, and taught by him gratuitously. This remarkable man, who was the first on this continent to plead the cause of the oppressed African race, and whose publications were instrumental in enlisting the energies of Clarkson and others in the abolition of the slave trade, was born at St. Quentin, France, December 31, 1713, (old style.) His parents were among the most noted and wealthy persons of the place, but, on becoming Pro-

* It is stated in Sypher's "School History of Pennsylvania" that Rev. George Whitefield commenced the erection of a school-house for colored children at Nazareth. We do not have at hand the authorities to confirm or refute this statement; but we find in Anderson's "Colonial Church" that Whitefield, on the occasion of his visit to Georgia, in 1740, censured Oglethorpe and others, who had got introduced into the charter a clause prohibiting the importation of negro slaves into the colony of Georgia. "To prohibit people from holding lands, except under the conditions which those laws prescribed, or to require them to carry on the work of cultivation in a hot climate without negro labor, was little better, he said, than to tie their legs and bid them walk. He maintained that to keep slaves was lawful; else how was the Scripture to be explained which spoke of slaves being born in Abraham's house, or purchased with his money? He denied not that liberty was sweet to those who were born free; but argued that, to those who had never known any other condition, slavery might not be so irksome. The introduction, also, of slaves into Georgia, would bring them, he believed, within the reach of those means of grace which would make them partakers of a liberty far more precious than any which affected the body only; and, upon such grounds, he hesitated not to exert himself to obtain a repeal of that part of the charter which forbade the importation of slaves."

testants, their estate was confiscated, and they withdrew from their native country and took refuge in Holland. From thence the family removed to London, and the father having engaged in commercial pursuits there, he recovered, to some extent, his lost fortune.

In 1731 the family removed to Philadelphia, where they were permanently established; and in 1736 Anthony married Joyce Marriott, of Wilmington, Delaware, with whom he lived 50 years "in love and peace." Declining to engage in commerce, from motives of a religious nature, he turned his attention to mechanical pursuits, which proving unfavorable to his health, at the age of 26 he engaged as a teacher at Germantown, in the vicinity of Philadelphia.

In 1742 he became usher in the public school formed under a charter from William Penn, in which school he continued 12 years. In 1755 he opened a school for the instruction of girls, which was attended for 30 years by the daughters of the most affluent and respectable inhabitants of the city. His methods of instruction and of discipline were far in advance of those of the teachers of that period, by which he attached his pupils to himself for his gentleness and regard for their happiness; among other privileges granting them a room as a place of amusement during the intervals of study. His views of education are expressed in the following paragraphs:

"With respect to the education of our youth, I would propose, as the fruit of 40 years' experience, that when they are proficients in the use of their pen, and become sufficiently acquainted with the English grammar and the useful parts of arithmetic, they should be taught mensuration of superficies and solids, as it helps the mind in many necessary matters, particularly the use of the scale and the compass, and will open the way for those parts of the mathematics which their peculiar situations may afterwards make necessary. It would also be profitable for every scholar, of both sexes, to go through and understand a short but very plain set of merchant's accounts in single entry, particularly adapted to the civil uses of life. And in order to perfect their education in a useful and agreeable way, both to themselves and others, I would propose to give them a general knowledge of the mechanical powers, geography, and the elements of astronomy; the use of the microscope might also be profitably added, in discovering the minute parts of creation; this, with the knowledge of the magnitude and courses of those mighty bodies which surround us, would tend to exalt their ideas.

"Such parts of history as may tend to give them a right idea of the corruption of the human heart, the dreadful nature and effects of war, the advantage of virtue, &c., are also necessary parts of an education founded upon Christian and reasonable principles. These several instructions should be inculcated on a religious plan, in such a way as may prove a delightful rather than a painful labor, both to teachers and pupils. It might also be profitable to give lads of bright genius some plain lectures upon anatomy, the wondrous frame of man, deducing therefrom the advantage of a simple way of life, enforcing upon their understanding the kind efforts of nature to maintain the human frame in a state of health, with little medical help but what abstinence and exercise will afford. These necessary parts of knowledge, so useful in directing the youthful mind in the path of virtue and wisdom, might be proposed by way of lectures, which the pupil should write down, and when corrected should be copied in a neat bound book, to be kept for future perusal."

While teaching this school for girls he prepared and published two of the earliest school-books printed in this country; one a spelling-book and primer, and a grammar. The sentiments expressed in these books were such as grew out of his efforts to promote the education of youth on the basis of a true estimate of human life, "whence obedience and love to God, benignity to man, and a tender regard for the whole creation would necessarily flow;" and also from his desire to give to youth "as easy and compendious a knowledge of their own language, and such other useful parts of learning, as their respective situations may make necessary to answer all the good purposes of life."

In the year 1750 he became interested in the iniquity of the slave trade, and from this time he devoted himself strenuously to the amelioration of the condition of the black people till the end of his life. In this direction he took special interest in the education of their youth, establishing for them, as has been stated, the first evening school, which he taught himself gratuitously; and he subsequently engaged in soliciting funds for the erection of a building for a day school for their instruction. From the experience derived from his own school, and from his intercourse with the blacks, he formed and expressed a more favorable opinion of their dispositions and mental capacities than had been previously generally entertained. On these points he says: "I can with truth and sincerity declare that I have found among the negroes as great variety of talents as among a like number of whites, and I am bold to assert that the notion entertained by some, that the blacks are inferior in their capacities, is

a vulgar prejudice, founded on the pride or ignorance of their lordly masters, who have kept their slaves at such a distance as to be unable to form a right judgment of them."

When the education of colored youth was taken up by the Society of Friends, Benezet volunteered to assist the teacher; and on several occasions, when there was a failure to procure a teacher, he himself continued the school. Without dwelling further on the labors of Benezet to promote the abolition of slavery in his own State, and to ameliorate the condition of the colored people everywhere, the following extract from his will exhibits his desire to continue his work in their behalf after his death:

"I give my above said house and lot, or ground rent proceeding from it, and the rest and residue of my estate which shall remain undisposed of after my wife's decease, both real and personal, to the Public School of Philadelphia, founded by charter, and to their successors forever, in trust, that they shall sell my house and lot on perpetual ground rent forever, if the same be not already sold by my executors, as before mentioned, and that as speedily as may be they receive and take as much of my personal estate as may be remaining, and therewith purchase a yearly ground rent, or ground rents, and with the income of such ground rent proceeding from the sale of my real estate hire, and employ a religious-minded person, or persons, to teach a number of negro, mulatto, or Indian children to read, write, arithmetic, plain accounts, needle-work, &c. And it is my particular desire, founded on the experience I have had in that service, that, in the choice of such tutors, special care may be had to prefer an industrious, careful person, of true piety, who may be or become suitably qualified, who would undertake the service from a principle of charity, to one more highly learned, not equally disposed; this I desire may be carefully attended to, sensible that from the number of pupils of all ages, the irregularity of attendance their situation subjects them to, will not admit of that particular inspection in their improvement usual in other schools, but that the real well-doing of the scholars will very much depend upon the master making a special conscience of doing his duty; and shall likewise defray such other necessary expense as may occur in that service; and as the said remaining income of my estate, after my wife's decease, will not be sufficient to defray the whole expense necessary for the support of such a school, it is my request that the overseers of the said Public School shall join in the care and expense of such a school, or schools, for the education of negro, mulatto, or Indian children, with any committee which may be appointed by the monthly meetings of Friends in Philadelphia, or with any other body of benevolent persons who may join in raising money and employing it for the education and care of such children; my desire being that, as such a school is now set up, it may be forever maintained in this city."

Benezet died on the 3d of May, 1784, and his funeral was attended by the widows and orphans and the poor of all descriptions, including many hundreds of blacks, all of whom "mourned for the loss of their best friend."

SCHOOLS FOR BLACK PEOPLE BY THE SOCIETY OF FRIENDS.

To the Society of Friends in particular is the African slave in America indebted for the earliest efforts for his enlightenment and for the most persistent struggles for his emancipation and the abolition of the slave trade. George Fox, from the time of landing in 1672, on the banks of the Patuxent, in Maryland, never failed to impress upon those who controlled the negro the importance of raising him above the brute. In an epistle to Friends in America, written in 1679, he says: "You must instruct and teach your Indians and negroes, and all others, how that Christ, by the grace of God, tasted death for every man." The journals of the Quaker preachers who succeeded him show they were animated by the same spirit. One of their number, a man of fine classical education, and educated as a lawyer, says: "The morning that we came from Thomas Simons's my companion, speaking some words of truth to his negro woman, she was tendered, and as I passed on horseback by the place where she stood weeping I gave her my hand, and then she was much more broken. * * She stood there, looking after us and weeping as long as we could see her. I inquired of one of the black men here how long they had come to meetings. He says they had always been kept in ignorance and disregarded, as persons who were not to expect anything from the Lord, till Jonathan Taylor, who had been there the year before discoursing with them, had informed them that the grace of God, through Christ, was given also to them." On the 25th of the second month, at Pocoson, not far from Yorktown, Virginia, he was "entertained in much friendship and tender respect by Thomas Nichols and his wife, but by her especially, who, though a mulatto by extraction, was not too tawny for the divine light of the Lord Jesus Christ."

On the 26th of January, 1770, through the influence of Anthony Benezet, a committee was appointed at a monthly meeting of Friends, in Philadelphia, "to consider on the instruction of negro and mulatto children in reading, writing, and other useful learning suitable to their capacity and circumstances;" and, on the 30th of May of the same year, they decided to authorize a special committee of seven Friends to employ a schoolmistress of prudent and exemplary conduct "to teach, not more at one time than 30 children, in the first rudiments of school learning and in sewing and knitting." The school was to be opened to white children if a sufficient number of children of negroes and mulattoes did not apply for admission. In June a male teacher was employed—Moles Patterson—who had a salary of £80 a year and an additional sum of £11 for one-half of the rent of his dwelling-house. While instruction was gratuitous to the poor, those who were able were requested to pay, "at the rate of 10*s*. a quarter for those who write and 7*s*. 6*d*. for others."

The scholars having been found on examination to have made good progress, the monthly meeting authorized the construction of a school-house for the express uses of the school. On the resignation of Patterson, David Estaugh was employed as the teacher, "he having spent some time to improve himself under our friend Anthony Benezet, who, having frequently met with us and assisted us in the trust committed to us, now kindly offered to attend daily and give his assistance to David in the school."

With reference to the capacity of the children gathered in this school, the testimony of those who examined it was that it was equal to that of other children. Jacob Lehré succeeded David Estaugh in 1774, the latter having resigned, "finding the employment too heavy." In 1775 the committee agreed to admit 10 or 12 white children, because there was a probability that the school would otherwise be small in the winter season, and in April 40 colored and six white children were in the school. No record of the transactions of the committee from the early part of 1777 to 1782, because, as is stated, "a part of this period was remarkable for commotion, contending armies taking, evacuating, and repossessing this city, and schools kept within the compass thereof were generally for a time suspended." John Haughton was the teacher at the latter period, and continued in that service five years, when he resigned on account of failing health, and his place was filled by Anthony Benezet, with "the entire approbation of the committee," until his death, in May, 1784. Just before his death he addressed the following to the "overseers of the school for the instruction of the black people:"

"My friend Joseph Clark having frequently observed to me his desire, in case of my inability of continuing the care of the negro school, of succeeding me in that service, notwithstanding he now has a more advantageous school, by the desire of doing good to the black people makes him overlook these pecuniary advantages, I much wish the overseers of the school would take his desires under their peculiar notice and give him such due encouragement as may be proper, it being a matter of the greatest consequence to that school that the master be a person who makes it a principle to do his duty."

The overseers decided that "the strongest proof of their love and good-will to their departed friend, they think, will be to pay regard to the advice and recommendation contained in the said letter."

In 1784 William Waring was placed in charge of the larger children, at a salary of £100, and Sarah Dougherty of the younger children and girls, in teaching spelling, reading, sewing, &c., at a salary of £50. In 1787 aid was received from David Barclay, of London, in behalf of a committee for managing a donation for the relief of Friends in America; and the sum of £500 was thus obtained, which, with the fund derived from the estate of Benezet, and £300 from Thomas Shirley, a colored man, was appropriated to the erection of a school-house. In 1819 a committee of "women Friends," to have exclusive charge of the admission of girls and the general superintendence of the girls' school, was associated with the overseers in the charge of the school. In 1830, in order to relieve the day school of some of the male adults who had been in the habit of attending, an evening school for the purpose of instructing such persons gratuitously was opened, and has been continued to the present time. In 1844 a lot was secured on Locust street, extending along Shield's alley, now Aurora street, on which a new house was erected in 1847, the expense of which was paid for in part from the proceeds of the sale of a lot bequeathed by John Pemberton. Additional

accommodations were made to this building, from time to time, as room was demanded by new classes of pupils.

From a report published by direction of the committee of the "schools for black people and their descendants," it appears that up to the year 1867, covering a period of over 96 years, about 8,000 pupils had been instructed in these schools. In 1866 there were upwards of 4,000 colored children in the city of Philadelphia of the proper school age, of whom 1,300 were in the public schools, 800 in seminaries supported by charitable bequests and voluntary subscriptions, and 200 in private schools.

In 1849 a statistical return of the condition of the people of color in the city and districts of Philadelphia shows that there was then one grammar school, with 463 pupils; two public primary schools, with 339; and an infant school, under the charge of the Pennsylvania Abolition Society, of 70 pupils, in Clifton street; a ragged and a moral reform school with 81 pupils. In West Philadelphia there was also a public school, with 67 pupils; and, in all, there were about 20 private schools, with 300 pupils; making an aggregate of more than 1,300 children receiving an education.

In 1859, according to Bacon's "Statistics of the Colored People of Philadelphia," there were 1,031 colored children in public schools, 748 in charity schools of various kinds, 211 in benevolent and reformatory schools, and 331 in private schools, making an aggregate of 2,321 pupils, besides four evening schools, one for adult males, one for females, and one for young apprentices. There were 19 Sunday schools connected with the congregations of the colored people, and conducted by their own teachers, containing 1,667 pupils, and four Sunday schools gathered as mission schools by members of white congregations, with 215 pupils. There was also a "Public Library and Reading Room" connected with the "Institute for Colored Youth," established in 1853, having about 1,300 volumes, besides three other small libraries in different parts of the city. The same pamphlet shows that there were 1,700 of the colored population engaged in different trades and occupations, representing every department of industry.

CHARITY, BENEVOLENT, AND REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

In 1822 an "Orphan's Shelter" was established by an association of women "Friends;" in 1850 a "House of Refuge" for children found guilty of offenses against the law; in 1855 a "Home for Colored Children;" and in 1852 a high school or "Institute for Colored Youth." In 1858 the Sheppard school was established at the House of Industry.

In a historical memoir of this society, published in 1848, it is stated that "the condition of the colored population of the city and adjoining districts, although far in advance of what it was at the organization of this society, is also a subject which still occupies its close attention. The schools already instituted for the education of colored children have largely contributed to benefit the people as a class, and will demand the vigilant attention of the society, under whose fostering care it is hoped much may be effected towards the elevation of the colored youth of our city. It would not be difficult to point to many families amongst them whose intelligence and moral standing in the community is justly referable to the early training they received in these schools, and it has afforded encouragement to many members of this society to hear the acknowledgment of many respectable individuals, that to these schools they were, under the divine blessing, mainly indebted for their success in life. Hence, also, has arisen that thirst for knowledge amongst the colored population which has led to the formation of societies for promoting the exercise of their intellectual faculties, and for the pursuit of literary and scientific subjects."

The teachers of the Institute for Colored Youth, and of all the private schools, are of their own complexion; the others are generally white. No register is kept in any school denoting standard of scholarship, nor is there any system of rewards for exciting emulation.

One of the results of the education of this class of the population has been to elevate their self-respect and to promote habits of thrift and economy, as well as to break up the habit of congregating in so large numbers in the narrow and crowded streets of the city, and to create a desire to possess houses and gardens in the suburbs. As they have become educated they have risen more and more from the condition of mere day laborers into that of skillful and

industrious artisans and tradesmen, until in 1867 it was found, as a result of statistical inquiry, that they were engaged in more than 130 distinct occupations, having a fair representation in all the principal mechanical industries of the city.

From an inquiry instituted in 1837 it was ascertained that, out of the 18,768 colored people in Philadelphia, 250 had paid for their freedom the aggregate sum of $70,612, and that the real and personal property owned by them was near $1,500,000. There were returns of several chartered benevolent societies for the purpose of affording mutual aid in sickness and distress, and there were 16 houses of public worship, with over 4,000 communicants.

SCHOOLS OF THE PENNSYLVANIA ABOLITION SOCIETY.

The Pennsylvania Abolition Society established a school for children of the blacks, in 1794, taught by a well-qualified black teacher. In 1809 they erected for the use of the school a house at a cost of $4,000, to which, in 1815, they gave the name of "Clarkson Hall." In 1813 a board of education was organized, consisting of 13 persons, with a visiting committee of three, who were to visit the school once each week. In 1818 the board of education, in their report, speak in the highest terms of the beneficial effect of the Clarkson schools, which they say "furnish a decided refutation of the charge that the mental endowments of the descendants of Africa are inferior to those possessed by their white brethren. We can assert, without fear of contradiction, that the pupils of this seminary will sustain a fair comparison with those of any other institution in which the same elementary branches are taught."

PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR COLORED CHILDREN.

In 1820 this society applied to the comptrollers of the public schools to obtain for the children of colored parents a share of the school education to which they were entitled by the law of Pennsylvania providing for the schooling of all the poor children of the commonwealth at the public expense. In 1822 the comptrollers, admitting that the benefits of the law should be extended to the colored as well as to poor white children, opened a school in Lombard street for the education of the children of both sexes of indigent persons of color; and in 1841 a primary school was opened in the same building. In 1833 the "Unclassified school" in Coates street, and from time to time afterwards several additional schools of the same class in West Philadelphia were established. These schools are maintained in the same way as the public schools generally.

INSTITUTE FOR COLORED YOUTH.

By the will of Richard Humphreys, a member of the Society of Friends, who died in 1832, the sum of $10,000 was devised to certain trustees, to be paid over by them to such benevolent society or institution as might be established for the purpose of instructing "descendants of the African race in school learning in the various branches of the mechanic arts and trade, and in agriculture." At this time the idea of giving instruction to the colored race was very unpopular, even in Philadelphia, and no society was formed to carry out the design of Mr. Humphreys until five years afterwards. Thirty members of the Society of Friends then formed themselves into an association, and took measures to establish an institution in accordance with the design of the legacy. In the preamble to the constitution adopted by them they say:

"We believe that the most successful method of elevating the moral and intellectual character of the descendants of Africa, as well as of improving their social condition, is to extend to them the benefits of a good education, and to instruct them in the knowledge of some useful trade or business, whereby they may be enabled to obtain a comfortable livelihood by their own industry; and through these means to prepare them for fulfilling the various duties of domestic and social life with reputation and fidelity, as good citizens and pious men."

To enable the youth to receive instruction in "mechanic arts and agriculture," the association, in 1839, purchased a piece of land in Bristol township, Philadelphia county, and educated a number of boys in farming, and to some extent in shoe-making and other useful

occupations. In 1842 the institute was incorporated; and in 1844 there was an addition to its treasury of $18,000 from the estate of another member of the Society of Friends, Jonathan Zane, and several other small legacies. After the experiment of the combined literary, agricultural, and manual labor school for a time, in consequence of certain unfavorable circumstances, it was finally concluded, though with much regret, in 1846, to suspend the experiment for a time; and the farm and stock were sold, the only endeavor of the managers to carry out the objects of their trust, during the next six years, being by apprenticing colored lads to mechanical occupations, and maintaining an evening school for literary education.

In 1850 a day school was contemplated, but not established for the want of a proper building until 1851, when a lot was secured in Lombard street and a building erected, in which a school was opened in the autumn of 1852 for boys only, under the care of Charles L. Reason, of New York; but in the same year the girls' school was opened, the pupils being selected from those of a standing above that of the ordinary schools.

These schools proved successful, giving a good English and classical education to many active youth, thus fulfilling the design of Mr. Humphreys in qualifying many useful teachers, of both sexes, who are now scattered over the country engaged in elevating the character of the colored people. The growing want of the school for increased accommodations was met in part, in 1863, by the appropriation of $5,000 to a building fund, from the estate of Josiah Dawson, who had been a member of the corporation. Soon after two other donations of $5,000 each were made by Friends, provided $30,000 could be raised by the board to complete the building fund. This step was immediately taken and resulted successfully.

The institute under the charge of Professor E. D. Bassett, (recently appointed United States commissioner and consul general to Hayti and San Domingo,) a graduate of the State Normal School at New Britain, Connecticut, would compare favorably with any institution of the same class and grade in the city. According to the last published catalogue there were on the rolls of all the departments of the institute 223. In the boys' high school there were 52; in the girls', 100; in the boys' preparatory school, 35; and in the girls', 36; total, 223. The library of the institute contains about 2,500 volumes. The total number of graduates of the institute is 48, of whom 44 are now living. Of these, 32 are engaged in teaching.

AVERY COLLEGE, ALLEGHENY CITY.

We are indebted to Professor Vashon, who was for a time connected with this college as professor, for the following notice of this institution, and of its founder and benefactor, Rev. Charles Avery:

Immediately after entering the main gateway of Allegheny cemetery, in Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, the eye of the visitor is arrested by a piece of sculpture which, representing a man erect upon an elevated pedestal, and attired in the costume of the present day, is indisputably the most noted of all the artistic adornments of that resting place of the dead. This lifelike statue recalls, in its finished details, the well-known personal appearance of the one whom it is designed to commemorate, the late Rev. Charles Avery, a native of the State of New York, but during the greater part of a long and honored life a resident of western Pennsylvania. Starting in life without any of the aids of fortune, he became, through efforts always characterized by the greatest probity, the possessor of ample wealth; and never, perhaps, was wealth more worthily bestowed; for, in his hands, it was but the means of doing good. His private charities were cheerfully and lavishly dispensed; and, among his public ones, may be mentioned the building of at least two neat and commodious churches for the Protestant Methodist connection, in which he was a local preacher. At his death, too, which occurred in January, 1858, his estate passed, by his last will, into the hands of his executors, who were enjoined, after satisfying various testamentary provisions in favor of his widow and other surviving relations, to devote the residue of his estate, amounting to $300,000, to educating and christianizing persons of the African race. One-half of this residue was directed to be employed in behalf of that class upon the continent of Africa, and the other half for the benefit of such as were in this country. It is understood that as to the first half, the executors made choice of the American Missionary Society as the instru-

mentality for its employment; and that they themselves have, in the execution of their trust as to the second, made large donations to Oberlin College, Lincoln, and Wilberforce Universities, and other institutions that are earnestly laboring for the educational advancement of our colored population.

But the statue before mentioned is not the proudest monument to the memory of the Rev. Charles Avery. That monument is to be found in Avery College, an institution which is located in Allegheny City, Pennsylvania, and of which he was the sole generous benefactor. Having obtained an act of incorporation for it from the legislature of Pennsylvania, in 1849, he donated to the trustees named in its charter a portion of land upon North street, extending from Avery to Liberty street, and running back over 100 feet. Upon this land he had caused to be erected a handsome, substantial, and well-finished brick edifice, admirably suited to the purposes for which it was intended. The amplitude of this edifice may be inferred from the following brief description of it:

Its ground floor is divided off into a lecture room and two recitation rooms; and its second story into four rooms, two of which are fitted up for school purposes, a third set apart for the use of literary societies, while the remaining one, elegantly carpeted and furnished, is arranged as a library and apparatus room. There is still a third story, loftily ceiled, which is appropriated to the use and occupancy of a congregation belonging to the African Methodist Episcopal Zion connection, and which is known as the Avery Mission church. The entire structure is surmounted by a gracefully proportioned cupola with its clock and bell.

Mr. Avery donated to this offspring of his generosity a complete set of apparatus needful to illustrate all the various branches of natural science, physics, chemistry and astronomy.

Mr. Avery generously met the wants of the new institution by directing the selection and purchase of about 700 volumes, comprising books of reference, scientific treatises, histories, travels, and works of general literature by standard British and American authors. The selection was judiciously made; and thus a small but excellent library was established for the benefit, not only of the college students, but also of any of the colored people of Pittsburg and Allegheny cities. This library was increased by the addition of about 300 volumes more at the death of the donor's widow, in 1865. Besides this library, Mr. Avery also donated a collection of about 300 volumes of such text-books as are used in the institution. This latter collection is known as the Avery College Beneficent Library, and is open to the use of students upon the payment of a small fee per term.

For the support of this institution the lamented founder provided an endownment of about $25,000, which has thus far, through safe and profitable investment, sufficed for that end. The board of trustees charged with its control consists of nine members, of whom three are white and the rest colored. The following gentlemen constitute this board at present, viz: Dr. C. G. Hussey, president; Rev. John Peck, vice-president; Alexander Gordon, treasurer; Samuel A. Neale, secretary; P. L. Jackson, E. R. Parker, Barclay Preston, Matthew Jones, and A. I. Billows.

Avery College was first opened for the admission of students in April, 1850, with the Rev. Philotas Dean, A. M., and M. H. Freeman, A. M., as senior and junior professors. Upon the retirement of Professor Dean, in 1856, Professor Freeman became the principal, and continued to act in that capacity until the latter part of 1863, when he was succeeded by George B. Vashon, A. M. Both of these gentlemen had as an assistant Miss Emma J. Woodson, a graduate of the institution. After the resignation of Professor Vashon, in July, 1867, the operations of Avery College were suspended until April, 1868, when its corps of instructors was reorganized as follows, viz:

Rev. H. H. Garnett, D. D., president and professor of history, rhetoric, logic, mental and moral philosophy, and political economy; B. K. Sampson, A. M., professor of mathematics, natural sciences, and languages; Miss Harriet C. Johnson, principal of the preparatory and ladies' departments; and Miss Clara G. Toop, teacher of vocal and instrumental music. All of these ladies and gentlemen, with the exception of Professor Dean, are colored persons.

In its religious aspect Avery College is free from any sectarian organization; but its charter provides that all its officers shall be professors of Christianity. Its discipline is strict, yet mild and parental; and its courses of study, collegiate and academical, which are

the same as are ordinarily adopted by other colleges and academies in our country, are open to worthy persons of color of either sex. The number of its students at present is upwards of 70, of whom the greater portion are females. The tuition fee is put down at the low rate of $2 per term; the academical year commencing on the 2d Monday in September, and being divided into three terms of 15, 13, and 12 weeks, respectively.

Avery College has had a number of graduates from its academical course, but none as yet from its collegiate department. It is, however, fully empowered to confer the usual degrees in the arts and sciences; and there is now reason to hope that, in the course of a year or two, it will be able to reckon several baccalaureates among its alumni.

ASHMUN INSTITUTE—LINCOLN UNIVERSITY.

At a stated meeting of the Presbytery of New Castle, October 5, 1853, after discussion, it was determined that "There shall be established within our bounds, and under our supervision, an institution, to be called the Ashmun Institute, for the scientific, classical, and theological education of colored youth of the male sex."

In pursuance of this determination, J. M. Dickey, A. Hamilton, R. P. Dubois, ministers, and Samuel J. Dickey and John M. Kelton, ruling elders, were appointed a committee to carry out this determination, by collecting funds, selecting a suitable site, and erecting plain and convenient edifices for the purpose; also, to take steps to procure a charter from the State of Pennsylvania. On the 14th of November following this committee agreed to purchase 30 acres of land for $1,250, appointed a sub-committee to prepare a copy of the charter, and took other measures for carrying out the plan.

At the session of the legislature in 1854 the charter was granted, establishing "at or near a place called Hinsonville, in the county of Chester, an institution of learning for the scientific, classical, and theological education of colored youth of the male sex, by the name and style of the "Ashmun Institute." The trustees of this institute were John M. Dickey, Alfred Hamilton, Robert P. Dubois, James Latta, John B. Spottswood, James M. Crowell, Samuel J. Dickey, John M. Kelton, and William Wilson.

By the provisions of this charter the trustees had power "to procure the endowment of the institute, not exceeding the sum of $100,000;" "to confer such literary degrees and academic honors as are usually granted by colleges;" and it was required that "the institute shall be open to the admission of colored pupils of the male sex, of all religious denominations, who exhibit a fair moral character, and are willing to yield a ready obedience to the general regulations prescribed for the conduct of the pupils and the government of the institute."

On the 31st of December, 1856, the institute was formally opened and dedicated; and retained the name first given in its charter until the dedication of the new chapel, May 23, 1867, when the name "Lincoln University" was given. In the address of the president of the trustees, on that occasion, he says: "We were compelled, on the day of our first dedication, to go to Africa for a name; we could designate our new institution for the colored man by no name of any one who had labored for his freedom or for the salvation of his soul, but as foreshadowing his removal to Africa as his home. But now we take another name, the name of the martyr whose emancipation proclamation has not only closed the black man's days of bondage, but become the prelude to his full citizenship." "By the name, Lincoln, therefore, we call this chapel and this university, and dedicate both to the Triune God, Father, Son and Holy Ghost."

The board of trustees at present consists of 21 members, chosen by the Presbytery of New Castle. The officers of the board are a president, secretary, and treasurer. The faculty consists of the president, professors, and tutors. The present faculty in the collegiate department consists of Rev. I. N. Randall, president; Rev. Alonzo Westcott, Rev. E. R. Bower, Rev. E. E. Adams, and S. B. Howell, M. D., professors of mathematics, Greek, belles lettres, and natural sciences, respectively; and C. Geddes, M. D., tutor in Greek, and Latin; and Albert D. Minor, tutor in mathematics.

The number of students, as reported by the catalogue of 1868-9, was 114, of whom 14 were in the theological department, 17 in the preparatory class, and 83 in the collegiate depart-

ment. Of the students now in the university, 48 are preparing for the ministry and 41 for teaching. The institution has a small library of about 1,200 volumes; and is dependent upon donations from its friends for additions to it.

Eighty thousand dollars have recently been added to the endowment fund, securely invested, and devoted to the following objects: $20,000 for the endowment of the presidency, and named the Mary Dickey professorship; $20,000 contributed by Hon. W. E. Dodge, and named the Dodge professorship of sacred rhetoric; $20,000 conveyed in invested funds by J. C. Baldwin, esq., of New York city, named the Baldwin professorship of theology; and $20,000 assigned by the trustees of the Avery estate, Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, and named the Avery professorship of Lincoln University.

RHODE ISLAND.

Out of a population of 174,620, in 1860, there were 3,952 free colored persons in Rhode Island, and by the census in 1865 these had increased to 4,087. As far back as 1708 the blacks constituted one-fourth of the whole population. Their social position and standing here has at all times been better than in any other portion of the country. During the war of the Revolution the negroes were permitted to enlist in the Rhode Island regiment, and many of them did so and received their freedom. At the close of the war, February 23, 1784, an act was passed providing that all children born after the first of March following of slave mothers should be free. By the first constitution of Rhode Island, which went into operation in May, 1843, the negroes were allowed to vote on the same conditions as the native American white citizens, and since that date they have enjoyed all the facilities for progress which the right of voting could give.

In the year 1828 a separate school was established, on their own petition, in Providence, with one male teacher, although the children were not forbidden to attend any of the public schools in their vicinity. By an act of the legislature in 1864 all separate schools for colored children were abolished.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

South Carolina had, in 1860, a population of 703,708, of whom more than one-half were blacks, viz: 402,406 slaves and 9,914 free, or a total of 412,120. This State took the lead in legislating directly against the education of the colored race; in 1740, while yet a British province, its assembly enacted this law: "Whereas the having of slaves taught to write, or suffering them to be employed in writing, may be attended with inconveniences, *Be it enacted*, That all and every person and persons whatsoever, who shall hereafter teach or cause any slave or slaves to be taught, or shall use or employ any slave as a scribe in any manner of writing whatever, hereafter taught to write, every such person or persons shall for every such offense forfeit the sum of £100 current money."

In 1800 the State assembly passed an act, embracing free colored people as well as slaves in its shameful provisions, enacting "That assemblies of slaves, free negroes, mulattoes, and mestizoes, whether composed of all or any such description of persons, or of all or any of the same and a proportion of white persons, met together for the purpose of *mental* instruction in a confined or secret place, or with the gates or doors of such place barred, bolted, or locked, so as to prevent the free ingress to and from the same," are declared to be unlawful meetings; the officers dispersing such unlawful assemblages being authorized to "inflict such corporeal punishment, not exceeding 20 lashes, upon such slaves, free negroes, mulattoes, and, mestizoes, as they may judge necessary for deterring them from the like unlawful assemblage in future." Another section of the same act declares, "That it shall not be lawful for any number of slaves, free negroes, mulattoes, or mestizoes, even in company with white persons, to meet together and assemble for the purpose of mental instruction or religious worship before the rising of the sun or after the going down of the same." This section was so oppressive that, in 1803, in answer to petitions from certain religious societies, an amending act was passed forbidding any person before 9 o'clock in the evening "to break into a place of meeting wherever shall be assembled the members of any religious society of the State, provided a majority of them shall be white persons, or other to disturb their devotions, unless

a warrant has been procured from a magistrate, if at the time of the meeting there should be a magistrate within three miles of the place; if not, the act of 1800 is to remain in full force."

It was not, however, till nearly a third of a century later that the State took open and direct action against the education of its free colored population under all circumstances. On the 17th of December, 1834, the climax of infamy was attained in an act, of which the following is the introductory section:

"SECTION 1. If any person shall hereafter teach any slave to read or write, or shall aid or assist in teaching any slave to read or write, or cause or procure any slave to be taught to read or write, such person, if a free white person, upon conviction thereof shall, for each and every offense against this act, be fined not exceeding $100 and imprisonment not more than six months; or if a free person of color, shall be whipped not exceeding 50 lashes and fined not exceeding $50, at the discretion of the court of magistrates and freeholders before which such free person of color is tried; and if a slave, to be whipped, at the discretion of the court, not exceeding 50 lashes, the informer to be entitled to one-half the fine and to be a competent witness. And if any free person of color or slave shall keep any school or other place of instruction for teaching any slave or free person of color to read or write, such free person of color or slave shall be liable to the same fine, imprisonment, and corporeal punishment as by this act are imposed and inflicted on free persons of color and slaves for teaching slaves to write."

The second section, following up the detestable purpose of the act to doom its victims to besotted ignorance, forbids with severe penalties the employment of colored persons as "clerks or salesmen in or about any shop, store, or house used for trading." The third section makes it a grave misdemeanor "to sell, exchange, give, or in any otherwise deliver any spirituous liquors to any slave except upon the written and express order of the owner or person having the care and management of such slave. This section completes the infamy of the measure, in placing the dispensing of mental instruction to a slave in the same category of crimes with that of selling them intoxicating liquors, as is seen in the penalty which declares that "any free person of color or slave shall for each and every such offense incur the penalties prescribed for free persons of color or slaves for teaching slaves to read and write." All these acts, including the old province act of 1740, stood in full force when the rebellion came.

SCHOOLS FOR THE FREEDMEN.

The following account of the efforts to establish schools for colored children since 1861 was drawn up by Professor Vashon:

This State, famous in American annals as being the most determined advocate of the servitude of the African race and foremost in the secession movement made to secure its perpetuity, was, through the retributive workings of Divine justice, the next one after Virginia to witness the efforts of philanthropy in behalf of its oppressed free colored residents and of its peeled, broken, and imbruted bondmen. It is true that South Carolina had never, like other slave States, formally prohibited by law the maintenance of schools for free colored persons; but, by a statute enacted December 17, 1834, it had forbidden any individual of that class to keep such a school, and it visited with severe pains and penalties any one guilty of the offense of teaching a slave to read or write. The thick clouds of moral darkness thus formed were destined, however, to be rent and dissipated by the fierce-flashing lightnings of war, and that, too, before secession was a year old. In the month of November, 1861, the Port Royal islands were captured, and, on the 8th day of the following January, the Rev. Solomon Peck, D. D., of Boston, with the sanction of the military authorities, opened a school at Beaufort. In the latter part of the same month Mr. Barnard K. Lee, jr., a superintendent of "contrabands," opened another one at Hilton Head. The destitution upon which these schools cast the first cheering ray was indeed forlorn. All of the whites had fled from these islands, leaving there about 8,000 negroes, steeped in ignorance and want. Their deplorable condition appealed strongly to the officers of the government for relief, and did not appeal in vain. Early in January, 1862, Edward L. Pierce, esq., was sent out by Secretary Chase, of the Treasury Department, to examine the condition of the abandoned plantations on these islands; and, about the same time, the Rev. Mansfield

French was deputed by the government to examine the condition of the negroes along the whole southern coast. He was accompanied by a teacher of the American Mission Association, who opened another school at Beaufort on the 1st of February, 1862. About the middle of the same month other schools were opened on Hilton Head island by three teachers whose services had been secured in reply to appeals addressed by Mr. Pierce to the Revs. E. E. Hale and J. M. Manning, D. D., of Boston. Upon Mr. French's return he brought with him letters from General T. W. Sherman and Commodore Dupont urging the benevolent of the north to bestir themselves in behalf of the destitute within the limits of their command. In response public meetings were held at once in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, which resulted in the formation of three freedmen's aid societies, viz, the Boston Educational Commission, on February 7th; the Freedmen's Relief Association, at New York, on February 22d; and the Port Royal Relief Commission, on March 3, 1862. On the same day that this last society was organized in Philadelphia 52 teachers, missionaries and superintendents (40 men and 12 women) sailed from New York for Port Royal. Twenty-nine of these (25 men and 4 women) were under the commission of the Boston society. To these persons transportation and boarding were furnished by the government, which also, after a short time, paid the salaries of the superintendents. Upon their arrival at their field of labor schools were immediately established, the salaries of the teachers being paid by the societies which had sent them out. Other teachers were soon sent out by the Philadelphia society, and, in the following June, 86 persons were reported in the field. On the 28th of the last mentioned month this work was transferred to the War Department and placed under the supervision of General Rufus Saxton, then military governor of South Carolina.

Words would fail to depict the noble devotion and self-sacrifice of these sea island teachers as they carried on their philanthropic labors during the remaining years of the war. With a courage worthy of comparison with that of their brothers on the tented field, they remained at their posts, braving all the perils and privations of their situation. Heaven smiled upon their efforts, and, although they were called upon to instruct beings whom oppression had degraded almost to the intellectual level of the brute, they were enabled to attain to results which might be triumphantly compared with those of other educators in far more favorable spheres. Those results are their highest praise, and doubtless the same God who blessed their labors will also bestow upon them their merited reward.

With the capture of Charleston a new and extended impulse was given to educational work in South Carolina. Immediately thereafter Mr. James Redpath was appointed superintendent of education for that city, and entered upon his duties with laudable energy and zeal. On the 4th of March, 1865, he took possession of the public school buildings and reopened them for the use of black and white children in separate rooms. He invited all former teachers of these schools to continue their labors, and sent at once to the northern societies for experienced teachers to aid in their reorganization and instruction. Within a week's time he reported 300 white children and 1,200 colored ones as being in attendance. The societies which he had appealed to became responsible for the salaries of the southern teachers, of whom 68 were employed, a large proportion being colored. Other teachers were sent on from the north, and, at the expiration of the school term in July of that year, an enrollment of 4,000 pupils was reported.

The creation of the Freedmen's Bureau, March 3, 1865, with General O. O. Howard, the indefatigable and impartial friend of white and black, as Chief Commissioner; the recommendation of the national council of Congregational churches, held in Boston in the following June, that $250,000 should be raised for the work among the freedmen, with its indorsement of the American Missionary Association as an agency providentially fitted for its employment, and the final concentration of the various freedmen's aid societies of the north and west into the American Freedmen's Union Commission were all circumstances productive of salutary effects upon the schools in South Carolina as well as elsewhere throughout the south. The several societies already mentioned in this paper have since been known as the New England, New York, and Pennsylvania Branches of the Union Commission. The increase in the number of schools established and of teachers employed by them in 1867, proved that their energy and efficiency were not diminished by their coalition. South

Carolina has been fortunate, too, in having, in the person of Mr. Reuben Tomlinson, a State superintendent of education under the Freedmen's Bureau, an officer whose hearty co-operation and sympathy with the various agencies at work there rendered its schools as great a success as the means at command would permit of. And, although a comparison of these schools in 1868 with their condition in the preceding year shows a falling off, that result is attributable to the greater poverty of the freedmen themselves rather than to any diminution of effort or zeal on the part of their friends. In spite of this falling off, the following statement, made in March, 1868, by Mr. Arthur Sumner, a teacher employed by the New England branch, makes quite an interesting exhibit of the schools in Charleston at that time:

The Shaw school, (New England branch F. U. C.,) 360 pupils.

Mr. F. L. Cardozo's school, (American Missionary Association,) 360 pupils.

Zion Church school, (Presbyterian,) 525 pupils.

Franklin Street school, (Episcopalian,) 665 pupils.

Tivoli Garden school, (Baptist,) 150 pupils.

Morris Street school, (municipal,) 500 pupils.

It is to be remembered that to the 2,560 children then in those schools are to be added about 500 others who belonged to private schools. And, speaking with reference to educational matters in the entire State, it is also to be remembered that this sketch of the South Carolina schools is by no means a perfect measure of the enlightenment there. The Rev. J. W. Alvord, general superintendent of schools under the Freedmen's Bureau, made the following statement in his third semi-annual report, January, 1867: "From information at our command, it is safe to assert that at least 30,000 colored persons, men, women, and children, have learned to read during the last year." And there is no doubt that every year since the close of the rebellion the number of colored persons who have learned to read and write in South Carolina has been far in excess of the number reported as attending the schools.

In conclusion, the following description, copied from a Charleston paper, of a school recently established there and dedicated with appropriate exercises on May 7, 1868, may prove interesting:

THE AVERY INSTITUTE, CHARLESTON.

"This new and handsome school building is named in honor of the late Rev. Charles Avery, of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, from whose bequest $10,000 were given to the American Missionary Association, and applied by it to the purchase of the lands on which this edifice stands, and to the erection of a mission home. The normal school edifice was built for the association by the Freedmen's Bureau at a cost of $17,000.

"The building is 88 feet long, 68 feet wide, 50 feet high, and to the top of the flag-staff, 90 feet. It is raised on brick pillars, with spacious brick basements and a large cistern underneath. On the first floor are four large class rooms, two for the first class of boys and two for the first class of girls. Two of these rooms are of double size, divided by sliding glass doors, and intended, when built, for the preparatory and higher classes of a normal department. Each of the class rooms is capable of accommodating from 50 to 75 pupils, and is fitted up with handsome desks. The hall-way is also furnished with convenient closets and racks for the reception of hats, cloaks, &c. On the second floor is a commodious assembly hall, with four long rows of seats, and a desk and platform for the principal. On this floor are also two large class rooms, and running round the walls of the class rooms is a composition blackboard. On either side of the building are spacious piazzas running the entire length, and opened upon from the class rooms. The building is finely ventilated on a new and improved plan."

The following tables exhibit the statistics of the colored schools from 1865 to 1868:

Number of schools, teachers, and pupils, 1865 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	....	....	48	52	24	76	....	....	10,000	....	......
1866	....	....	113	98	90	188	....	....	12,017	....	......
1867	124	36	160	139	95	234	7,963	8,687	16,650	13,289	79
1868	87	26	113	128	75	203	7,167	7,733	14,900	9,606	64

Studies and expenditures, 1867 *and* 1868.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	3,750	5,835	6,198	9,902	2,850	8,934	574	$12,200	$80,800	$93,000
1868	1,898	4,097	6,107	5,918	3,602	6,810	442	6,838	50,162	57,000

TENNESSEE.

There were in this State, in 1860, 283,019 colored persons, out of a population of 1,109,801, of whom 275,719 were slaves and 7,300 free.

The territory constituting the State of Tennessee was a part of North Carolina until ceded to the United States, in 1790; and the laws of North Carolina then in force were to continue till superseded by the legislation of the proper authorities. Among the laws which continued in force down to 1821 was one enacted in 1741 by North Carolina, forbidding the whipping of "a Christian servant naked, without an order from the justice of the peace," on penalty of 40 shillings; and another, enacted in 1779, punishing "the stealing of slaves with intent to sell them" by "death, without benefit of clergy." Another law enforced in Tennessee was that of 1787, that "if any free negro or mulatto shall entertain any slave in his or her house during the Sabbath or in the night, between sunset and sunrise," he or she might be fined $2 50 for the first two and $5 for every subsequent offense. Tennessee became a State in 1796, and in 1799 an act was passed "to prevent the willful and malicious killing of slaves." There was no specific act forbidding the assemblies of slaves until 1803, when such assemblies were forbidden, without a written permission from the owner, under a penalty of $10. In 1806 "any white person, free negro, or mulatto" attending any such unlawful meeting, or "harboring or entertaining any slave, without the consent of the owner," might be fined not more than $20 nor less than $10 for each offense; and the negroes so found were to receive "15 stripes on the bare back, well laid on, under the direction of the patrol." In 1831 "all assemblages of slaves in unusual numbers or at suspicious times and places, not expressly authorized by the owners," were to be deemed unlawful.

In 1836 an act was passed concerning incendiary publications and speeches, forbidding "words or gestures, with intent to excite any slave or free person of color to insubordination, insurrection, or rebellion;" also "the circulation or publication of seditious pamphlets," the penalty for which was confinement in the penitentiary from 5 to 10 years for the first and from 10 to 20 years for any subsequent offense.

The revised code of 1858 retains all these severe restrictions.

In 1838 a system of common schools was established, according to which the scholars were designated as "white children over the age of six years and under 16;" but in 1840, in the act

amending this system, discrimination of color is not mentioned, but it is provided that "all children between the ages of 6 and 21 years shall have the privilege of attending the public schools;" and the act of 1862 also comprehended all children. This State never enacted any law positively forbidding the instruction of colored people; but, notwithstanding the language of the law, the benefits of the common school system were confined exclusively to white children. The school fund of the State was composed of the proceeds of certain school lands, bonuses from the banks and other incorporated companies, from licenses, fines, and taxes, to which the free colored people contributed no inconsiderable share. The fund, in 1858, consisted of $1,500,000 deposited in the Bank of Tennessee, together with property given by will for the purpose; the proceeds of sales or rents of escheated lands, or lands bought by the State at tax sales, and of the personal effects of intestates having no kindred entitled by the laws thereto; besides taxes on certain mineral lands.

In March, 1867, an act was passed "to provide for the reorganization, supervision, and maintenance of free common schools," which declares that the school fund for annual distribution shall consist of the school funds already provided by law, together with a tax of two mills on the dollar of all taxable property, and an addition of 25 cents to the poll-tax previously levied by law, which fund shall be for "the benefit of all the youth of the State." The distribution of the income of this fund is made in proportion to the number of school children in each district. By the same act the boards of education and other officers having authority, in each district or city, were authorized and required to establish within their respective jurisdictions one or more special schools for colored children, when there are more than 25, so as to afford them the advantages of a common school education, the schools so established to be under the control of the board of education or other school officers having charge of the educational interests of other schools. If at any time the number of children attending the school should fall below 15 for any one month, the school may be discontinued for a period not exceeding five months at one time.

The following statistics give the condition of the colored schools for the years specified:

Number of schools, teachers, and pupils, 1866 *to* 1868.

Year	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1866	....	....	42	....	....	125	....	....	9,114	6,279	68
1867	109	19	128	111	43	154	4,245	5,206	9,451	6,377	67
1868	146	32	178	131	72	203	5,190	5,580	10,770	7,758	71

Studies and expenditures, 1867 *and* 1868.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	1,344	4,501	3,691	3,306	2,092	3,308	557	$10,152	$61,575	$71,727
1868	1,509	4,507	4,615	4,025	3,168	4,609	691	12,235	59,426	71,661

TEXAS.

In 1860 there were in Texas 182,921 colored people, out of the whole population of 604,215, of whom only 355 were free, 182,566 being slaves.

Slavery existed in Texas while it was a Mexican province, but different from that in the United States. In a decree of the congress of Coahuila and Texas, September 15, 1827, it

is provided that "in each change of owners of slaves, in the nearest succession even of heirs apparent, the tenth part of those who are to pass to the new owner shall be manumitted," the manumission being determined by lot. This provision is to be understood only in connection with the fact that slaves in Mexico were transferred with the real estate. By the same decree it was declared that "the ayuntamientos, under the most rigid responsibility, shall take particular care that free children, born slaves, receive the best education that can be given them, placing them, for that purpose, at the public schools and other places of instruction, wherein they may become useful to society." The ayuntamientos correspond to mayors and aldermen.

In 1827 there was another decree that the slave who, for convenience, wished to change his master should be permitted to do so, "provided the new master indemnify the former for what the slave cost him, agreeably to the consequence."

In 1836, in accordance with the express provisions of their constitution, the congress of Texas made the penalty for introducing any "Africans or negroes" into the republic, except from the United States, to be an offense to be punished with "death, without benefit of clergy;" and by the same act the introduction of Africans or slaves from the United States, except such as were legally held as slaves in the United States, was declared to be piracy, and punishable in the same manner. In 1837 it was enacted that "free Africans and descendants of Africans" who were residing in the republic at the date of the declaration of independence might remain free. At the same time a law was passed forbidding any slave or free person of color from using insulting or abusive language to or threatening any white person, under a penalty of "stripes, not exceeding 100 and not less than 25." In 1840 free persons of color were forbidden to immigrate into the republic, under a penalty of being sold into slavery; and the same act gave two years' time for all free persons of color to remove from the republic, at the same time providing that those found in the republic at the expiration of that period might be sold as slaves. In 1841 and in 1845 a few were excepted from the provisions of this act by special enactment. This was the nature of the legislation in 1845, when Texas came into the Union.

At the first session of the legislature of the State of Texas, in May, 1846, an act was passed forbidding any one to allow slaves to go at large more than one day in a week, except at the Christmas holidays, the penalty being a fine of not more than $100. "All negroes and Indians, and all persons of mixed blood descended from negro ancestry, to the third generation, though one ancestor of each generation may have been a white person," were declared incapable of being witnesses, "except for or against each other." The last act of legislation relating to the free colored people, previous to the rebellion, was one in 1851 permitting one Thomas Cevallas, a free man of color who had resided in the State since 1835 and been wounded in the defense of the country, "to remain a resident of the county of Bexar."

There is nothing in relation to the education of colored people, free or slave, on the statute books of the State. As the free colored people were generally banished, there was no necessity for any enactments in regard to their education.

The new constitution of the State, adopted in the convention April 2, 1866, declares that "Africans and their descendants shall be protected in their rights of person and property by appropriate legislation." The legislature, in 1866, took care to protect the school fund of the State, so far as it remained, and took measures to establish a system of common schools. But by an act passed in 1867, providing for the education of indigent white children, it appears that the "system" is not entitled to be called a common school system. It provides that "the police courts—at their discretion—of the several counties may levy and collect a tax annually, not to exceed one-half of the State tax, and upon the same subjects of taxation, (Africans and the descendants of Africans, and their property, excepted,) to be applied solely to the education of *indigent white children*."

The following tables, compiled by Professor Vashon, exhibits the condition of the schools under the superintendents of the Freedmen's Bureau:

Number of schools, teachers, and scholars, 1865 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1865	10	6	16	....	....	10	....	....	1,041	....	.....
1866	....	....	90	....	....	43	....	....	4,590	....	.....
1867	68	34	102	58	40	98	1,960	2,238	4,198	2,923	6[illegible]
1868	51	25	76	55	26	81	1,235	1,369	2,604	2,176	8[illegible]

Studies and expenditures, 1867 *and* 1868

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	682	1,765	1,696	1,607	486	1,263	77	$11,340	$823	$12,16[illegible]
1868	254	888	1,183	1,259	602	1,077	240	2,093	5,739	7,83[illegible]

VIRGINIA.

By the census of 1860 the population of Virginia, including the territory since occupied as West Virginia, was 1,596,318, of whom 548,907 were colored, and of these 490,865 were slaves and 58,042 were free.

To Virginia belongs the bad pre-eminence of having been, if not the birthplace and nursery, the great commercial mart of involuntary domestic servitude, and of having fixed the legal status of slavery in the slave States of this Union. By the several acts already cited the information and culture which are the results of travel, the free intercourse with others more intelligent and refined, the printed page, the living views of educated teachers and preachers, the choice and practice of varied mechanical, as well as agricultural labor, and all the inspiring motives of political privileges and the responsibilities generally of business and of family and social position, were denied.

Fifty years after the introduction of slaves into Virginia, Sir William Berkley reports the population of the province at 40,000, of whom 2,000 were black slaves. Continual importations from Africa increased the number rapidly, and in the reign of George the First alone not less than 10,000 were brought into the colony. At the beginning of his reign, out of the population of 95,000 in the colony, 23,000 were negroes; and in 1756, when the population reached 293,000, the negroes amounted to 120,000. But in that early day the church of Virginia was careful to give to the slaves the benefit of Christian instruction, inasmuch as an act was passed October, 1785, declaring "that baptism of slaves doth not exempt them from bondage."

The difficulties in the way of instructing the slaves, even when permission was given, as in this early period, were very great, since Sunday was the only day of rest for them, and the great distances of the plantations from each other made it impracticable for a teacher to keep up any systematic plan of visitation. In addition to this was the indifference or opposition of most planters, who considered the negroes as little above the brutes, and that to attempt to give them moral and intellectual culture was worse than useless.

REV. MORGAN GODWYN AND EARLY LABORERS FOR THE SLAVE.

Virginia was not without early witnesses to the evils of slavery and advocates for the amelioration of its condition. Rev. Morgan Godwyn, who was a student of Christ church,

Oxford, and for several years an ordained minister of the Church of England, in Virginia, and afterwards for a few years in Barbadoes; and Rev. Jonathan Boucher, rector of Hanover, and subsequently of St. Mary's parish, in Virginia, and dean of Queen Ann's parish, in Maryland.

Godwyn, in a pamphlet published by him in London, in 1680, and written while he was in Barbadoes, entitled "The Negroes and Indians' Advocate, suing for them admission into the church, &c.," in the preface of this work, states that his efforts to baptize and train negroes in the knowledge of Christian truth had been opposed; (1) by those who declared it to be impracticable; (2) by those, who regarded it as a work savoring of Popish supererogation, and utterly needless; and (3) by those, the most numerous, who condemned it as likely to be subversive of their own interests and property, and strove to put it down by ridicule. The planters vindicated their treatment of the negro by saying that, although he bore the resemblance of a man, he had not the qualities of a man—a conceit of which Godwyn boldly asserts, "atheism and irreligion were the parents, and avarice and sloth the foster nurses." The Quakers of that time also upbraided the church for the continuance of the evils of slavery, and issued "a petty reformado pamphlet" on the subject, in which the question was asked, "who made you ministers of the Gospel to the white people only, and not to the tawneys and blacks also?"

Godwyn, in his sermon, maintains the following propositions: "(1) that the negroes, both slaves and others have naturally an equal right with other men to the exercise and privileges of religion, of which it is most unjust in any part to deprive them; (2) that the profession of Christianity absolutely obliging to the promoting of it, no difficulties nor inconveniences, how great soever, can excuse the neglect, much less the hindering or opposing of it, which is, in effect, no better than a renunciation of that profession; (3) that the inconveniences here pretended for this neglect, being examined will be found nothing such, but rather the con trary."

The delivery of this sermon exposed its preacher to the most barbarous usage, and another of the clergy, who, upon another occasion, urged from the pulpit the like duty, was treated with severity by the planters. The negroes, also, in consequence of these efforts on the part of the clergy of Barbadoes to help them, were exposed to still more brutal treatment. In one case a negro, whose crime was neither more nor less than receiving baptism on a Sunday morning at his parish church, from the hands of the minister, was reproved by the brutish overseer, and given to understand "that that was no Sunday work for those of his complexion; that he had other business for him, the neglect whereof would cost him an afternoon's baptism in blood, as in the morning he had received a baptism with water; which he accordingly made good. Of which the negro afterward complaining to the minister, and he to the governor, the miserable wretch was forever after so unmercifully treated by that inhuman devil, that, to avoid his cruelty, betaking himself to the woods, he there perished."

Godwyn represents that the persevering, "officious" Quaker incurred the enmity of the authorities of the island, who secured in 1676 and 1678 the passage of several acts for the express purpose of preventing Quakers, under severe penalties, from bringing negroes to their meetings. One of these acts (1676) contained a clause that no person should be allowed to keep a school unless he first took an oath of allegiance and supremacy; a precaution perhaps not impolitic in a colony where labor was of more utility than learning. The clergyman who administered the rite of baptism in the case referred to was obliged to vindicate himself in a tone of apology for having done that act of ministerial duty.

To Morgan Godwyn belongs the credit of having first borne his testimony against the lawfulness of trading in the persons of men; although Bishop Sanderson, about the same period, gave his testimony against it, as well as Baxter, in his Christian Directory, where he gives rules for the masters of slaves in foreign plantations to give their slaves instructions.

Mr. Godwyn also published a sermon in 1685, entitled "Trade Preferred before Religion," which was first preached at Westminster Abbey, and afterwards in divers churches in London, and dedicated to the King. In this dedication he states that the end and design of his discourse was "to stir up and provoke your Majesty's subjects abroad, (and even at home also,) to use at least some endeavors for the propagation of Christianity among their domestic

slaves and vassals." In his preface he notes the spreading of the leprosy of mammonism and irreligion, by which the efforts to instruct and Christianize the heathen were paralyzed, and even the slaves who were the subjects of such instruction became the victims of still greater cruelty; while the ministers who imparted the instructions were neglected or even persecuted by the masters.

Among the motives presented for the English people and the English church to take up the subject of instruction of the slaves were the following, as set forth in his own language as printed: "This ought to be reformed in respect of the *dishonor* from thence redounding to our *church* and *nation* and even to the *whole* Reformation. First, to the *church;* for it occasions her *enemies to blaspheme.* Hence a certain *Romanist* demands of us, *where are the indefatigable missioners* sent by you to *the remotest parts of the world for the conversion of heathens? a noble function wherein the Catholic* (that is their Roman) *church only and most iustly glories; whilst you like lazy drones sit at home not daring to wet a foot, &c.* And by another it is objected against both *ourselves* and our equally *zealous* neighbors, *that never anything for the propagation of Christianity in foreign parts hath by either nation been at any time attempted.* And from thence a third person very roundly infers the *nullity* of our *church* and religion, viz: *Because we have no zeal,* therefore *no faith,* and therefore *no church nor religion among us.*"

"Again, when the great industry of our people in *New England* shall be rehearsed, their converting of *nations,* turning the *whole Bible into the Indian tongue;* their *college built and endowed* for the *education of Indian youth;* their *missioners* sent forth and *lands purchased* for their maintenance; and all this out of a barren soil some 60 years since no better than a *rocky* wilderness; whilst ours, out of *better* conveniences and more happy *opportunities,* (such are our *grateful* returns!) have not produced the *least grain of harvest* to God's glory in those parts; but upon all occasions *shifting it off* with the unfitness of the season and pretending that *the time is not come;* proclaiming it *impracticable* and impossible, though effected by others of smaller abilities; or, like *Solomon's* sluggard, setting up *lions* and *tigers* in the way; raising obstructions and *creating* difficulties, when upon experience there are *no such* to be found. Now when these mighty works shall be hereafter rehearsed, how will that glorious name of the *Church of England* stand as it were in *disgrace,* not only among those *primitive* worthies who at first so cheerfully entered upon this work and afterwards endured the *heat* of the day? but when compared even with these moderns, whom we bespeak as *schismatics* and *idolaters,* yet do each of them give those testimonies of their *zeal* and *charity* which are equally requisite and would be no less *commendable* in us also."

JONATHAN BOUCHER.

The evils of slavery, both in its moral and economical aspects, were clearly seen and forcibly presented by Rev. Jonathan Boucher, in a discourse "On the Peace in 1763," preached in Hanover parish, King George's county, Virginia. After pointing out the objections to war, Mr. Boucher dwells on the advantages, pursuits, and duties of peace. Among the latter he urges an immediate improvement in the present practice of agriculture, by which all the varied advantages of climate and soil are neglected for the culture of a single staple, which, he says, he is "at some loss how to characterize, either as a necessary of life or a luxury. A necessary it certainly is not, since it can neither be used as food nor raiment; neither is it a luxury, at least in the sense of a gratification, being so nauseous and offensive that long habit alone can reconcile any constitution to the use of it." Such culture as is now going on, he adds, in the language of Scripture, will "make a fruitful land barren, for the wickedness of them that dwell therein." He sums up his views on this part of the subject by citing the opinion of "an ancient," who, in drawing the picture of a happy people, says: "It is necessary peace and good laws should prevail; that the ground should be well cultivated; children well educated; and due homage paid to the gods."

The next duty of a state of peace, he says, is to attempt the civilization of the Indian tribes, whom, he says, the white men have made it a kind of religion to exterminate: but whom he believes "it is in our power to convert into freemen, useful subjects, and good Christians." He concludes thus: "But Indians are by no means the sole or chief objects of our

present attention; the united motives of interest and humanity call on us to bestow some consideration on the case of those sad outcasts of society, our negro slaves; for my heart would smite me, were I not, in this hour of prosperity, to entreat you (it being their unparalleled hard lot not to have the power of entreating for themselves) to permit them to participate in the general joy. Even those who are the sufferers can hardly be sorry when they see wrong measures carrying their punishment along with them. Were an impartial and competent observer of the state of society in these middle colonies asked, whence it happens that Virginia and Maryland (which were the first planted, and which are superior to many colonies, and inferior to none, in point of natural advantage) are still so exceedingly behind most of the other British trans-atlantic possessions in all those improvements which bring credit and consequence to a country? he would answer—they are so, because they are cultivated by slaves. I believe it is capable of demonstration that, except the immediate interest which every man has in the property of his slaves, it would be for every man's interest that there were no slaves; and for this plain reason, because the free labor of a free man, who is regularly hired and paid for the work he does, and only for what he does, is, in the end, cheaper than the extorted eye-service of a slave. Some loss and inconvenience would, no doubt, arise from the general abolition of slavery in these colonies; but were it done gradually, with judgment, and with good temper, I have never yet seen it satisfactorily proved that such inconvenience would either be great or lasting. North American or West Indian planters might, possibly, for a few years, make less tobacco, or less rice, or less sugar; the raising of which might also cost them more; but that disadvantage would probably soon be amply compensated to them by an advanced price, or (what is the same thing) by the reduced expense of cultivation." * * * "If ever these colonies, now filled with slaves, be improved to their utmost capacity, an essential part of the improvement must be the abolition of slavery. Such a change would hardly be more to the advantage of the slaves than it would be to their owners. An ingenious French writer (Montesquieu) well observes, 'the state of slavery is, in its own nature bad; it is neither useful to the master nor to the slave. Not to the slave, because he can do nothing through a motive of virtue; not to the master, because, by having an *unlimited* authority over his slaves, he insensibly accustoms himself to the want of all moral virtues, and from thence grows fierce, hasty, severe, voluptuous, and cruel.'

"I come now, in the last place, to exhort you not to disappoint the pious wishes which our pious king had in thus publicly summoning us to hail *the Lord of lords and King of kings with songs of deliverance*, for having *given his people the blessing of peace*." "And notwithstanding all that a discontented party has said, or has written, on the idea that the conditions of the peace are inadequate to our great success, so far as they concern us we can have no objection to them."

SCHOOLS IN NORFOLK AND RICHMOND.

Of all the States in the American Union, Virginia is, on several accounts, peculiarly associated with the history of the colored people of this country. Upon its shores, in 1620, a Dutch vessel landed the first cargo of human merchandise that had ever been brought from the ill-fated continent of Africa into a British colony. Through the slave labor thus introduced, its eminent agricultural resources were developed during the following century and a half so largely that, at the epoch of the Revolution, it ranked first in importance among the 13 original constituents of the confederation since known as the United States of America. Its slave population, too, had increased to such an extent as to enable it to supply from its excess of laborers the requirements of the other slaveholding States; and thus Virginia became and continued to be, during all the days of servitude, the great breeding slave mart of the Union.

But the curse thus destined to work so much ill both to Africa and America did not prove to its immediate victims one of entirely unmitigated severity. In Virginia, as elsewhere, the relation of master and slave soon led to the existence of a class in whose veins the blood of the oppressed was mingled with that of the oppressor; and, in behalf of this class, the voice of nature did not in many cases plead in vain. Besides, the constant and daily intercourse of slaveholding families with that portion of their property known as house servants was

frequently illustrated by such marked instances of devoted fidelity upon the part of the latter as appealed successfully for a grateful recognition from their owners, in return. To these fortunate individuals, either the offspring or the favorites of their masters, the rudiments of a common education were often imparted. Through manumission, too, and the privilege granted to slaves to purchase their freedom, quite a large free colored population was added to society in Virginia; and, in Richmond, Norfolk, and other of the principal cities, a few schools were tolerated for the benefit of this class. These schools were generally taught by colored persons who had acquired sufficient education for that purpose; and, through their instrumentality, a knowledge of reading and writing and the other common branches of learning was quite extensively disseminated. About 40 years ago there were two excellent schools of this description in the city of Petersburg, one of which was taught by a Mr. Shepherd, and the other by the Rev. John T. Raymond, a Baptist minister, living in Boston, Massachusetts, in 1869.

These schools existed for several years, although in the midst of a continually growing feeling of dissatisfaction in regard to them on the part of the white portion of the community. It was suspected that, in addition to the influence which they might have in rendering the slaves discontented, they were also the means of enlightening some of them, as well as their free brethren. This led to the enactment by the general assembly of Virginia, on the 2d of March, 1819, of a law prohibiting "all meetings or assemblages of slaves, or free negroes, or mulattoes, mixing and associating with such slaves, at any meeting-house or houses, or any other place or places, in the night, or at any school or schools for teaching them reading and writing, either in the day or night." For the violation of this law any justice of the peace was authorized to inflict the penalty of 20 lashes upon each and every offender against its provisions. But, although the instruction of slaves was thus guarded against, schools for free colored people were still allowed until the occurrence of Nat Turner's insurrection had aroused terror and dismay throughout the entire south. Then public opinion almost universally demanded the prohibition of these establishments. Accordingly, on the 7th day of April, 1831, the general assembly of Virginia enacted a law with the following among other provisions, viz:

"SEC. 4. *And be it enacted*, That all meetings of free negroes or mulattoes at any school-house, church, meeting-house, or other place, for teaching them reading or writing, either in the day or night, under whatsoever pretext, shall be deemed and considered an unlawful assembly; and any justice of the county or corporation wherein such assemblage shall be, either from his own knowledge, or on the information of others of such unlawful assemblage or meeting, shall issue his warrant directed to any sworn officer or officers, authorizing him or them to enter the house or houses where such unlawful assemblage or meeting may be, for the purpose of apprehending or dispersing such free negroes or mulattoes, and to inflict corporal punishment on the offender or offenders, at the discretion of any justice of the peace, not exceeding 20 lashes.

"SEC. 5. *And be it enacted*, That if any white person or persons assemble with free negroes or mulattoes at any school-house, church, meeting-house, or other place, for the purpose of instructing such free negroes or mulattoes to read or write, such person or persons shall, on conviction thereof, be fined in a sum not exceeding $50, and, moreover, may be imprisoned, at the discretion of a jury, not exceeding two months.

"SEC. 6. *And be it enacted*, That if any white person, for pay or compensation, shall assemble with any slaves for the purpose of teaching, and shall teach any slave to read or write, such person, or any white person or persons contracting with such teacher so to act, who shall offend as aforesaid, shall, for each offense, be fined at the discretion of a jury in a sum not less than $10 nor exceeding $100, to be recovered on an information or indictment."

Upon the revision of the criminal code of the Commonwealth of Virginia, the laws already referred to and quoted were retained, with a few alterations, under the head of "Offenses against the public policy." Nor was this law prohibiting colored schools a mere *brutum fulmen*, as it was made apparent in 1854, when Mrs. Margaret Douglass, a white lady, born in South Carolina, was imprisoned in the common jail of the city of Norfolk for having violated its provisions, although ignorant of their existence when she began her school, in 1851.

That vindication of the laws may have served its purpose by putting a stop to any open instruction of colored children; but, from the time of the first prohibition until then, schools for that purpose were secretly maintained in the principal cities of Virginia, although the colored aspirants after knowledge were constrained to keep their books and slates carefully hidden from every prying eye, and to assume the appearance of being upon an errand as they hurried along and watched their chance to slip unnoticed into the sedulously concealed school-room. Such was the thirst for enlightenment on the part of the proscribed children of Virginia, and such the determined severity of that State towards them, at the very time when she was beginning to awaken to the necessity of securing the benefit of a common school system for her white people.

SCHOOLS FOR FREEDMEN.

It was reserved for Virginia herself to abrogate all this iniquitous legislation by her consenting to become a party in the movement to break up the federal Union. It was reserved for her shores, that had witnessed the inception of the wrong, to behold also the first step in the expiation. In the close neighborhood of the very spot where the first cargo of slaves had been disembarked stands the little brown building that served as the first school-house for the freedmen. Securely it nestled under the guns of Fortress Monroe, with the military power of the nation pledged for its maintenance. Six months had not yet elapsed since the clouds of war had gathered when this earliest sunbeam of a dawning civilization burst through to relieve their gloom. On the 17th day of September, 1861, the school was opened. It had an appropriate and, at the same time, a competent teacher in Mrs. Mary S. Peake, a lady of whom one of the ancestors on the maternal side might possibly have come over to this country on the Dutch vessel already alluded to. The honor of its establishment is due to the American Missionary Association, which had labored, even before the war, for the educational advancement of the colored people in Kentucky and elsewhere, and whose keen-eyed philanthropy eagerly caught sight of this "opening of the prison-house to those who were bound."

With the advance of the Union armies in the ensuing years of the war the labors of these friends of humanity kept steady pace. In 1862 their efforts in the State of Virginia secured the establishment of four additional schools, one of which was at Norfolk, two at Newport News, and the fourth one opened in the old court-house at Hampton. Besides establishing these they sent books to another school, begun by a colored man in Suffolk. They were aided, too, in their noble work by the Boston Education Commission, organized in the early part of that year under the presidency of the late Governor John A. Andrew. This latter association sent south more than 70 teachers, three of whom opened schools at Norfolk and Craney island.

The year 1863 was ushered in by the emancipation proclamation of President Lincoln, which conferred legal freedom upon all the slaves of the nation except those of certain specified localities, and actual freedom upon all such as might come within the lines of the national armies. The consequent enlargement of the area of philanthropic labor was followed by a corresponding increase in the number of earnest and efficient laborers. Hundreds of ladies, tenderly nurtured, and refined by all the accomplishments of modern culture, hastened to this field, now whitening for the harvest, and, braving privation and the vicissitudes of war, eagerly enrolled themselves among the teachers of the freedmen. In the State of Virginia the schools already established increased largely in the number of their pupils, while many others were opened in different localities to meet the importunity of those newly liberated thirsters after knowledge. The abandoned homes of "the first families" were in many instances pressed into the service of their former bondmen, and their elegant mansions were occupied—like that of ex-Governor Henry A. Wise—as schools for colored children and homes for their instructors. It is safe to say that the number of these schools, including those held at night, was at least 50. One of them, in the city of Norfolk, was so large within the first week of its establishment as to compel the employment of 15 colored assistants, and, in the course of the year, its attendance attained to the number of 1,200 pupils. In the following year—1864—additional schools were opened and the force of teachers at least doubled.

The pecuniary outlays necessitated by these operations were cheerfully made by numerous freedmen's associations throughout the north, acting generally as auxiliaries to the two agencies already mentioned.

The year 1865 was marked by the fall of Richmond and the close of the rebellion. The extended opportunity thus offered for philanthropic labors was straightway embraced, and schools were opened at every feasible point. The aid of the government also was secured for their maintenance. On the 3d of March, of this year, the Freedmen's Bureau had been created by act of Congress, and through the kind ordering of an All-wise Providence, Major General O. O. Howard, the gallant Christian soldier, was, in the following month of May, assigned to duty as its Commissioner. In his circular No. 2, dated May 19, 1865, he said: "The educational and moral condition of the people will not be forgotten. The utmost facility will be offered to benevolent and religious organizations and State authorities in the maintenance of good schools for refugees and freedmen, until a system of free schools can be supported by their organized local governments." But the co-operation of the Commissioner with these benevolent agencies did not stop here. He gave them efficient aid by turning over for school purposes the disused government buildings, and those seized from disloyal owners, which were under his charge; by affording transportation for teachers, books, and school-furniture, and by assigning quarters and rations to all engaged in the work of instruction, at the same time that protection was given to them through the department commanders. By his directions, too, the "refugee and freedmen's fund" was used to assist in the maintenance of schools supported, in part, by the freedmen themselves, and in each State superintendents of schools were appointed, whose duty it was "To work as much as possible in connection with State officers who may have had school matters in charge, and to take cognizance of all that was being done to educate refugees and freedmen, secure protection to schools and teachers, promote method and efficiency, and to correspond with the benevolent agencies which were supplying his field." Thus, under the beneficent administration of General Howard, this bureau has been, in the matter of education, as in many other respects, of efficient service to the freedmen, and has helped to prepare them for a right exercise of the franchises with which they are now invested as citizens. To bring about this result, too, the various religious denominations of the country have all labored, to a greater or less extent, with commendable zeal; and to aid in securing it, the American Freedmen's Union Commission, which unites in its organization the various undenominational freedmen's aid societies of the land, with the exception of the American Missionary Association, has shown itself the worthy co-adjutor of that body. This commission was formed on the 16th day of May, 1866, and its object, as stated in its constitution, is "To aid and co-operate with the people of the south, without distinction of race or color, in the improvement of their condition, upon the basis of industry, education, freedom, and Christian morality."

In all the advantages that have been mentioned the State of Virginia has participated, and, as a consequence of the several influences at work, its schools have increased in number, and have prospered greatly, every year since the close of the rebellion. True, they have had to contend with much prejudice and opposition on the part of a large majority of the white population. But there is reason to believe, from present indications, that these hostile sentiments are gradually diminishing, and that many, who are bitterly opposed to the political equality of the negro, admit the expediency and justice of providing for his education.

The following tables, which present a statistical view of these schools for the last three years, will, on examination, give a very satisfactory exhibit of their increase, cost of maintenance, and the advancement of the pupils in the several studies pursued during that period:

Number of schools, teachers, and pupils, 1866 *to* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1866	....	....	123	....	....	290	....	....	11,784	8,951	76
1867	195	56	251	197	98	295	8,076	8,039	16,115	10,890	68
1868	239	45	284	206	155	361	8,180	8,528	16,708	11,816	71

Studies and expenditures, 1867 and 1868.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expenditures in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	Bo freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867......	1,986	7,953	5,162	7,119	4,221	6,409	960	*$7,352 13	*$85,792 57	*$93,144 70
1868......	1,397	7,532	6,750	8,240	6,214	7,877	754	12,472 15	84,079 28	96,551 43

* Estimated upon reports of the Bureau Superintendent of Education, for six months of the year.

A brief account of two normal schools recently established will form an appropriate conclusion to this sketch of school matters among the colored population of Virginia. The first of these in the order of their establishment is—

THE RICHMOND NORMAL AND HIGH SCHOOL

This institution was opened for the admission of pupils in October, 1867, having been duly incorporated, with a board of trustees consisting of five members, by charter granted by the circuit court. The principal building, which is a handsome new brick edifice, erected at a cost of about $5,000, is 52 feet long by 32 feet wide, and two stories in height. Substantially built and amply provided with school furniture of the best modern styles, philosophical apparatus valued at $350, and a judiciously selected library of about 500 volumes, it is rendered still better adapted to its purposes by having its different rooms adorned with historical paintings and other works of art. It accommodates 100 pupils, whose studies are directed by the principal, Mr. Andrew Washburn, aided by two assistant teachers. The course of study prescribed is that which is usual in our normal schools; and the moral effect of the institution is apparent, not only in the wholesome instruction and discipline afforded to its pupils, but in its influence upon the community at large, awakening the nobler aspirations of colored youth, and diminishing the blind and unreasoning prejudice entertained against them by their white fellow-citizens. This school derives its support from the normal school fund of the English Friends, the Peabody fund, the city council, and the Freedmen's Bureau. The ulterior design of its founders is to prepare competent teachers for the hoped-for public school system, which is to follow in the train of reconstruction in Virginia.

THE HAMPTON NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE,

of which Mr. S. C. Armstrong is principal, is also designed to take part in raising up teachers; its purpose (as stated in a circular issued shortly after its establishment) being to prepare "youth of the south, without distinction of color, for the work of organizing and instructing schools in the southern States." It was opened in April, 1868, under the auspices of the American Missionary Association, and was duly incorporated in the following September. It is also a manual labor school, and connected with it is a farm of 120 acres provided with all the appliances needful for the instruction of its students, in both the theory and the practice of the most profitable methods of agriculture.

All of the house-work, too, in the boarding department is performed by the female students. The circular further states that "this 'Whipple farm' lies upon Hampton Roads. The school and home buildings, valued at $20,000, occupy a beautiful site upon the shore. They are so furnished and arranged as to offer to the students the helps to right living which belong to a cultivated Christian home." There is a three years' course of study, embracing, among other branches, English grammar and composition, arithmetic and bookkeeping, geography and natural science, lectures, physiology, agriculture and agricultural chemistry, with analysis of soils and experiments by pupils, &c., &c. Opportunities for enabling students to acquire experience in imparting instruction are enjoyed through actual teaching in the Butler and Lincoln model schools, which are in the vicinity of the institution. Thus far this new enterprise has been attended with the most gratifying resu

Its students have earned, upon an average, a small amount per week above expenses to them; and its gross sales of produce in the northern markets have been over $2,000. It possesses, too, the well-selected nucleus of a library; for enlarging which, as well as for providing scientific apparatus, together with cabinets of minerals and of natural history, it hopes to find the means in its own income, aided by the generous co-operation of friends.

The following report to the American Missionary Association, drawn up by President Hopkins, of Williams College, Massachusetts, calls special attention to this institution:

I. *Location.*—In this there is a historical fitness. It is within the capes, and not far from the spot where the first slaves brought to this country were landed. It is where General Butler first refused to deliver up the fugitives, calling them "contraband of war," and where a city of refuge was provided to which they thronged by boat loads, and wagon loads, and in caravans, and were housed and fed by the government. It was here, too, that the first school for freedmen was established. It was the site of the hospital barracks of McClellan's and Grant's armies, where fifteen thousand sick and wounded were under treatment at one time, and the farm connected with the institute includes the United States cemetery containing the bodies of nearly six thousand United States soldiers, together with the granite monument to those martyrs in the cause of freedom, which is in full view from the institute. Not far distant is seen the flag of Fortress Monroe, and it is within sight of the spot where the battle was fought between the Monitor and the Merrimac.

The location has also advantages as regards convenience, economy and the coast. It is accessible by water, and so by the cheapest possible transportation, from the region of the Chesapeake Bay, of the Potomac, York and James Rivers, and of the Pamlico and Albemarle Sounds, a region including a colored population which has been, if it be not now, of greater relative density than any other. With a steamboat landing on the farm it has ready access to the principal sea-board cities of the North, both as markets and as sources of supplies. It is also relatively beautiful, having the advantages of sea breeze and opportunities for sea bathing. The place was indeed formerly the seat of a large female seminary, and was a summer resort for health and recreation.

II. *History.*—As has been said, this was the site of the first school for freedmen, and here the Butler school is still kept in the large building originally built for it on the premises, and is taught by pupils from the institute. This, however, did not involve the idea of the institute as a normal school and a seminary of a high order. That was originated by General Armstrong, who had charge of the freedmen's bureau at this point, and who first comprehended the facilities afforded by the place, and the greatness of the work that might be done here. At his suggestion, and chiefly through his efforts, the American Missionary Association heartily co-operating, the estate now called the Whipple Farm, including a hundred and twenty-five acres of excellent land, together with the mansion used by the United States officers for their headquarters, the Butler school-house, and the hospital barracks, was purchased. The whole cost, including improvements, has been about $45,000.

III. *Object and plan.*—The object of the institute, as stated in its act of incorporation, is "to prepare youth of the South, without distinction of color, for the work of organizing and instructing schools in the southern States." Its object is the diffusion throughout the South, where normal and agricultural schools have not been established as yet, of the best methods and advantages of education; and if the benefit of the colored people be more immediately anticipated, it is only from the apprehended unwillingness of others to avail themselves of the advantages of the institute. Whatever provision may or may not be made for the general education of the South, it is clearly among the most imperative duties both of the North and of the South to provide in the best manner practicable for the enlightenment, the more perfect christianization, and the full manhood of the freedmen. This is now the point of trial for this nation before Him who has begun to vindicate the rights of a long-suffering people, and scarcely more for their sakes than for our own, and for the sake of the whole African race, should this duty be accepted by us.

But if the duty be accepted, it is not seen how it can be performed without some institution which shall combine, as this institute proposes to do, education and training with opportunity for self-help. In these two, education and self-help, we have the object and plan of the institute. It would provide a body of colored teachers, the best and the only available agency for the work, thoroughly trained, not only in the requisite knowledge and in the best methods of teaching, but also in all that pertains to right living, including habits of intelligent labor. Emotional in their nature, unaccustomed to self-control, and improvident by habit, the freedmen need discipline and training even more than teaching; and the institute would avoid the mistake sometimes made on missionary grounds of so training teachers as to put them out of sympathy with the people in their present condition and in the struggle that is before them, if they are to rise. It would, therefore, make much of the feature of self help, not only as relieving the benevolent from a burden, but as inspiring self-reliance, and as tending to a consistency and solidity of character that are especially needed. It would aim at reaching (and to be effectual it must reach) those who cannot pay their way except by their own labor.

With these views a large agricultural interest has been organized both for instruction and profit. So far this has succeeded well in both respects, and with suitable management it cannot fail to do so in future. The soil is rich and varied, adapted both to fruits and vegetables. On the farm are large quantities of muck and sea mud and fish guano from the neighboring fisheries. It is intended to make the culture varied, and to introduce improved methods to be put in practice wherever the pupils may go. The farm, thus furnishing food for the school, in connection with the adjacent fisheries, which make living cheap, will enable the poorest youth to meet all his necessary expenses, and, at the same time, receive good educational advantages. This department is under the superintendence of Mr. F. Richardson, who is admirably qualified for the position.

The farm is for the men; but, as at the North so at the South, and more and more, the teaching is to be done by the women, and for their education and training too ample provision cannot be made. Young women at the institute are on equal footing in all respects with the young men, except that their opportunities for supporting themselves by their own labor are not as good. Something, much, indeed, has been done. An industry has been organized by which the pupils are paid for making up garments, which are sold at a small profit. This is beneficial in every way. About twenty can also be employed the greater part of the year in teaching. This department needs and should receive efficient aid.

IV. *Present condition and prospects.*—Of these we do not hesitate to speak with satisfaction and high hope. The school was opened in April, 1868, and there have since been sixty-six pupils in attendance, of whom fifty-two were boarders. Of these, eight have been employed as teachers in freedmen's day schools, doing, under careful superintendence, the work done in previous years by northern teachers, and giving good satisfaction in it, and thus, while keeping up with their classes in the normal school, paying their necessary expenses. Three hundred children have thus been taught during the past year by under-graduates of the institute, and it is expected that twice that number will be thus taught during the year to come. In the present vacation, including July and September, twelve pupils have gone out to teach, and will not have less than five hundred children in their schools.

The closing examination and exercises of the school indicated a thoroughness and faithfulness on the part of the teachers that nothing but missionary zeal could have inspired. Hitherto the teachers of the institute have all been ladies, and here, as in many places throughout the South, northern ladies of high character have done and are doing a most Christian and heroic work, looking for their richest reward in the thanks of the lowly and the smile of Him who came that the Gospel might be preached to the poor. On the part of the scholars there was indicated a diligence and proficiency quite remarkable, and that would have done credit to students similarly situated of any race or color. Not only has the teaching been diligent but of the highest order, and the results correspond. There was great correctness in reading and spelling. Nearly all wrote a good hand, and the blackboard exercises in map-drawing, with the new method of triangulation, would have been creditable to the pupils of any normal school at the North. The whole results furnish the fullest encouragement to future effort.

We are thus doing for the freedmen through this institute, with such modifications as their condition demands, just what we are doing for ourselves in those States that are furthest advanced in education: and if the southern people could but wisely co-operate, the experiment with the freedmen could at once be fairly made. Fortunate in its position, and comprehensive in its aims, the institute is adapted to do a great work for the African race, both in this and their fatherland. It is just the agency needed through which benevolent individuals and the fund of Mr. Peabody, now so magnificently enlarged, may work. In the plan of it nothing is wanting; to carry it out, executive ability and business talent of a high order will be needed, especially at first. These we think it now has in those at the head of each of its departments, and we heartily commend the enterprise to the confidence, to the prayers, and to the benefactions of the good people of the whole country.

WEST VIRGINIA.

The legislature of West Virginia, at its first session, December 9, 1863, passed an act forbidding slaves to be introduced into the State or removed from it, with intent to deprive them of the right to freedom guaranteed by the constitution. An act was also passed at the same session establishing a system of free schools, providing for the enumeration of "all the youth between the ages of 6 and 21 years, distinguishing between males and females." The township boards of education were authorized and required to establish one or more separate schools for free colored children when the whole number enumerated exceeded 30, the schools so established to be under the control of the board of education; but when the average attendance of free colored children was less than 15 for any one month, the school might be discontinued for a period not exceeding six months at one time; and the money raised on the number of free colored children, in case the attendance was less than 15 and the number enumerated was less than 30, was to be reserved to be appropriated for the education of colored children in such a way as the township should direct.

In 1865 the school law was revised, and the word "free" in connection with the colored people was struck out. In 1866 township boards of education were authorized to furnish school-houses for their respective towns, and to levy a tax, not exceeding $7 on the $100 of the taxable property for that purpose; but this proviso was added: "Provided colored children shall not attend the same school or be classified with white children."

The following tables exhibit the condition of the freedmen's schools:

Number of schools, teachers, and scholars, 1867 *and* 1868.

Year.	Number of schools.			Number of teachers.			Number of scholars.			Average attendance.	Per cent.
	Day.	Night.	Total.	White.	Colored.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
1867.........	10	2	12	4	8	12	295	280	575	486	84
1868.........	11	1	12	4	8	12	326	304	630	545	86

Studies and expenditure of schools, 1867 *and* 1868.

Year.	Number of scholars in different studies pursued.							Expended in support of schools.		
	Alphabet.	Easy reading.	Advanced readers.	Writing.	Geography.	Arithmetic.	Higher branches.	By freedmen.	By others.	Total.
1867	48	287	143	299	247	278	23	$30	$5,915	$5,945
1868	56	395	198	387	375	392	33	861	6,315	7,176

WISCONSIN.

This State had a population in 1860 of 775,881, of whom only 1,171 were colored. There are no constitutional or legal restrictions upon the colored people which are not shared alike by the whites. The colored people exercise the franchise in the same manner as others; their children attend the public schools with the white children, there being no separate schools for either class.

VERMONT.

There were in Vermont only 709 colored persons in 1860 out of a population of 315,093. The declaration of rights, after asserting that all men are born equally free and independent, concludes as follows: "Therefore, no male person, born in this country or brought from over the sea, ought to be holden by law to serve any person as a servant, slave, or apprentice, after he arrives to the age of twenty-one years, nor female, in like manner, after she arrives to the age of eighteen years, unless they are bound by their own consent after they arrive to such age, or bound by law for the payment of debts, damages, fines, costs, or the like." The constitution declares every man of the full age of twenty-one years, with certain conditions alike applied to all, to be entitled to all the privileges of a freeman; and the laws make no distinction in regard to color.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

There were in New Hampshire in 1860 only 494 colored persons out of a total population of 326,073. The constitution of this State makes no distinction in its provisions in regard to race or color, and the "bill of rights" declares that "all men are born equally free and independent;" but, in face of this declaration, in 1835, when the principal of the academy at Canaan admitted colored pupils to his classes, a mob could be raised, without rebuke and without resistance by the town or the State, to remove the building from its site and transfer it to a neighboring swamp.

NEW JERSEY.

This State had a population in 1860 of 672,035, of whom 25,336 were colored, and of these 18 were slaves. By the constitution the right of suffrage is limited to white male citizens of the United States of the age of twenty-one years; but it is provided that the funds for the support of public schools shall be applied for the equal benefit of all the people of the State. Colored children are entitled to the privileges of this fund and are admitted into the public schools.

E.

STATISTICAL TABLES RESPECTING SCHOOLS, EDUCATION, AND ILLITERACY.

SCHOOL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES, COMPILED FROM THE MOST RECENT INFORMATION.

TABLE I.—*General Statistics: Statistics of Pupils and Teachers.*

States.	Date of report.	Area in square miles.	Value of taxable property.	Population.*	School population. Between the ages of—	School population. Number.	No. of children enrolled in the schools.	Average attendance.	Number of children of school age never registered.	Average absence of those enrolled.	Average total absence.	No. of school districts or schools.	Average duration of schools in month and days.	No. of pupils in private elementary schools.	No. of teachers in public schools. Male.	No. of teachers in public schools. Female.	No. of teachers in public schools. Total.	Av'ge salary of teachers per mo. Male.	Av'ge salary of teachers per mo. Female.
Alabama	1869	50,722		1,002,000	5–21	†336,000	†160,000					3,804							
Arkansas	1869	52,198		486,103	5–21	180,000	100,000	60,000	80,000	40,000	120,000	2,500	5 months		1,300	700	2,000	$80 00	$60 00
California	1869	159,000		556,208	5–15	112,753	73,754	49,802	38,999	23,925	62,941	1,354		16,273	726	961	1,687	81 33	62 81
Connecticut	1870	4,674		537,886	4–16	125,407	105,313	64,707	20,094	40,606	60,700	1,647	8 mos. 3 days.		679	2,134	2,813	58 74	29 16
Delaware	1870	2,120		123,252	5–21														
Florida	1870	59,268		189,995	4–21	41,900	7,575		34,325		*36,000	250	3 months				250		
Georgia		58,000		1,179,886															
Illinois	1868	55,405		2,540,216	6–21	833,130	706,780	269,766	126,350	437,014	563,364	10,590	7 mos. 3 days.	36,912	8,240	10,797	19,037	42 40	32 80
Indiana	1870	55,809	$655,521,479	1,668,169	6–21	619,590	462,527	281,912	157,063	180,615	337,678	8,861	3 mos. 7 days.		7,104	4,722	11,826	37 00	28 40
Iowa	1870	55,045		1,177,515	5–21	418,168	296,138	178,329	122,030	117,809	239,839	6,788	6 mos. 6 days.	4,200	4,479	7,515	11,994	36 96	27 16
Kansas	1869	81,000		353,182	5–21	92,517	58,681	31,124	33,836	27,557	61,393	1,707	5 months		896	263	1,159	37 07	28 98
Kentucky	1870	37,680		1,323,264	6–20	376,868	160,446	112,630	216,422	47,816	264,238	4,269	5 months						
Louisiana	1870	46,431	250,000,000	716,394	6–21	254,533	50,000	40,000	204,533	10,000	214,533	483	4 mos 11 days.		150	475	625	112 00	76 00
Maine	1870	32,000	219,666,504	630,423	4–21	228,167	126,946	100,815	90,335	26,131	116,466	4,004	4 mos. 20 days		1,981	4,020	6,007	32 27	14 00
Maryland	1869	9,356	492,653,472	775,000	5–20	182,205	99,315		82,890				10 months				1,905	43 00	43 00
Massachusetts	1869	7,800	1,503,816,504	1,457,385	5–15	271,052	247,080	203,468	29,143	39,884	69,027	4,963	5 mos. 6 days.		1,053	7,048	8,106	77 44	30 92
Michigan	1869	56,243		1,184,158	5–20	374,774	269,587	242,629	104,787	26,958	131,745	5,052	6 mos. 3 days.		2,354	7,895	10,249	47 71	24 35
Minnesota	1870	83,500	185,000,000	460,000	5–21	144,414	102,086	45,497	42,328	56,589	98,917	2,521			1,155	2,620	3,775	33 91	22 45
Mississippi		47,156		834,190	5–21														
Missouri	1870	67,380		1,703,000	5–21	584,026	249,729		334,297			7,000	4 mos. 6 days.		4,615	2,531	7,146	38 60	29 81
Nebraska	1870	76,000	50,523,390	116,888	5–21	32,619	13,893		18,726			782	3 months	1,473	261	260	521	34 32	33 66
Nevada	1870	112,000		44,686	6–18	3,778	2,028	1,382	1,170	646	1,816	45	8 mos. 2 days.	360	19	36	55	§118 75	‡92 16
N. Hampshire	1869	9,280		318,300	4–21	75,505	52,190	45,755	5,743	24,007	24,007	2,528	3 mos. 15 days.		624	3,157	3,781	36 59	21 62
New Jersey	1870	8,320	533,261,261	900,000	5–18	258,227	161,683	78,612	96,544	83,071	179,615	1,458	8 mos. 14 days.	32,447	915	1,905	2,820	53 62	30 66
New York	1870	47,156	1,860,120,770	4,370,846	5–21	1,463,299	998,664	468,421	464,635	530,243	994,878	11,750	8 mos. 4 days.	125,931	6,230	22,080	28,310	(‖)	(‖)
North Carolina	1870	45,000	123,361,396	1,041,000	6–21	342,168	49,302	31,812	292,866	35,490	310,356	1,398	3 months		1,030	385	1,415	¶20 50	¶18 50
Ohio	1869	39,964	1,157,180,455	2,675,468	5–21	1,028,877	740,382	434,865	288,495	305,517	590,012	11,714	7 mos. 15 days.		9,171	12,455	21,626	55 63	33 26
Oregon		95,274		90,776	4–20														
Pennsylvania	1870	46,000		3,475,000	6–21	975,753	828,892	555,941	146,861	272,951	347,951	14,211	6 mos. 1 day	85,000	7,438	10,174	17,612	40 45	31 38
Rhode Island	1869	1,306	138,196,489	217,356	(‡)	56,934	29,477	23,857	27,457	5,620	33,077	650	8 months		173	500	673		
South Carolina	1870	24,500		720,000	5–18	168,819	15,918		152,901			381			255	273	528		
Tennessee	1869	45,600		1,258,326	6–20	410,000	185,845		224,155				1 month						
Texas	1870	237,321	300,000,000	850,000	6–18														
Vermont	1869	9,056		330,585	4–18	76,759	74,140	55,744	2,619	18,396	21,015	2,197					4,296		
Virginia		41,352		1,209,607	5–21														
West Virginia	1869	20,000		447,943	6–21		59,028	36,684		22,344		2,308			1,680	603	2,283	34 00	30 50
Wisconsin	1869	53,924		1,052,266	4–20	398,747	264,033		134,714		100,000	4,735	151 days	15,389			8,795	43 63	28 34

* Actual or approximate, November 28, 1870. † Estimated. ‡ No person excluded from school—truant age, 6 to 16; school money distributed on basis of the enumeration under 15 years. §Coin. ‖ Average salary of all teachers, $63 36. ¶ Teachers pay their own board, which averages $12 per month.

TABLE II.—*School finances.*

States.	INCOME.						EXPENDITURE.							Amount of permanent school fund.
							Current expenses.			Incidental expenses.				
	From taxation.	Interest on permanent fund.	Revenue from other funds.	Proceeds of sales of lands.	From oth'r sources.	Total.	Teachers' wages.	Fuel, &c.	Total.	Sites, buildings, and repairs.	Libraries and apparatus.	For other objects.	Total.	
Alabama	....	....	....	....	....	$524,621 08	....	....	....	....	....	....	$502,156 19	....
Arkansas	$577,919 44	....	....	$60,000 00	$10,000 00	647,919 44	$500,500 00	$10,000 00	$516,500 00	$66,419 44	$600 00	....	670,944 00	a$2,000,000 00
California	1,236,894 94	....	....	....	111,372 72	1,348,267 66	873,814 07	179,407 11	1,053,221 18	205,766 95	25,331 59	....	1,290,585 52	....
Connecticut	906,738 87	$168,965 94	$12,300 34	....	193,547 68	1,281,552 83	705,139 25	79,590 60	784,729 85	369,187 53	5,226 64	$131,782 99	1,290,927 01	b2,809,770 70
Delaware	81,696 00	32,030 31	....	....	....	113,726 31	....	....	....	31,250 13	....	....	113,726 31	....
Florida	50,000 00	....	....	5,561 44	....	58,145 13	....	....	....	....	....	....	38,289 01	216,335 80
Georgia	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Illinois	5,150,679 00	486,997 00	....	20,849 00	1,238,354 00	6,896,879 00	3,532,643 00	550,004 00	4,082,647 00	1,599,114 00	41,921 00	707,199 00	6,430,881 00	6,348,538 32
Indiana	1,278,458 02	468,200 35	....	8,553 90	141,275 47	1,916,487 74	1,262,684 54	....	....	....	....	....	1,474,000 00	8,420,454 90
Iowa	2,670,975 59	406,007 14	....	....	35,987 21	3,112,969 94	1,438,964 04	150,648 56	1,589,612 60	1,206,353 09	22,518 08	....	2,918,483 77	4,274,581 83
Kansas	428,983 98	117,153 65	19,259 93	....	....	565,397 56	292,719 94	79,345 74	372,065 68	218,829 25	5,816 35	....	596,711 28	750,000 00
Kentucky	....	....	....	....	....	308,725 79	....	....	....	....	....	....	276,554 86	1,400,270 01
Louisiana	c460,000 00	....	40,000 00	d71,610 00	104,950 00	1,026,560 00	....	....	659,293 65	31,950 00	....	33,000 00	724,243 65	....
Maine	740,221 00	17,043 51	27,809 00	....	....	785,073 51	385,629 76	e121,631 00	507,260 76	180,520 00	....	f277,831 00	1,091,258 00	289,991 58
Maryland	1,010,166 41	62,489 10	....	....	144,997 46	1,217,652 97	819,592 20	....	819,592 20	240,530 40	....	157,530 37	1,217,652 97	....
Massachu'tts	3,125,053 09	158,161 17	5,312 47	....	18,997 90	3,307,524 63	....	....	2,923,708 70	1,768,719 38	....	81,631 36	4,419,206 62	2,210,864 09
Michigan	1,751,955 08	165,960 51	....	....	841,181 35	2,759,096 94	1,177,847 86	g100,000 00	1,277,847 86	776,074 00	g25,000 00	322,596 60	2,401,518 46	2,590,214 91
Minnesota	456,409 71	176,806 35	....	....	126,046 90	759,262 96	360,697 50	....	....	242,030 03	....	91,569 16	823,571 82	2,471,199 31
Mississippi	....	....	....	....	....	....	56,008 58	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Missouri	....	....	....	....	....	1,803,403 00	864,672 00	....	....	279,661 52	h58,075 43	....	1,548,257 00	2,525,258 58
Nebraska	81,780 54	79,586 31	....	235,602 00	....	199,692 60	56,068 58	....	56,008 58	62,668 68	....	16,814 75	86,483 43	....
Nevada	60,299 21	14,233 13	....	6,676 00	16,438 48	97,646 82	48,324 55	7,243 67	55,568 22	16,774 42	87 47	....	72,430 11	29,263 80
N. Hampshire	287,806 67	....	15,707 70	....	19,664 88	323,179 25	....	....	....	66,014 83	....	....	....	336,745 45
New Jersey	1,514,129 13	35,000 00	28,722 88	....	71,866 02	1,649,718 03	933,285 52	71,130 00	1,004,415 52	476,606 83	....	168,695 68	1,649,718 03	556,483 50
New York	9,122,253 86	170,000 00	165,000 00	30,478 12	546,232 49	10,033,964 47	6,156,550 59	1,046,034 84	7,202,585 43	2,455,453 01	228,381 33	116,544 16	10,002,963 93	2,880,017 01
N. Carolina	297,431 80	....	....	....	....	165,290 50	....	....	....	....	....	....	165,290 50	968,242 43
Ohio	i7,535,569 82	227,747 47	....	....	730,032 60	8,493,349 89	3,671,904 75	918,183 23	4,590,087 98	2,024,728 61	....	....	6,614,816 59	j1,878,533 30
Oregon	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Pennsylvania	....	....	....	....	....	7,676,286 20	3,745,415 81	1,165,226 05	4,910,641 86	2,765,644 34	....	....	7,676,286 20	....
Rhode Island	214,743 88	....	....	....	73,878 57	302,806 85	....	....	267,176 46	85,845 22	....	....	353,021 68	412,685 00
So. Carolina	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Tennessee	....	....	....	....	....	k753,795 74	....	....	....	....	....	....	k753,795 74	....
Texas	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Vermont	....	....	....	....	....	498,064 87	348,563 88	51,442 39	400,006 27	98,058 60	....	....	498,064 87	....
Virginia	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
West Virginia	....	....	....	....	....	281,057 93	....	....	....	246,470 96	....	....	329,152 73	216,761 06
Wisconsin	1,636,875 15	189,371 89	....	....	219,777 09	2,362,326 52	1,193,985 44	37,440 78	1,231,426 22	456,503 77	11,410 81	288,135 42	1,987,436 22	2,237,414 37

a Consisting of outstanding claims, lands, &c. b Including town deposit fund of $763,661 83. c Poll tax. d Interest on lands. e Fuel, repairs, and insurance. f Teachers' board. g Estimated. h Furniture and apparatus. i Including balance in hand, $1,761,901 56. j Balance on hand Sept. 1, 1860. k For the two years that the free school law was in operation.

APPENDIX

Statement of salaries paid to superintendents and teachers of public schools in the following named cities, according to the latest reports received at the Department of Education.

ALBANY, *New York.*

15 men, at	$1,500	84 women, at	$400
1 man, at	900		

BALTIMORE, *Maryland.*

1 superintendent, at	$2,200	3 women, at	$850
3 men, at	2,200	71 women, at	700
1 man, at	2,000	2 women, at	650
5 men, at	1,800	12 women, at	600
17 men, at	1,500	176 women, at	500
1 man, at	1,100	48 women, at	450
4 men, at	900	45 women, at	400
15 women, at	900		

BOSTON, *Massachusetts.*

1 superintendent, at	$4,000	3 men, at	$1,400
4 men, at	4,000	1 man, military drill, at	1,200
1 man, teacher of music, at	3,450	1 man, French, at	1,100
1 man, teacher of music, at	2,500	1 man, French, at	400
1 man, teacher of music, at	450	1 man, German, at	500
1 man, teacher of music, at	400	4 women, at	1,500
29 men, at	3,000	13 women, at	1,000
1 man, vocal and physical culture, at	3,000	27 women, at	800
1 man, vocal and physical culture, at	2,500	49 women, at	700
1 man, vocal and physical culture, at	600	489 women, at	650
1 man, at	2,600	81 women, at	550
1 man, at	2,400	2 sewing teachers, at	450
19 men, at	2,200	1 sewing teacher, at	350
5 men, at	1,800	5 sewing teachers, at	310
1 man, drawing teacher, at	1,800	4 sewing teachers, at	275
5 men, at	1,600		

BROOKLYN, *New York.*

1 superintendent, at	$3,000	29 women, at	$500
1 assistant superintendent, at	2,500	29 women, at	475
25 men, at	2,250	34 women, at	750
2 women, at	1,200	8 women, at	500
16 women, at	800	8 women, at	450
5 women, at	700	8 women, at	425
29 women, at	650	8 women, at	400
29 women, at	600	8 women, at	375
29 women, at	575	8 women, at	350
29 women, at	525	5 women, at	325

BURLINGTON, *Vermont.*

1 superintendent, at	$1,000	10 women, at	$440
1 man, at	1,200	10 women, at	400
1 woman, at	600	8 women, at	350
1 woman, at	400		

BUFFALO, *New York.*

1 superintendent, at	$1,200	56 women, at	$550
1 man, at	1,800	135 women, at	470
28 men, at	1,300	2 women, at	800
1 woman, at	1,000	2 women, at	600
4 women, at	650	3 women, at	500
6 women, at	425	1 writing teacher, at	1,200
1 man, German teacher, at	1,000	1 singing teacher, at	1,200
1 man, at	600		

CAMBRIDGE, *Massachusetts.*

1 superintendent, at	$2,500	4 women, at	$700
1 man, at	2,500	81 women, at	550
2 men, at	2,000	5 women, at	500
7 men, at	1,800	16 women, at	475
1 man, at	1,500	6 women, at	425
1 woman, at	900		

CHARLESTOWN, *Massachusetts.*

1 superintendent, at	$2,000	1 woman, at	$800
1 man, at	2,500	3 women, at	700
1 man, at	1,600	3 women, at	650
5 men, at	1,800	6 women, at	600
10 men, at	1,400	79 women, at	500
1 man, music teacher, at	1,200	2 women, at	525

CHICAGO, *Illinois.*

1 superintendent, at	$3,000	21 women, at	$1,000
1 man, at	2,400	16 women, at	725
1 man, at	2,200	132 women, at	700
20 men, at	2,000	4 women, at	675
1 man, at	1,800	47 women, at	650
2 men, at	1,600	3 women, at	575
1 man, at	600	54 women, at	550
1 woman, at	1,100	1 woman, at	475
2 men, music teachers, at	1,000	16 women, at	450

CINCINNATI, *Ohio.*

1 superintendent, at	$2,500	2 women, at	$1,028
2 men, at	2,420	3 men, at	1,000
1 man, at	2,000	2 women, at	850
4 men, at	1,936	14 women, at	800
11 men, at	1,900	6 women, at	750
9 men, at	1,800	105 women, at	700
1 man, at	1,700	22 women, at	650
2 men, at	1,600	37 women, at	600
1 man, at	1,500	39 women, at	550
2 men, at	1,400	52 women, at	500
23 men, at	1,300	46 women, at	450
5 men, at	1,200	23 women, at	400

CLEVELAND, *Ohio.*

1 superintendent, at	$4,000	2 women, at	$600
1 man, at	2,500	81 women, at	550
2 men, at	1,700	6 women, at	500
11 men, at	1,500	3 women, at	450
1 man, at	1,200	29 women, at	400
1 man, at	360	1 woman, at	275
2 women, at	800		

COLDWATER, *Michigan.*

1 man, at	$1,200	1 woman, at	$450
1 man, at	600	1 woman, at	320
1 man, at	480	12 women, at	280

COLUMBUS, *Ohio.*

1 superintendent, at	$2,000	3 women, at	$780
1 man, at	1,560	41 women, at	575
6 men, at	1,440	12 women, at	584
2 men, at	960	3 women, at	520
1 man, at	1,200		

DAYTON, *Ohio*.

1 superintendent, at	$1,900	5 women, at	$560
7 men, at	1,500	16 women, at	448
1 man, at	900	8 women, at	400
3 men, at	800	4 women, at	380
1 man, at	700	10 women, at	340
2 women, at	900		

DETROIT, *Michigan*.

1 superintendent, at	$1,750	5 women, at	$500
1 man, at	1,500	1 woman, at	425
3 men, at	1,400	8 women, at	405
1 man, at	1,200	4 women, at	475
2 men, at	900	50 women, at	400
1 woman, at	700	15 women, at	375

EAST SAGINAW, *Michigan*.

1 man, at	$2,500	5 women, at	$600
1 man, at	1,200	11 women, at	400
1 man, at	900	1 man, music teacher	600

FORT WAYNE, *Indiana*.

1 man, at	$1,800	1 woman, at	$650
1 man, at	1,350	2 women, at	600
1 man, at	900	2 women, at	450
1 man, at	700	7 women, at	420
4 men, at	600	3 women, at	400
2 women, at	700		

GRAND RAPIDS, *Michigan*.

1 man, at	$1,600	3 women, at	$360
1 man, at	1,200	8 women, at	320
1 man, at	1,000	3 women, at	300
1 woman, at	600	2 women, at	280
2 women, at	500		

HANNIBAL, *Missouri*.

1 man, at	$1,500	5 women, at	$350
1 man, at	750	2 women, at	200
9 women, at	400		

JERSEY CITY, *New Jersey*.

1 superintendent, at	$2,000	5 women, at	$475
3 men, at	1,800	3 women, at	450
5 women, at	800	8 women, at	375
3 women, at	600	15 women, at	300
5 women, at	550	1 woman, at	500

LOUISVILLE, *Kentucky*.

1 superintendent, at	$2,000	1 woman, at	$750
2 men, at	2,000	1 woman, at	650
9 men, at	1,500	41 women, at	600
8 men, at	1,350	2 women, at	900
7 men, at	900	3 women, at	800
1 man, at	650	47 women, at	500
2 men, at	500	50 women, at	400
1 woman, at	1,200		

LOWELL, *Massachusetts*.

1 superintendent, at	$2,000	1 woman, at	$800
1 man, at	2,000	8 women, at	450
12 men, at	1,500	81 women, at	450
3 women, at	550		

MADISON, *Wisconsin.*

1 superintendent, at	$1,500	1 woman, at	$480
1 man, at	1,500	10 women, at	400
4 women, at	540	5 women, at	376

MANCHESTER, *New Hampshire.*

1 man, at	$1,200	1 woman, at	$500
3 men, at	1,100	1 woman, at	400
2 men, at	900	11 women, at	325
1 man, at	500	35 women, at	300
1 man, at	300	4 women, at	275
1 man, at	440	1 woman, at	225

MEMPHIS, *Tennessee.*

1 man, at	$1,750	12 women, at	$1,000
3 men, at	1,500	10 women, at	900
1 man, at	1,400	1 woman, at	500
3 men, at	1,200		
2 men, at	1,000		

MILWAUKEE, *Wisconsin.*

1 superintendent, at	$1,800	19 women, at	$504
11 men, at	1,200	9 women, at	450
8 men, at	600	37 women, at	396
3 men, at	540	29 women, at	360
		1 woman, at	330

NEWARK, *New Jersey.*

1 superintendent, at	$2,000	1 woman, at	$700
1 man, at	2,000	18 women, at	600
12 men, at	1,500	36 women, at	450
4 men, at	1,000	14 women, at	400
2 men, at	850	25 women, at	350
1 woman, at	900	23 women, at	500

NEW HAVEN, *Connecticut.*

1 superintendent, at	$2,500	30 women, at	$500
1 man, at	2,250	35 women, at	450
7 men, at	1,750	10 women, at	400
1 man, at	650	2 women, at	350
1 man, music teacher, at	1,500	4 women, at	200
3 women, at	700		

NEW ORLEANS, *Louisiana.*

1 superintendent, at	$4,000	1 man, at	$900
1 assistant superintendant, at	3,000	31 women, at	1,200
1 secretary, at	1,800	8 women, at	1,020
1 assistant secretary, at	600	19 women, at	1,000
1 custodian, at	2,100	7 women, at	960
1 librarian, at	2,300	1 woman, at	942
1 man, at	2,500	31 women, at	800
5 men, at	1,800	1 woman, at	720
3 men, at	1,200	63 women, at	660
4 men, at	1,000	123 women, at	600
2 men, at	960		

NEWPORT, *Rhode Island.*

1 superintendent, at	$1,800	2 women, at	$475
1 man, at	1,300	8 women, at	425
2 men, at	1,000	1 woman, at	400
1 woman, at	900	1 woman, at	375
1 woman, at	550	9 women, at	325
1 woman, at	525		

New York City.

1 superintendent, at	$4,500	1 man, at	$800
1 assistant superintendent, at	4,000	2 men, at	600
1 assistant superintendent, at	3,500	4 women, at	1,700
2 assistant superintendents, at	3,000	17 women, at	1,600
1 president of free college, at	4,750	56 women, at	1,500
1 professor of free college, at	4,250	29 women, at	1,300
11 professors of free college, at	3,750	58 women, at	1,100
5 tutors of free college, at	2,500	85 women, at	1,000
5 tutors of free college, at	2,187	4 women, at	950
1 tutor of free college, at	2,000	27 women, at	900
2 tutors of free college, at	1,562	15 women, at	875
7 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	3,000	20 women, at	825
12 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	2,750	43 women, at	800
23 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	2,500	7 women, at	775
4 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	2,250	43 women, at	750
41 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	2,000	14 women, at	725
3 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	1,900	77 women, at	700
6 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	1,800	13 women, at	675
5 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	1,700	104 women, at	650
12 men, prin'pals of gram'r sch'ls, at	1,600	63 women, at	625
18 men, at	1,500	127 women, at	600
3 men, at	1,450	68 women, at	575
8 men, at	1,400	190 women, at	550
7 men, at	1,300	70 women, at	525
3 men, at	1,250	212 women, at	500
11 men, at	1,200	72 women, at	475
1 man, at	1,100	189 women, at	450
9 men, at	1,000	113 women, at	425
1 man, at	900	173 women, at	400

Philadelphia, *Pennsylvania.*

1 man, at	$2,250	10 women, at	$600
7 men, at	1,800	127 women, at	450
32 men, at	1,580	193 women, at	400
3 men, at	1,200	51 women, at	380
7 men, at	1,000	98 women, at	360
4 men, at	900	1 woman, at	350
2 men, at	750	295 women, at	340
16 men, at	700	199 women, at	320
1 man, at	600	230 women, at	300
1 man, at	400	1 woman, at	280
25 women, at	750		

Pittsburg, *Pennsylvania.*

1 man, at	$1,650	1 man, at	$240
2 men, at	1,450	1 woman, at	625
9 men, at	1,350	25 women, at	525
1 man, at	1,000	30 women, at	475
1 man, at	325	60 women, at	425

San Francisco, *California.*

1 superintendent, at	$4,000	3 women, at	$1,080
2 men, at	2,500	3 women, at	1,020
10 men, at	2,100	10 women, at	1,000
6 men, at	1,800	4 women, at	960
6 men, at	1,500	6 women, at	900
1 man, at	1,200	4 women, at	870
1 man, at	720	3 women, at	840
4 men, at	600	129 women, at	810
1 woman, at	1,380	6 women, at	660
13 women, at	1,200	28 women, at	600

SACRAMENTO, *California*.

1 superintendent, at	$2,000	7 women, at	$800
1 man, at	1,500	1 woman, at	850
1 man, at	1,350	3 women, at	750
1 man, at	900	4 women, at	450
1 man, at	350	7 women, at	350
4 women, at	850	1 woman, at	800

SPRINGFIELD, *Massachusetts*.

1 superintendent, at	$2,100	1 woman, at	$500
1 man, at	2,000	7 women, at	450
5 men, at	1,500	49 women, at	400
1 man, at	900	4 women, at	375
1 man, (music,) at	1,100	1 woman, at	350
1 man, (penmanship,) at	800	4 women, at	325
4 women, at	550	6 women, at	300

ST. LOUIS, *Missouri*.

1 superintendent, at	$3,500	16 women, at	$1,000
1 assistant superintendent, at	2,500	6 women, at	900
1 assistant superintendent, at	2,000	12 women, at	750
1 man, at	2,750	9 women, at	700
1 man, at	2,250	24 women, at	650
8 men, at	2,000	106 women, at	600
4 men, at	1,900	36 women, at	530
5 men, at	1,800	37 women, at	500
3 men, at	1,500	1 woman, at	350
3 men, at	1,300	2 women, at	300
1 woman, at	$2,000	1 woman, at	250
1 woman, at	1,200		

ST. PAUL, *Minnesota*.

1 superintendent, at	$600	3 women, at	$450
1 man, at	1,100	7 women, at	400
4 men, at	1,000	13 women, at	350

SYRACUSE, *New York*.

1 superintendent, at	$1,500	4 women, at	$450
1 man, at	1,400	29 women, at	400
4 men, at	1,200	30 women, at	330
12 men, at	600	14 women, at	310
17 women, at	500	8 women, at	300
1 woman, at	475	20 women, at	200

TROY, *New York*.

1 superintendent, at	$1,800	1 man, at	$800
1 man, at	1,300	1 woman, at	500
4 men, at	1,000	20 women, at	400
2 men, at	950	27 women, at	300
1 man, at	950	40 women, at	275
1 man, at	900		

WASHINGTON, *District of Columbia*.

4 men, at	$1,800	30 women, at	$800
4 women, at	1,200	47 women, at	750
4 women, at	1,000	4 women, assistant pupils, at	150
8 women, at	900		

WORCESTER, *Massachusetts.*

1 superintendent, at	$2,500	1 woman, at	$600
1 man, at	2,500	21 women, at	575
1 man, at	1,700	21 women, at	550
2 men, at	1,500	39 women, at	500
1 man, at	1,400	10 women, at	450
1 woman, at	800	5 women, at	400
4 women, at	700		

SUMMARY.

Number of cities embraced	42
Number of superintendents, men	31
Number of assistant superintendents, men	6
Aggregate salaries paid superintendents	$73,150 00
Average salaries paid superintendents	2,360 00
Aggregate salaries paid assistant superintendents	18,000 00
Average salaries paid assistant superintendents	3,000 00
Whole number male teachers	901
Aggregate salaries paid	$1,534,065 00
Average salary	1,702 55
Number who receive $4,000 and over	5
Number who receive $3,000 and under $4,000	3
Number who receive $2,000 and under $3,000	13
Number who receive $1,500 and under $2,000	7
Number of male teachers who receive $4,000	6
Number of male teachers who receive $3,000 and under $4,000	50
Number of male teachers who receive $2,000 and under $3,000	206
Number of male teachers who receive $1,500 and under $2,000	276
Number of male teachers who receive $1,200 and under $1,500	175
Number of male teachers who receive $1,000 and under $1,200	49
Number of male teachers who receive under $1,000	127
Number of female teachers	8,220
Aggregate salaries	$4,458,935 00
Average salaries	542 45
Number of female teachers paid $2,000	1
Number of female teachers paid $1,700	4
Number of female teachers paid $1,600	17
Number of female teachers paid $1,500	60
Number of female teachers paid $1,380	1
Number of female teachers paid $1,300	29
Number of female teachers paid $1,200	62
Number of female teachers paid $1,100	59
Number of female teachers paid $1,000 and under $1,100	184
Number of female teachers paid $900 and under $1,000	79
Number of female teachers paid $800 and under $900	339
Number of female teachers paid $700 and under $800	678
Number of female teachers paid $600 and under $700	1,427
Number of female teachers paid $500 and under $600	1,604
Number of female teachers paid $400 and under $500	1,323
Number of female teachers paid $350 and under $400	2,257
Number of female teachers paid $200 and under $300	92
Aggregate number of teachers, male and female	9,121
Aggregate salaries	$5,993,000 00
Average salary	657 08

NOTE.—Since the foregoing statement and summary of salaries paid to teachers and superintendents were prepared, information has been received of the appointment of a superintendent of schools in the city of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania; and that the board of controllers of public schools in Philadelphia have asked "councils" to appropriate $4,000 for the salary of a similar officer to act with the board in the proper supervision of the schools.

Comparative table of the expense of public schools of the principal cities of the United States.

[Compiled from the latest official reports.]

Name of city.	Time included in report; for the year ending—	Average daily attendance during the year.	Number of teachers in day schools at end of year.			Total amount of salaries of teachers actually paid.	Average annual salary of teachers of all grades.	Average cost of tuition per pupil in average attendance.	Expenses other than salaries of teachers, books and stationery, and buildings.	Average cost of incidentals per pupil in average attendance.	Total expenses, exclusive of books and stationery and buildings.	Average cost per pupil in average attendance.	Entire expenses of day schools.	Average cost per pupil in average attendance.
			Male.	Female.	Total.									
Baltimore, Md	Dec. 31, 1867	18, 162	33	513	546	$283, 519 22	$519 27	$15 61	$153, 667 15	$8 46	$437, 186 37	$24 07	$490, 523 57	$27 00
Boston, Mass.	Apr. 30, 1867	26, 265	67	563	630	492, 796 66	798 09	17 52	186, 908 85	6 61	679, 705 51	24 16	781, 280 60	29 75
Brooklyn, N. Y	Jan. 1, 1867	25, 122	30	566	596	275, 217 52	461 77	10 95	133, 407 49	5 31	458, 255 01	16 26	533, 241 88	21 23
Buffalo, N. Y.	Jan. 1, 1867	8, 866	38	224	262	130, 359 12	497 55	14 70	26, 925 36	3 04	157, 284 48	17 74	198, 784 48	22 42
Chicago, Ill.	Aug. 31, 1867	15, 413	27	292	319	227, 524 97	713 24	14 76	111, 778 31	7 25	339, 303 28	22 01	432, 027 63	28 03
Cincinnati, O.	June 30, 1867	17, 323	59	318	377	290, 027 42	769 30	16 74	76, 608 54	4 42	366, 635 96	21 16	417, 586 53	24 10
Detroit, Mich	Dec. 31, 1866	6, 157	10	90	100	43, 118 98	431 19	7 00	27, 517 46	4 47	70, 636 46	11 47	99, 284 68	16 11
Louisville, Ky	Aug. 1, 1866	5, 419	35	138	173	93, 111 18	769 51	17 18	16, 428 80	3 03	109, 539 98	20 21	210, 183 30	38 78
Lowell, Mass.	Dec. 31, 1867	5, 234	13	90	103	56, 943 99	552 85	10 88	18, 286 08	3 49	75, 230 07	13 97	103, 540 06	19 78
Madison, Wis	Dec. 31, 1867	811	1	21	22	8, 694 86	395 22	10 72	5, 843 35	7 20	17, 599 06	17 92	33, 802 23	41 68
Newark, N. J.	Dec. 31, 1866	5, 717	34	115	149	60, 425 61	405 54	10 57	17, 657 62	3 09	78, 083 23	13 66	84, 182 77	14 72
New Haven, Conn	Sept. 1, 1867	5, 287	10	91	101	58, 302 38	577 25	11 02	21, 271 19	4 02	79, 573 57	15 04	128, 693 73	24 34
New Orleans, La.	Mar. 31, 1868	12, 178	32	284	316	213, 329 56	675 09	17 51	53, 890 85	4 42	267, 220 41	21 93	338, 595 76	27 80
New York, N. Y	Dec. 31, 1867	96, 294	176	2, 030	2, 206	1, 336, 320 12	649 00	14 87	774, 126 59	8 03	1, 598, 707 17	22 90	2, 372, 833 76	24 64
Philadelphia, Pa	Dec. 31, 1866	66, 333	79	1, 235	1, 314	545, 552 77	415 18	8 22	208, 583 32	3 14	754, 136 09	11 37	877, 757 93	13 23
Providence, R. I	Sept. 30, 1867	7, 367	10	136	146	85, 533 69	585 84	11 60	39, 547 46	5 36	125, 081 15	16 96	187, 331 15	25 42
San Francisco, Cal	Oct. 15, 1867	10, 177	33	220	253	209, 874 75	829 52	20 62	63, 259 36	6 21	273, 134 11	26 83	278, 611 01	27 37½
St. Louis, Mo	Aug. 1, 1867	10, 029	27	250	277	167, 071 15	603 15	16 66	29, 038 16	2 81	196, 109 31	19 47	217, 979 46	21 73
Washington, D. C	June 30, 1866	3, 696	6	67	73	37, 058 19	507 64	10 03	20, 083 34	5 43	57, 141 53	15 46	60, 955 84	16 49
Total		345, 850	720	7, 253	7, 973	4, 714, 782 04	591 34	13 53	1, 984, 829 28	5 04	6, 699, 611 32	18 57	7, 947, 196 36	24 45

NOTE.—By comparing the above table with similar tables which follow, (one prepared by S. A. Briggs for the Chicago report of 1867, the other by W. H. Parker for the Philadelphia report for 1867, it will be seen that the results differ in some respects; but the difference may be accounted for, in the main, by the fact that the original reports, from which these tables are drawn, either cover different points of time, or include different elements. For instance, the total expense of schools in San Francisco and St. Louis does not include the cost of lots, new buildings, and the debts of previous years, which, in San Francisco, amounted to $297,000, and in St. Louis, according to their "historical table," to $192,158

Summary statement of pupils, teachers, and expenses of public schools in 19 of the principal cities of the United States.

Population in 1860	3,153,886
Number of registered pupils	596,365
Average daily attendance	345,850
Number of male teachers during year	720
Number of female teachers during year	7,253
Total number of teachers	7,973
Average salaries paid male teachers	$1,188 26
Average salaries paid female teachers	591 34
Average salaries paid male and female teachers	530 71
Aggregate of all salaries paid	$4,714,782 04
Aggregate of incidental expenditures	1,984,829 28
Aggregate for school buildings	1,247,585 04
Total expenditures for school purposes	7,947,196 36
Average cost of tuition per scholar on average attendance	$13 53
Average cost of incidentals per scholar on average attendance	5 04
Total cost per pupil on average attendance	18 57

[N. B.—Details on page 14.]

Cost of public schools per pupil in average attendance in thirty-five cities.

[From the report of the Board of Education, in the city of Chicago, 1867.]

Cities.	Total salaries of teachers.	Cost per pupil.*	Total current expenses.	Cost per pupil.	Book and stationery.	New buildings and grounds.	Total cost of education.	Cost per pupil.*	Cost per pupil.†
Albany	$54,507 30	$12 46	$66,384 95	$15 19	$986 30	$5,451 85	$73,519 29	$16 81	$14 96
Alleghany City	32,965 00	9 87	38,380 60	11 49	....	14,646 77	53,027 37	15 87	13 01
Baltimore	197,502 33	14 29	278,228 25	19 40	34,349 42	13,087 93	325,665 60	22 70	18 37
Boston	403,300 82	15 63	575,821 58	22 31	....	200,553 64	776,375 22	30 08	28 00
Brooklyn	275,217 52	11 16	372,918 63	15 12	....	85,336 38	458,255 01	18 58	14 38
Buffalo	121,521 84	14 76	138,678 06	16 83	....	....	138,678 06	16 83	......
Chicago	227,524 97	14 76	296,672 89	19 25	....	135,354 74	432,027 63	28 03	26 36
Cincinnati	240,798 28	14 30	305,216 44	18 13	....	16,834 14	322,050 58	19 13	18 03
Cleveland	74,566 41	13 98	101,117 74	18 91	....	....	101,117 74	18 91	17 78
Detroit	43,118 98	7 38	63,755 89	10 92	250 00	32,274 81	96,280 70	16 49	15 64
Erie	13,210 75	11 53	15,961 86	13 93	....	5,000 00	20,961 86	18 30	15 88
Fort Wayne	8,780 00	8 95	15,802 29	16 11	....	4,600 00	20,402 29	20 80	19 07
Kingston, N. Y.	12,527 97	13 38	18,361 81	19 28	....	....	18,361 81	19 28	17 78
Lawrence, Mass.	27,509 15	13 33	37,313 93	18 09	....	....	37,313 93	18 09	15 77
Louisville	93,111 18	14 19	109,539 98	19 46	....	118,761 54	228,301 52	40 56	35 24
Lowell	51,389 70	11 69	66,398 31	15 11	....	15,495 04	82,693 35	18 82	16 72
Milwaukee	35,533 95	9 28	48,351 40	12 63	....	....	48,351 40	12 63	10 43
Newark	62,425 61	10 95	78,083 23	13 68	6,099 54	14,450 00	98,632 77	17 30	14 85
New Bedford	35,559 55	‡11 62	49,087 19	‡16 04	....	....	49,087 19	‡16 04	‡14 98
New Haven	45,628 88	11 67	69,524 42	17 79	....	6,000 00	75,524 42	19 33	17 72
New York	1,367,363 64	13 81	1,922,282 83	20 47	166,590 84	253,294 44	2,342,168 11	24 94	......
Philadelphia	545,552 77	8 22	754,136 09	11 37	74,999 92	13,481 67	877,757 93	13 23	‡10 33
Pittsburg	61,671 51	14 10	79,523 27	18 18	....	....	89,965 10	20 56	......
Providence	....	11 25	‡100,000 00	16 60	....	....	‡100,000 00	16 60	......
Rochester	47,280 18	......	68,583 43	......	260 83	7,083 20	75,927 46	‡16 27	‡14 41
Roxbury	53,643 27	11 71	75,774 46	16 55	....	....	75,774 46	16 55	14 89
San Francisco	185,535 08	22 81	366,559 43	44 34	7,892 59	....	427,668 84	52 59	42 33
Springfield, Ill.	29,950 00	15 65	38,500 00	20 11	....	9,000 00	47,500 00	24 82	23 39
Springfield, Mass	36,573 90	......	52,271 18	16 00	....	....	52,271 18	......	16 00
St. Louis	153,232 80	17 32	214,289 89	24 22	20,259 58	71,811 30	306,361 04	34 49	31 73
Syracuse	42,835 05	9 75	57,741 88	13 22	....	....	57,741 88	13 22	11 44
Troy	37,081 25	10 70	54,007 09	15 62	470 22	2,917 24	57,394 55	16 60	13 64
Washington	30,879 33	10 92	46,092 46	16 20	....	....	75,548 34	26 71	22 59
Worcester, Mass	51,790 54	12 09	59,764 24	13 71	1,909 80	9,427 00	71,101 04	16 60	12 64
Zanesville	18,869 53	13 08	27,213 36	19 92	....	....	27,213 36	19 92	19 18

* Estimated on average attendance.

† An average number belonging and including books and stationery, per pupil, in Baltimore, Albany, Newark, New York, Philadelphia, San Francisco, St. Louis, and new buildings in nearly all of the cities named.

‡ Approximate.

Cost of public day schools in 27 cities, computed by W. H. Parker, principal of Ringold Grammar School, Philadelphia.

[Compiled from the latest official reports.]

Number.	City.	Total am'nt paid for salaries of teachers.	Cost of tuition per pupil.*	Incidental expenses; except salaries, books, and new buildings.	Cost per pupil.*	Entire expenses of day schools, including buildings.	Cost per pupil.*
1	New York	$1,430,000 00	$18 58	$484,107 97	$6 21	$2,333,993 25	$30 32
2	Philadelphia	656,159 50	9 40	356,810 75	5 11	1,501,619 56	21 52
3	Brooklyn	260,074 85	10 35	124,998 48	4 98	449,384 24	17 89
4	Baltimore	280,521 54	17 77	123,329 99	7 81	524,718 41	33 88
5	Boston	492,796 66	18 76	186,908 85	7 12	781,280 60	29 75
6	New Orleans	196,340 48	20 30	41,158 58	4 26	253,542 49	26 22
7	Cincinnati	290,027 42	16 74	74,084 75	4 28	417,586 58	24 12
8	St. Louis	167,071 15	16 66	88,237 67	8 80	404,785 12	40 36
9	Chicago	227,524 97	14 76	111,278 31	7 22	432,027 63	28 03
10	Buffalo	121,521 84	14 76	29,076 04	3 53	164,018 94	19 92
11	Newark	58,168 43	10 26	18,510 08	3 26	97,228 05	17 15
12	Louisville	110,847 12	15 68	31,302 69	4 43	213,751 00	30 23
13	Washington	37,058 19	10 03	20,083 44	5 43	76,735 01	20 76
14	San Francisco	209,736 92	20 61	110,321 96	10 84	508,889 74	20 00
15	Providence	....	11 25	....	....	....	....
16	Pittsburg	74,584 90	16 43	19,318 21	4 26	116,469 32	25 66
17	Milwaukee	44,090 60	8 98	16,745 92	3 41	....	....
18	New Haven	54,302 38	13 13	25,271 19	6 11	95,143 73	23 00
19	Allegheny	33,745 00	10 10	9,105 07	2 72	57,496 14	17 21
20	Roxbury	53,643 27	11 71	21,755 39	4 75	....	....
21	Charlestown	56,000 00	13 43	10,034 00	....	....	....
22	Worcester	58,561 44	11 87	30,593 00	6 20	119,970 24	24 32
23	Fall River	29,399 00	....	30,500 00	....	....	....
24	Dubuque	21,778 50	8 62	9,916 83	3 92	49,096 67	19 43
25	St. Paul	12,936 26	12 67	7,248 34	7 10	25,531 54	25 01
26	Springfield, Ill	30,184 27	15 77	7,524 00	3 93	42,814 41	22 37
27	Leavenworth	14,106 00	12 70	8,991 55	8 09	56,072 84	50 47

* Computed on average attendance.

Statement of the comparative statistics of the High Schools in the cities named below.

Cities.	No. of teachers.			Amount of salaries alone.	No. of pupils, daily average.			* Average cost on daily average attendance.		Value of buildings and lots.
	Male.	Female.	Total.		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	
Boston	21	13	34	$57,191	522	323	845	$74 47	$56 70	$100,000
Chicago	8	4	12	19,216	97	242	339	56 70	56 70	50,300
Cincinnati	9	8	17	19,889	194	248	442	45 00	45 00	88,000
Baltimore	12	21	33	40,699	283	636	919	79 47	56 66	117,467
Philadelphia	17	9	26	35,622	464	355	819	73 20	36 00	125,000
Louisville	11	2	13	12,836	98	126	224	85 73	45 57	Not given.
San Francisco	6	5	11	19,800	120	116	236	82 49	82 49	70,000
St. Louis	6	4	10	13,625	99	139	238	57 25	57 25	75,000

Cities.	Annual cost of incidentals.	Salary of principals.	Average salary for male assistants.	Average salary for female assistants.	Salary paid to teachers of French.	Salary paid to teachers of German.	Salary of teachers of vocal and physical culture.
Boston	Not given.	(3) $4,000	(14) $1,919½	(5) $1,260	(2) † $500	(1) † $500	(1) $3,000
Chicago	$2,683	(1) 2,400	(6) 2,033⅓	(4) 1,025	(1) † 600	(1) 1,000	....
Cincinnati	3,901	(2) 2,420	(6) 1,791	(8) 826	(1) 1,800	(2) 1,936	(1) $1,500
Baltimore	17,190	(3) 2,200	(9) 1,756	(20) 900	(2) 900	(1) 1,500	....
Philadelphia	11,104	(1) 2,475	(13) 1,962	(9) 660	Not given.	(1) 1,650	....
Louisville	2,136	Not given.	Not given.	Not given.	Not given.	Not given.	....
San Francisco	Not given.	(3) 2,500	(5) 1,620	(5) 960	(1) 1,200	(1) 1,200	....
St. Louis	5,083	(1) 2,750	(5) 1,850	(4) 955	(1) 1,800	Not given.	....

* This average is made on amount of salaries and contingencies. A few of the above results are estimated, and all are the best that can be obtained from reports.

† Employed only part of the time.

CITY EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.

COMPILED BY DUANE DOTY, SUPERINTENDENT, DETROIT, MICHIGAN.

	Albany, N. Y.	Baltimore, Md.	Bangor, Me.	Boston, Mass.	Burlington, Iowa.	Burlington, Vt.	Cambridge, Mass.
1. Population at this date	75,000	350,000	20,000	‡220,780	16,000	9,000	40,000
2. Assessed valuation, real and personal	$29,646,949 00	$212,000,000 00	$9,059,122 00	$549,511,600 00	$3,650,000 00	$2,170,671 00	$39,210,900 00
3. Cash valuation, real and personal	69,176,211 00		†15,000,000 00		7,000,000 00	4,750,000 00	†50,000,000 00
4. Cash valuation of public school property	260,000 00		112,000 00	3,962,869 00	90,000 00	40,000 00	†400,000 00
5. School census ages	5 and 21	5 and 20	4 and 21	5 and 15	5 and 21	5 and 20	5 and 15
6. Last school census	27,395	69,036	5,382	42,624	4,313	2,521	7,571
7. Whole number enrolled for the year	9,713	35,375	3,572		2,063	1,457	
8. Average number belonging to public schools	6,096	24,306	2,849	33,535	1,414	785	5,642
9. Number in average daily attendance	5,211	19,287		31,126		678	5,191
10. Whole number of sittings in public schools	6,070		3,950	39,356	2,000	966	
11. Amount raised for building purposes	$70,000 00	$116,480 00		$346,611 00	$7,000 00	$11,287 00	$20,000 00
12. Number of weeks in the school year	42	42	36	42	40	40	43
13. Cost of tuition based on salaries paid teachers	$13 28	$13 60	$8 72	$21 85	$13 08	$11 61	$17 36
14. Per cent. of school census that can be seated	22.1		73.3	92.3	46.3	38.2	
15. Rates of salaries paid male teachers	1 at $3,000	1 at $2,700	1 at $1,800	4 at $4,000	7 at $1,000	1 at $1,500	1 at 2,500
	1 at 2,000	3 at 2,200	1 at 1,350	35 at 3,000	1 at 1,500	1 at 600	9 at 2,000
	4 at 1,750	2 at 2,000	1 at 1,000	31 at 2,400			
	11 at 1,500	4 at 1,800		10 at 1,700			
	1 at 1,200	11 at 1,500					
	1 at 1,000	4 at 1,404					
	2 at 800	2 at 1,296					
	1 at 600	3 at 900					
		4 at 804					
		*7 at 900					
16. Rates of salaries paid female teachers, and special teachers of music, writing, and drawing	1 at 900	2 at 1,000	1 at 700	1 at 1,700	2 at 600	1 at 650	1 at 1,000
	1 at 700	20 at 900	1 at 550	3 at 1,500	22 at 400	3 at 440	5 at 800
	2 at 550	1 at 500	4 at 400	17 at 1,000		7 at 360	95 at 600
	49 at 500	15 at 900	10 at 388½	30 at 900		3 at 324	9 at 550
	39 at 450	5 at 804	32 at 306	58 at 800		4 at 268	17 at 500
	6 at 400	10 at 672	1 at 296	584 at 700		1 writing and	1 music at 2,000
	1 music at 1,650	17 at 516	6 at 171	5 music at 10,550		drawing, at	
		60 at 504	12 at 130	2 draw'g at 4,510		$300.	
		18 at 648	1 music at 700				
		37 at 480	1 writing at 650				
		62 at 696					
		6 at 600					
		135 at 468					
		57 at 432					
		49 at 408					
		4 music at 5,500					
17. Total teachers and salaries	120 at $80,900	539 at $330,648	72 at $24,859	780 at $732,850	32 at $18,500	21 at $9,114	138 at $97,950

* Colored schools. † Estimated. ‡ Census of 1865.

CITY EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS—Continued.

	Camden.	Chicago, Ill.	Cincinnati, O.	Cleveland, O.	Columbus, O.	Detroit, Mich.	Fall River, Mass.	Fort Wayne, Ind.	Indianapolis, Ind.†	Jersey City, N.J.
1	27,000	252,054	*225,000	93,000	40,000	80,000	26,000	30,000	44,000	*45,000
2	$8,575,509 00	$265,012,140 00	$130,715,510 00	$36,462,967 00		$22,935,853 00			$21,757,572 00	$31,763,835 00
3	26,726,527 00		*260,000,000 00	81,000,000 00		76,452,843 00	$21,398,525 00	$51,200,000	35,000,000 00	*50,000,000 00
4	109,170 00	1,873,375 00	1,500,000 00	789,958 00	$300,000 00	324,000 00	183,074 00	150,000 00	255,000 00	250,000 00
5	5 and 18	6 and 21	5 and 21	5 and 21	5 and 21	5 and 20	5 and 15	6 and 21	6 and 21	5 and 18
6	5,631	64,757	105,624	27,524	9,380	27,039	5,236	8,365	11,028	11,589
7	2,912	34,740	24,828	11,151	4,936	10,717	4,727	2,847	5,160	7,898
8	2,221	22,837	19,591	7,695	3,789	7,127	3,260	2,337	2,549	
9	1,959	22,064	18,637	7,222	3,600	6,883	3,006	2,145	3,375	3,262
10	2,518	23,000	22,320	9,648	4,307	7,118	4,232	2,583	4,000	3,860
11		$182,623 00		$161,005 00		$75,000 00	$25,000 00	$16,000 00	$51,706 00	
12	42	40	42	41	40	40	42	40	40	45
13	$8 86	$16 05	$17 83	$15 33	$15 05	$8 00	$11 69	$9 42	$15 10	
14	44.7	35.5	21	35.0	45.9	26.3	80	30.8	36.2	33.3
15	1 at $1,500	1 at $2,500	2 at $2,600	1 at $3,000	1 at $1,800	3 at $1,500	1 at $1,600	1 at $1,900	1 at $1,700	4 at $2,300
	2 at 1,200	1 at 2,200	2 at 2,200	1 at 2,000	2 at 1,600	1 at 1,400	1 at 1,500	1 at 1,000	2 at 1,200	
	1 at 500	28 at 2,000	1 at 2,100	6 at 1,800	6 at 1,500	1 at 1,200	2 at 1,400	1 at 900	1 music, 1,600	
		1 at 1,600	2 at 2,050	2 at 1,600	1 at 1,230	2 at 1,100	2 at 1,000	1 at 500		
		1 at 1,000	1 at 2,000	1 at 1,200	2 at 800	1 at 900				
		1 at 800	16 at 1,900							
			8 at 1,800							
			2 at 1,700							
			52 at rates am't to $56,500.							
16	1 at 750	1 at 1,200	1 at 1,800	5 at 1,000	5 at 650	1 at 800	2 at 575	2 at 1,000	1 at 1,200	4 at $1,050
	2 at 600	32 at 1,000	1 at 1,500	8 at 800	54 at 500	1 at 625	12 at 450	1 at 800	1 at 850	4 at 840
	3 at 475	1 at 825	2 at 1,200	11 at 700	9 at 450	1 at 600	37 at 425	1 at 750	3 at 800	6 at 660
	3 at 425	3 at 800	5 at 1,000	99 at 600	11 at 400	10 at 500	14 at 400	1 at 700	4 at 750	4 at 600
	7 at 380	7 at 775	2 at 900	7 at 550	1 music, 1,500	3 at 475	2 at 375	2 at 600	4 at 700	1 at 575
	1 at 350	4 at 750	23 at 800	16 at 500		1 at 450	2 at 350	4 at 550	9 at 650	4 at 504
	8 at 340	7 at 725	3 at 750	5 at 450		19 at 425	4 at 300	7 at 450	10 at 600	1 at 480
	1 at 325	170 at 700	140 at 700	13 at 400		1 at 410	2 at 250	4 at 420	15 at 550	4 at 420
	7 at 300	95 at 650	35 at 650			49 at 400		4 at 400	19 at 500	4 at 450
	9 at 275	2 at 625	39 at 600			22 at 350		10 at 360	17 at 450	9 at 400
		1 at 600	32 at 550			20 at 300		8 pupil teachers.	1 at 400	2 at 525
		2 at 575	42 at 500					1 music, $1,000		4 at 550
		100 at 550	18 at 450					1 drawing, 750		4 at 500
		1 at 500	10 at 400							2 at 375
		21 at 450								4 at 360
		2 music at 2,000								4 at 350
										3 at 300
17	46 at $19,680	482 at $366,725	439 at $350,500	175 at $118,000	92 at $57,050	127 at $57,085	81 at $38,072	50 at $22,130	88 at $53,600	68 at $42,011

* Estimated.

† At June, 1869.

CITY EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS—Continued.

	Kingston, N. Y.	Louisville, Ky.	Lowell, Mass.	Manchester, N.H.	Milwaukee, Wis.
1	10,000	140,000	40,000	27,000	80,000
2	$1,774,880 00	$70,000,000 00	....	$10,205,402 00	$43,689,398 00
3	5,916,267 00	98,000,000 00	$24,790,996 00	....	....
4	60,000 00	602,100 00	237,170 00	140,000 00	323,300 00
5	....	6 and 20	5 and 15	5 and 18	4 and 20
6	1,803	37,216	6,166	*5,000	24,494
7	1,225	13,569	7,147	3,500	11,407
8	1,100	9,530	5,226	2,259	6,963
9	900	8,550	4,627	1,969	6,004
10	1,000	....	6,053	2,400	7,000
11	$4,990 00	$50,000 00	$23,000 00	$8,500 00	$12,495 00
12	42	42	44	40	42
13	$12 55	$14 85	$12 83	$14 50	$17 39
14	55.4	....	98.1	48.0	28.5
15	1 at $1,400 1 at 1,200 4 at 750	2 at 2,500 18 at 1,500 1 at 1,000 11 at 900	1 at $2,200 1 at 1,800 8 at 1,700 2 at 1,500	1 at $1,800 2 at 1,500 1 at 1,300 1 at 1,200 1 at 1,100 2 at 800	1 at $2,500 1 at 1,700 1 at 1,600 8 at 1,200 1 at 1,000 19 at 800
16	1 at 600 1 at 550 1 at 500 12 at 456 3 at 396	1 at 1,500 3 at 900 3 at 800 3 at 650 58 at 600 48 at 500 69 at 400 3 music, at 3,500	1 at 900 4 at 650 67 at 500 6 at 450 17 at 400	1 at 800 3 at 500 1 at 450 32 at 406 5 at 375 11 at 350 3 music, at 1,500	1 at 1,200 1 at 600 9 at 504 9 at 450 71 at 396 13 at 360
17	24 at $13,810	220 at $141,610	107 at $87,100	63 at $32,775	135 at $74,789

	New Albany, Ind.	Newark, N. J.	Newburyport, Mass.	New Haven, Conn.	Newport, R. I.
1	25,000	120,000	13,000	*47,000	13,000
2	$6,877,853 00	$73,872,050 00	$7,427,700 00	$38,010,539 00	$21,407,400 00
3	9,170,471 00	100,000,000 00	11,500,700 00	100,000,000 00	....
4	71,000 00	462,500 00	69,000 00	500,000 00	90,000 00
5	6 and 21	5 and 18	5 and 15	4 and 16	5 and 16
6	6,887	24,340	2,652	9,750	3,100
7	2,043	11,421	2,758	6,707	1,417
8	....	7,793	1,894	5,664	1,113
9	1,357	6,636	1,629	5,337	1,027
10	2,035	9,500	2,348	6,069	1,496
11	$5,502 00	$25,000 00	$3,000 00	$35,898 00	$31,500 00
12	40	42	43	40	40
13	....	$12 70	$9 88	$14 49	$12 91
14	29.5	39.0	80.9	62.2	48.2
15	1 at $1,200 3 at 800 1 at 400	1 at $2,100 11 at 1,900 1 at 1,600 1 at 1,200 4 at 1,100 2 at 1,000 1 at 900	1 at $1,800 2 at 1,200 4 at 900	1 at $3,000 8 at 2,000 1 at 1,800	1 at $1,500 2 at 1,000 1 at 400
16	1 at 600 2 at 500 4 at 400 12 at 350 13 at 300	1 at 1,000 1 at 800 18 at 700 2 at 650 2 at 600 11 at 550 24 at 500 23 at 450 25 at 400 33 at 350 1 music, at 1,000 1 music, at 200 1 music, at 300	5 at 400 2 at 400 1 at 600 24 at 350 9 at 325	2 at 800 4 at 700 3 at 650 6 at 600 20 at 550 40 at 500 10 at 450 21 at 400 7 at 350 11 at 200 1 music, at 1,800 1 draw'g, 1,000	1 at 900 2 at 550 1 at 525 1 at 475 1 at 450 8 at 425 1 at 375 10 at 325
17	37 at $15,300	164 at $98,980	48 at $18,725	136 at $82,100	29 at $14,375

* Estimated.

CITY EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS—Continued.

	Paterson, N. J.	Pittsburg, Pa.	Providence, R. I.	Springfield, Mass.	St. Louis, Mo.	St. Paul, Minn.	Syracuse, N. Y.	Toledo, O.	Wheeling, W. Va.	Worcester, Mass.
1	40,000	100,000	66,500	30,000	250,000	20,000	*45,000	33,000	20,000	41,000
2		$240,000,000 00	$93,070,900 00	$23,567,180 00	$138,523,480 00	$9,000,000 00	$11,893,182 00	$9,079,400 00	$11,000,000 00	$31,251,350 00
3		160,000,000 00	116,338,625 00	35,000,000 00	230,872,466 00			54,476,400 00	25,000,000 00	
4	$150,000 00	749,297 00	500,000 00	316,847 00	3,055,382 00	60,000 00	450,000 00	300,000 00	108,000 00	
5	5 and 18	6 and 21		5 and 15	5 and 21	5 and 21	5 and 21	5 and 21	6 and 21	5 and 15
6	7,955	23,000		4,156	76,443	5,078	16,004	9,079	6,706	6,846
7	6,094	12,329	8,569	4,617	19,545	2,500	7,995	5,249	2,890	8,691
8	3,451	8,747		3,123	16,659	1,550	5,622	3,513	1,981	6,322
9		7,057	7,321		15,587	1,420	5,537	3,345	1,859	5,610
10	4,600	10,911		4,440	18,096	1,650	6,854	4,309	2,600	6,877
11	$46,000,000	$128,000 00	$115,000 00	$34,285 00	$159,682 00		$20,000 00	$20,000 00	$27,648 00	$101,359 00
12	44	40	41	40	40	40	40	40	40	41
13	$9 02	$15 91		$17 85	$17 29	$12 48	$13 42	$13 47	$13 20	$12 88
14	5.02	43		100.0	23.6	32.4	42.8	47.4	38.7	100.0
15	1 at $1,500	1 at $2,200	2 at $1,900	1 at $2,300	1 at $3,000	1 at $1.400	1 at $2,000	1 at $2,000	6 at $1,100	1 at $2,000
	2 at 1,100	5 at 1,750	6 at 1,800	5 at 1,700	2 at 2,250	3 at 1,200	1 at 1,500	3 at 1,500	1 at 700	1 at 1,800
	1 at 1,000	15 at 1,600	1 at 1,400	1 at 1,500	17 at 2,000	1 at 1,000	6 at 1,200	1 at 1,400	1 at 600	6 at 1,700
	1 at 800	7 at 1,200	1 at 250	1 at 1,200	1 at 1,900		1 at 1,030	2 at 800	2 at 400	
	1 at 600	1 at 600			1 at 1,800		2 at 600	2 at 750		
	1 at 400	1 at 300			2 at 800			3 at 550		
		1 at 600			1 at 750			1 at 500		
					2 at 700			1 at 450		
					1 at 650					
16	1 at 600	1 at 900	1 at 1,100	1 at 800	1 at 2,500	1 at 650	1 at 700	3 at 800	7 at 440	2 at 1,000
	4 at 550	1 at 750	1 at 950	6 at 600	3 at 1,400	4 at 500	16 at 600	1 at 675	16 at 385	1 at 1,200
	1 at 500	27 at 650	2 at 800	7 at 550	2 at 1,300	12 at 450	24 at 500	8 at 600	22 at 360	1 at 650
	3 at 460	30 at 550	2 at 700	4 at 500	7 at 1,200	10 at 400	33 at 400	2 at 575	1 at 300	2 at 600
	3 at 450	43 at 500	25 at 500	56 at 450	7 at 1,000	4 at 375	29 at 360	9 at 550		2 at 800
	2 at 425	30 at 450	18 at 450	2 at 425	10 at 900		17 at 330	6 at 525		1 at 700
	9 at 400	7 at 600	23 at 425	4 at 375	32 at 750		23 at 300	20 at 500		25 at 575
	6 at 375	26 at 400	16 at 400	6 at 350	8 at 700		15 at 200	1 at 475		23 at 550
	8 at 350	16 at 300	5 at 600	6 at 200	51 at 650		1 music, at 600	2 at 450		56 at 507
	13 at 325	4 music, at 1,000	7 at 575	1 writ'g, at 1,200	129 at 600		1 drawing, at 600	6 at 425		8 at 450
	20 at 300	2 draw'g, at 150	30 at 550		68 at 550			2 at 400		1 music, at 1,500
			3 at 475		34 at 500			5 at 350		
			17 at 350		3 at 400			1 at 240		
			1 at 255		3 music, at 2,000					
			2 sewing, at 500		1 writ'g, at 2,000					
			1 music, at 700		1 draw'g, 1,000					
			2 music, at 600							
			1 music, at 500							
17	77 at $31,155	218 at $139,250	167 at $100,730	101 at $55,800	388 at $288,050	36 at $19,350	171 at $75,450	80 at $47,420	56 at $26,160	130 at $81,475

* Estimated.

F.

DIGEST OF RULES AND REGULATIONS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN CITIES.

DIGEST OF THE RULES AND REGULATIONS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE PRINCIPAL CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The following digest includes every topic upon which the school authorities of the principal cities of the United States have found it necessary to make rules and regulations, arranged alphabetically, both as to the cities whose rules are cited and the topics themselves, for the convenience of reference, and not in the order of their importance or in the order in which they stand in the original rules.

Selections have been made in order to economize space as well as to avoid repetition, when the same language is used in the different rules and regulations upon the same topics; while, at the same time, the aim has been to give a sufficient number of rules under each topic in the exact language to furnish a correct idea of the action of the school authorities of the principal cities, so fai as known, throughout the United States.

The regulations of the public schools are introduced by extracts from official returns giving the constitution of the board of control in the following cities:

Albany, New York.
Baltimore, Maryland.
Boston, Massachusets.
Brooklyn, New York.
Cambridge, Massachusetts.
Cincinnati, Ohio.
Chicago, Illinois.
Cleveland, Ohio.
Detroit, Michigan.
Dubuque, Iowa.
Fort Wayne, Wisconsin.
Fond Du Lac, Indiana.
Indianapolis, Indiana.
Lowell, Massachusetts.
Louisville, Kentucky.
Manchester, New Hampshire.
Madison, Wisconsin.
Niles, Michigan.
New Haven, Connecticut.
New York, New York.
New Orleans, Louisiana.
Newark, New Jersey.
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
Providence, Rhode Island.
Rochester, New York.
Salem, Massachusetts.
San Francisco, California.
St. Louis, Missouri.
Springfield, Massachusetts.
Troy, New York.
Worcester, Massachusetts.
Washington, District of Columbia.

For the convenience of those who may wish to consult the original rules, the date and page of the edition from which the rule is cited are given.

The following list embraces the names of cities whose rules and regulations were consulted in compiling the following digest at the Department of Education:

Boston, Massachusetts.
Brooklyn, New York.
Baltimore, Maryland.
Bangor, Maine.
Buffalo, New York.
Cambridge, Massachusetts.
Cleveland, Ohio.
Columbus, Ohio.
Cincinnati, Ohio.
Chicago, Illinois.
Detroit, Michigan.
Dubuque, Iowa.
Fort Wayne, Indiana.
Fond Du Lac, Wisconsin.
Hartford, Connecticut.
Indianapolis, Indiana.
Kingston, New York.
Lowell, Massachusetts.
Louisville, Kentucky.
Madison, Wisconsin.
Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
Manchester, New Hampshire.
New Brunswick, New Jersey.
Newburyport, Massachusetts.
Newark, New Jersey.
Newport, Rhode Island.
New Orleans, Louisiana.
Niles, Michigan.
New Haven, Connecticut.
Norwich, Connecticut.
Oswego, New York.
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
Providence, Rhode Island.
Portland, Maine.
Rochester, New York.
Rutland, Vermont.
San Francisco, California.
Salem, Massachusetts.
Sacramento, California.
Springfield, Illinois.
Springfield, Massachusetts.
St. Louis, Missouri.
Syracuse, New York.
Terre Haute, Indiana.
Troy, New York.
Toledo, Ohio.
Washington, District of Columbia.
Worcester, Massachusetts.
Wheeling, West Virginia.

CONSTITUTION OF SCHOOL BOARDS IN CITIES.

The following extracts from the special acts or city ordinances, or returns of committees, give the constitution of the school board in thirty-two of the principal cities of the United States.

The board of public instruction of the city of Albany is composed of twelve members, one-third elected annually by the people, having a president, and a superintendent, and secretary.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

The board of school commissioners consists of twenty members, having as officers a president, treasurer, secretary, and superintendent. The commissioners are appointed by the city council, one being appointed for each ward.—*Baltimore*, 1867.

Seventy-two members compose the school committee, chosen by the people; the term of service of one-third expires every year; the mayor and president of the common council are *ex officio* members; also, the superintendent and secretary.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

There are fifty-three members of the board, appointed by the city council, including, as officers, a president, vice-president, city superintendent, assistant superintendant, secretary, clerk, superintendent of repairs, and a messenger.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

There are thirty-six members of the board, chosen by the people, having a president, vice-president, corresponding secretary, clerk, superintendent of schools, and superintendent of buildings.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

There are eighteen members of the board of education, chosen by the common council, and a superintendent of the public schools.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

There are eleven members in the board, one in each ward, appointed by the common council, and a superintendent of instruction.—*Cleveland. Ohio*, 1866.

Twenty members compose the board, two being chosen in each ward by the people, having as officers a president, superintendent, and secretary, and a treasurer.—*Detroit, Mich*, 1866.

There are seven members, with president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and three directors.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867.

There are thirty-eight members of the board, who elect a superintendent.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866

There are twelve members, having a president and clerk; the rest are called commissioners.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867.

The board of trustees consists of three members; there is a superintendent chosen annually by the board, and there are also eighteen school visitors. The superintendent is also secretary.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867.

There are fifteen members, one-third chosen annually by the people, and the mayor and president of common council, *ex officiis*. There is a superintendent chosen annually by the board.—*Lowell, Mass*, 1867.

Twenty-eight members, including the president, vice-president, secretary, and superintendent.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

There are ten members of the board, including the chairman and clerk. There is also a superintendent.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, p. 30.

The board consists of eight members, including the mayor —*Madison, Wis.*, 167, p. 2.

Nine members compose the board, one-third of whom are chosen by the people annually. They elect two paid officers, a superintendent and secretary.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865.

The board of education consists of twenty one members, three members being residents of each of the seven school districts into which the city is divided. One member for each district is chosen by the people at every charter election. and serves three years. For the administration of the schools the board appoints the following officers: one clerk and treasurer, one auditor, seven assistant clerks, one city superintendent of schools, five assistant superintendents, one clerk to city superintendent, one superintendent of buildings and repairs, one assistant to the same, one engineer, one inspector of fuel, one porter, and one messenger.—*New York*, 1867.

There are twenty-eight members of the board of school directors, chosen by the city council, including the superintendent, secretary, sergeant-at-arms, and a librarian.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867.

The board of education consists of twenty-six members, two for each ward, and is organized annually, on the Wednesday following the first Tuesday in January, by the choice of a president, secretary, city superintendent, and messenger.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

The board consists of six members.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865.

The board of controllers consists of twenty-eight members, one member representing each section into which the city is divided for school purposes, appointed by the judges of the

court of common pleas and the judges of the district court for the city and county of Philadelphia, to serve each for three years, and one-third to go out annually. The officers of the board are a president and secretary and assistant secretary. Beside the controllers, there are 363 directors in the school sections elected by the legal voters annually, who have the local management of the school in their several sections.—*Philadelphia*, 1867.

The school committee, or board of education, consists of forty-five members elected by the people annually for three years, two going out of office and two taking their places annually.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1868.

There are fourteen members of the board, styled commissioners. A superintendent is annually chosen by the board.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

The mayor shall be chairman of the board, and, in his absence, the president of the common council or the chairman of one of the visiting committees. A secretary is also appointed, who holds office at the pleasure of the board. The city messenger is messenger of the board. There is also a superintendent chosen annually.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866.

The board of education consists of twelve members, one from each district or ward into which the city is divided, and the administration of the rules is committed to special committees and a superintendent.—*San Francisco*, 1866.

The officers are a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, attorney, superintendent, and bailiff; twenty directors, two in each ward.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

There are nine members of the school committee, chosen by the people; there is a superintendent.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.

The board of education consists of the two commissioners of common schools in each of the ten wards of the city, chosen by the common council. They appoint a superintendent.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866.

The board is composed of twenty-four members, one-third chosen annually by the people. The mayor of the city is *ex officio* president of the board. A secretary is elected annually, who shall be a prudential committee for all schools. There is a superintendent.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 5.

Twelve trustees compose the board, three residing in each of the four districts, appointed by the city council. The mayor is *ex officio* president.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1868.

In nearly all of the principal cities of the United States, where a system of public schools is in efficient operation, the administration of the rules and regulations is committed to a superintendent, and in several of the largest cities assistants have been found necessary. The compensation allowed shows the value put on their services.

RULES AND REGULATIONS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

ABSENCE OF TEACHERS.

When a teacher is absent and a temporary teacher is required, the sum paid the temporary teacher shall be withdrawn from the salary of the absentee, unless the board shall order an allowance to be made.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 35.

The principal of each school shall return to the office of the board of education, not later than 10 o'clock a. m. of the last day of each school month, a list of the absences of each regular teacher connected with the school; and if the absences are not consecutive, must give the dates thereof, the names of the substitutes who filled the vacancies, and of the teachers whose places they filled.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 170.

No teacher shall be absent except from personal sickness, without furnishing a substitute satisfactory to the local trustees, nor more than three days without permission from the board, nor shall pay be allowed for the time of absence without an order from the board. Teachers absent from meetings called by the appointment of the board or by the superintendent must report their delinquency on the succeeding Monday.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 141.

Absence of a teacher for half a day, except for sickness, without permission of the president of the board, shall subject such teacher to discharge.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 59.

Whenever a teacher is absent he must notify the superintendent immediately. No substitute shall be employed more than one day without the express approbation of the superintendent. The wages of the substitute are deducted from the pay of the teacher, and if a teacher is absent three weeks his wages are forfeited.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 8.

Any teacher expecting to be absent should send notice to the principal before the opening of the school for the day, that a supernumerary may be supplied for the time. Teachers absent three days without satisfactory cause will be considered as having resigned. No teacher shall receive pay as teacher when absent unless by resolution of the board.—*New Orleans La.*, 1867, *p.* 19.

A report of absence shall be made to the board at the close of each term, and the amount of time lost shall be deducted from the service for the term.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862, *p* 93.

If a teacher is absent for any cause except sickness without permission of the commissioner of the ward, or of the president or clerk of the board, a deduction shall be made from his salary in proportion to the amount of absence; and no commissioner shall give permission for any teacher to be absent more than three days except in case of sickness.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 100.

No teacher shall be absent without the permission of at least one member of the sub-board except in case of sickness or the presence of contagious disease in the family, which shall be forthwith communicated to the sub-board and specified in the monthly report.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 107.

ABSENCE OF PUPILS.

Whenever a pupil is absent, the teacher shall immediately ascertain the reason: and if the absence is not satisfactorily explained the pupil may be suspended, with the consent of the sub-committee.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

No pupil shall be allowed to be absent any part of the regular school hours for the purpose of receiving instruction or taking lessons of any kind elsewhere. Pupils detained at home must, on returning to school, bring an excuse for such detention.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 39.

No pupil shall be absent from the public schools to receive instruction elsewhere without the consent of the sub-committee having charge of the school.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 19.

The rules in Chicago are nearly the same as in Cincinnati; but the teachers may send at once to a parent or guardian for an excuse for any absence, or he may delay to send till the next session of the day; but no pupil shall be sent for such excuse when the weather would cause an exposure of health, nor when he would thereby be absent himself from any recitation of his class.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *pp.* 176–'77.

If it shall have been the sicknes of the pupil, or necessary attendance upon a sick member of the family, or if there have been a death in the family which caused the absence, it shall be excused.—*Cincinnati, O.*, 1867, *pp.* 146–'47.

Any pupil absent from a regular examination without a satisfactory excuse shall be suspended, and not allowed to return to the school without permission of the board or the super-

intendent. A pupil may also be suspended for absence more than three half days in a month without a satisfactory excuse to the teacher until the next term, unless readmitted by the superintendent or the board.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *pp.* 118–'19.

In case of absence a satisfactory excuse must be given to the teacher, or he may detain the pupil after school hours, or subject the pupil to such other penalty as the superintendent or committee may deem proper. Any pupil absent five days during a quarter without notifying his teacher beforehand forfeits his desk for the remainder of the quarter.—*Columbus, O.*, 1848, *p.* 16.

Any pupil absent six half days in four consecutive weeks forfeits his seat; also for absence from a regular examination.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *pp* 23–'4.

Any pupil absent five hours in any single week, without reasonable excuse, may be dismissed for the remainder of the term, at the discretion of the board.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 60.

Every scholar in the high or grammar schools absent six half days in a term, and every one in the intermediate schools absent six half days in four consecutive weeks, or in the primary eight times in four consecutive weeks, without a satisfactory excuse, forfeits his seat in school.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 38.

Any pupil in the high school or intermediate department absent six half days in four consecutive weeks without a valid excuse, also any pupil in the primary department absent eight half days in the same time without excuse, shall be suspended from school and remain so suspended till satisfactory assurance is given that the attendance will be regular thereafter. The rule for reporting absences is the same as that of Cincinnati.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 76.

Every pupil absent two half days in the academic department, four in the senior and junior, or seven in the primary, in seven consecutive weeks, without satisfactory reason, may be suspended.—*Kingston, N. Y.*, 1865, *p.* 26.

In all cases of absence pupils must, on their return, bring an excuse in writing, from parent or guardian, with good reasons for such absence.—*Niles, Mich*, 1865, *p.* 30.

Teachers must require an excuse for all cases of absence, from the parent or guardian of the pupil, in writing or in person; the pupil may be suspended for ten cases of absence or tardiness, unexcused; and no excuse except for sickness or some equally imperative necessity shall be received.—*New Haven, Ct.*, 1865, *p.* 6.

Two days' absence in a week, or four days' absence in a month, without a written excuse from the parent or guardian, satisfactory to the teacher, renders the delinquent liable to suspension.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

Absence five consecutive days may cause suspension.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 15.

Absence to the amount of three school days in one term, not certified by the teacher, parent, or guardian, either in person or by note, as necessary and unavoidable, shall forfeit the right of a seat in the school without a written permit to retain it from the secretary, or one of the ward committee in which the pupil resides, and three cases of tardiness shall be treated as equivalent to one day's absence. Severe indisposition in the family, or sickness of the pupil, or some pressing emergency, shall be considered the only legitimate excuses for absence.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862, *p.* 96.

All pupils are required to be regular in their daily attendance. Every pupil must bring a written excuse for any absence, satisfactory to the teacher; but if any pupil is absent five half days in four consecutive weeks, or shall not attend the quarterly examination of his school, he shall not return without a written permit from the superintendent.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *pp.* 38–'9.

Absence three half days in the Free Academy, six in the grammar and intermediate schools, and eight in the primary schools, during four consecutive weeks, except for satisfactory reasons, forfeits the seat.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 95.

In every case of absence, a written excuse or personal explanation, stating the cause thereof, is required of the parent or guardian.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 25.

Pupils are required to be punctual in attendance, and to bring written excuses from their parents or guardians for absence.—*San Francisco, Cal.*, 1861.

Sickness or some urgent necessity is the only legitimate excuse for absence from school. No pupil may be absent to take lessons elsewhere.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Any pupil having been absent must bring to his teacher a written excuse from his parent or guardian, and any one absent from the annual examination forfeits his seat.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *pp.* 63–'4.

Pupils must be regular in their attendance, and any scholar absent from a regular examination without the permission of the teacher, and who does not furnish a satisfactory excuse therefor, shall not return to the school without the permission of the commissioners of the ward in which the school is located.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 96.

Sickness or some pressing emergency is the only legitimate excuse for absence.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 25.

Absence four days in a month, unless for sickness or the presence of a contagious disease in the family, (of which the teacher must be informed before the end of the fourth day.) or unless authorized by a trustee in writing, subjects the pupil to forfeiture of his seat.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *pp.* 109–'10.

Necessity alone can justify absence. Sickness, domestic affliction, and absence from town are regarded as the only legitimate causes of absence.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 19.

ACCOUNTS.

The finance committee audit all accounts, and if a majority approve, order them to be paid.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1860, *p.* 16.

The bills approved by the auditing committee shall be regarded as approved by the board.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 156.

All accounts shall be audited by the committee on claims before being acted upon by the board, except salaries.—*Cincinnati, O.*, 1867, *p.* 118.

All accounts of the board of twenty dollars or over shall be audited in duplicate, one to be left with the secretary, entered in his books and filed; the other annexed to the warrant drawn therefor and presented to the treasurer, who compares it with the warrant, and when paid files it as his voucher.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 13.

The committee on accounts examine all bills, and approve the same if correct, being first certified by the superintendent or a sub-committee, and presented to the secretary one week before the end of the term.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 7.

The committee on accounts must report all bills to the board for final action.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 5.

The committee on accounts receive and audit all demands against the board, prepare and report estimates for appropriations, together with the manner in which the sums recommended should be appropriated.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862, *p.* 90.

The committee on accounts consists of two members, who, if they find the accounts correct, audit them and certify the same, and report their examination of accounts at each regular quarterly meeting of the general committee. No account is to be allowed which is not audited and certified.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1848, *p.* 28.

The committee on accounts and expenses reports an estimate for the year at the annual meeting in July, and makes an examination quarterly of the accounts of the treasurer, reporting the amount of the bills paid, and for what purpose, and has control of the incidental expenses of the board.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 103.

ADDRESSES.

Visitors are requested not to address pupils in the schools, unless invited by the principal or school officers.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

No person shall be allowed to address any school, at any public examination, except the teachers, superintendent, and members of the committee.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 41.

Washington's Farewell Address to the people of the United States must be read in the grammar and high schools on the 21st day of February, annually.—*Boston*, 1866, *p.* 41.

ADMISSION. ✓

All children living within the limits of the city, not otherwise disqualified, and who are upwards of five years of age, may attend the public schools.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 38.

Pupils in all respects qualified may be admitted to the primary schools by applying to the teachers of the schools to which they belong. A uniform grade of proficiency in the primary studies is required for admission to the grammar schools.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 20.

Children of residents of the city, not otherwise disqualified, who are upwards of six years of age, may attend the public schools, but no child whose residence is not in the city, or who is only a temporary resident in it for the purpose of attending school, shall be received or retained in any school.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 173.

None but bona fide residents shall be admitted to the schools free; but children of non-residents may be admitted on paying a fee in advance, when their admission will not prejudice the schools. No children under six years of age shall attend any common school.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *pp.* 144-'5.

Pupils may be admitted to such departments of the schools as they are qualified to enter, but not later than three weeks after the commencement of a term, unless qualified to enter classes already organized. They must be twelve years old to enter the high school and have a certificate of a good moral character. The president and four members of the board, the superintendent and the principal of the high school constitute the committee of examination for admission to the high school.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1867, *p* 68.

Pupils must be twelve years of age, of good moral character, and residents of the city, to be admitted to the high school.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 61.

No child under five admitted to a primary school. For admission to a grammar school a certificate of qualification must be given from the superintendent; for admission to the high school every candidate must be twelve years of age and have a certificate from the principal of his last school of good moral character.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *pp.* 27, 28, 29.

All residents of the city are entitled to the benefits of the public schools; but no pupil is admitted under six years of age.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 88.

The applicant must be twelve years of age to enter the high schools.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 73.

A child must be five years of age for admission.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

Any child four years of age may enter a primary school.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 23.

The public free schools are free only to those children whose parents reside within the district; but under certain circumstances the board may admit others.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1855, *p.* 4.

Pupils may be admitted to the schools on Mondays, between 9 and 10 a. m., on application to the principals at the respective school-houses, but they must be accompanied by a parent or guardian and give satisfactory evidence that they are six years of age and free from any contagious disease; and they can only be admitted to the school in the district in which they reside. No pupil shall be admitted after 10 o'clock a. m., and no one shall enter the high school without a satisfactory examination.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *pp.* 21-'2.

No child shall be admitted to a primary school under five years of age, nor to any intermediate or grammar school unless regularly transferred or found qualified on examination, except by permit from the superintendent. None but pupils from the grammar schools shall be admitted to the high school, except when there is not a sufficient number in the grammar school qualified for admission to the high school.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 38.

None under five nor over twenty-one years of age can be admitted to any schools, and they must be residents.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 92.

No pupil can be admitted to the graded school whose residence is out of the district except by the payment of a tuition fee as prescribed. No child admitted to the primary school under four years of age.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867, *p.* 17.

No child admitted for the first time unless accompanied by the parent or guardian, who must prove that the child is seven years of age, nor unless vacancies exist after older children are accommodated.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

No pupil under six years of age shall be admitted to the schools, nor enter a ward school out of the ward to which he belongs, without a permit from the superintendent.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 63.

No pupil shall be received into any public school under the age of five years.—*San Francisco, Cal.*, 1861.

All resident adults or children not under six years of age, unless afflicted with some contagious disease, shall be admitted.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 20.

All white children between the ages of six and seventeen may be admitted into the schools on application to a trustee of the district, and the admissions shall be in the following order: first, pupils who were such at the close of the last year; second, transfers from other schools; third, applicants in the order of their applications.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 104.

Pupils must not be less than five years of age when first admitted.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

No person whatever shall read to the pupils of any school, or post upon the walls of any school building or fences of the same, any advertisement.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 37.

No person shall read any advertisement to the pupils of any school.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 19.

Same as Indianapolis substantially, except that not even the consent of the superintendent can be given; nor shall teachers permit books, tracts, or other publications to be distributed in the schools.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 172.

Proprietors or agents of public exhibitions are prohibited from causing said exhibitions to be published in the schools without the consent of the board.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 151.

No teacher shall permit any of his or her time, or that of the school, to be occupied in school hours by lecturers or exhibitions, except by permission of the board or superintendent.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 117.

Teachers shall not aid in or permit, without the consent of the president or chairman of the committee on schools, the circulation in the schools of any hand-bills, placards, programmes, or other notices not directly connected with the school business.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 31.

No teacher shall read or distribute any advertisement, nor allow any advertisement to be read or distributed in any of the public schools; nor shall any agent or other person be permitted to enter the school premises for the purpose of exhibiting or announcing in any manner any public entertainment, without the consent of the superintendent.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 74.

Advertisements shall not be given in school.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

No one shall be allowed to give public notices on the school premises without the consent of the committee on schools.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 7.

No person shall read to pupils, or post on the walls of school buildings or on the fences thereof, any advertisement.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1865, *p.* 3.

No advertisement to be read in school.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865, *p.* 29.

No person shall read any advertisement to a school, or post one on the walls of a room.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 15.

No teacher shall read or distribute, or allow to be read or distributed, any advertisement in any public school.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

No person shall, without the permission of the superintendent of schools, enter any school to read or distribute any advertisement, or give any notice in any way to the pupils of any school.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 27.

No teacher shall read nor allow to be read any advertisement, nor allow any advertisement to be distributed in school or on the school premises, and no agent shall be allowed to announce any public entertainment.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p* 62.

The Washington rule is the same as that of Boston.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 108.

APPARATUS.

The superintendent shall see to the repair of damaged apparatus, to whom application must be made for that purpose.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *pp.* 12, 28.

The immediate care of the apparatus shall be intrusted to the teachers respectively.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 116.

The teachers shall take daily care of the apparatus of their schools. Any child who injures apparatus shall be liable for the damage in full.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *pp.* 34, 38.

ATTENDANCE.

No child whose residence is not in the city, or who has only a temporary residence in it for the purpose of attending the public schools, shall be received into any school without the consent of the district committee.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p* 38.

Each teacher shall keep a daily register of the name, age, and attendance of all the pupils in his or her school.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 136.

Pupils must attend school in the district where they reside, without a written permit of the superintendent; when enrolled in one school they shall not change to another in the same term without a like permit.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 25.

All pupils are required to be punctual and regular in attendance.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 60.

All resident children between six and twenty-one may attend the schools.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866, *p.* 8

No scholar shall attend the high school more than four years, except by a vote of the board.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 31.

Pupils shall attend school in their own districts, except such as are allowed to attend others under the rules.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 16.

No pupil admitted under four years of age, nor out of his own district, without the consent of the superintendent. who may give permission only when there are vacant seats.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 77.

No non-resident of a district shall attend school within it without permission of the board.—*Niles, Michigan*, 1865, *p.* 30.

Teachers must exert themselves to secure constant attendance.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 11.

Pupils must attend the school established in the local district where they reside, and if they wish to attend another school by reason of a change of residence, they must have a certificate from their former teacher stating the cause of the transfer.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

The superintendent shall exert his personal influence with teachers, parents, and pupils to secure as general and regular attendance as possible. The teachers shall make a report in writing, one week before the close of each term, stating the average attendance.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *pp.* 32, 36, 38.

No pupil resident of one section can attend a school in another section without the consent of one director in his own section, but he may apply for admission to the school nearest his own residence.—*Philadelphia, Penn.*, 1866. *p.* 333.

Every teacher having satisfactory evidence that a scholar has ceased to attend school shall strike his name from the roll.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *pp.* 63, 65.

ASSISTANT TEACHERS.

The regulations of the principal are to be obeyed by assistants where they do not conflict with the rules of the board.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

There are head assistants in the Boston schools ranking below the masters, sub-masters, and ushers, and assistants also All instructors elected at the annual meeting hold their offices one year, unless removed by the board.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *pp.* 23, 25.

Assistants are subject to the direction of the principal in the boys' grammar schools in all matters belonging to the schools which do not conflict with the regulations or by-laws of the board.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1860, *p.* 24.

In the high school there shall be as many assistants as may be necessary; in the grammar schools, when the number exceeds sixty, one assistant shall be appointed, and an additional assistant for every additional number of fifty; in the primary schools, when the num-

ber amounts to eighty, an assistant shall be appointed, and an additional assistant when there are sixty above that number. But the average daily attendance for four weeks preceding any appointment must be ninety per cent. at least of the number required.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 19.

The head assistant shall have charge of such classes in the master's division as he may designate; also, of the records of the school, under the supervision of the principal, and perform the clerical work generally.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 166.

In the intermediate and district schools of Cincinnati one male assistant is allowed; and also, in the schools where German is taught, one male assistant for that department; and one female assistant for every forty-eight pupils in the average daily attendance above the forty-eight pupils of the first English male assistant.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 139.

All teachers, except principals, shall be styled assistant teachers.—*Kingston, N. Y.*, 1865, *p.* 25.

Each assistant in a grammar school shall be responsible for the good order and instruction in her department, but in difficult cases shall apply to the principal; in the high school, shall occupy such rooms and teach such branches as the sub-committee shall direct.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *pp.* 28, 30.

Each teacher must carry out the rules of the trustees and of the principals of the schools, and in cases of doubt refer to the principal for advice.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 85.

Assistant teachers must carry out the wishes of the principals in all matters of classification and discipline.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865, *p.* 28.

Assistant teachers shall, in all matters relating to the government, instruction, and management of the schools, obey the directions of the principal.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1865, *p.* 4.

During the temporary absence of the principals the first assistants shall take their places, unless otherwise instructed by the superintendent. They shall report to their principals.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

Each grammar school, except that for colored children, shall be under the instruction and government of a male principal and three or more female assistants. Each primary and intermediate school may have such assistants as are necessary.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 39.

Assistant teachers must exercise a careful supervision over pupils in the rooms and about the school premises; and in all matters relating to government, &c., follow the directions of the principal.—*Rochester, N. Y*, 1867, *p.* 91.

The assistant teachers shall aid the principal in maintaining order, study, and discipline; the principal and assistants shall keep the records required by the board.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 60.

The first assistant, under the direction of the master, shall have personal charge of the English department for females, and be responsible for its order. In all cases of importance assistants shall refer the subject of discipline immediately to the first assistant or to the master.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 21.

Assistant teachers will be held responsible for the good order of their respective rooms, and aid the principal in maintaining order, and report to him all cases of such a nature as to require serious discipline, and shall not in any case inflict corporal punishment upon their pupils. Assistants will assume the duty of the principal, when necessary, on account of the absence or inability of the latter.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 101.

Sub-assistants shall have charge of the record books of the grammar schools, and may give instruction during the temporary absence of the principal, and shall perform other duties that may be assigned by the board.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 108.

Assistants shall cordially co-operate with the principals for the welfare of the schools.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 14.

BUILDINGS, HOW USED.

The school buildings under the control of the board shall not be used for any other purpose than the accommodation of the public schools of the city, except by the special vote of the board.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 172.

The buildings for the public schools shall be used for no other purpose than such as may be immediately connected with public schools.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1860, *p.* 15.

No building owned and occupied by the common schools shall be used, leased, or rented for any other purpose whatever.—*Cincinnati, O.*, 1867, *p.* 150.

No school-house shall be used for any purpose except for schools under the charge of the board.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 33.

Used only for school purposes.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 56.

The superintendent shall report to the board whenever the buildings are not kept strictly clean and in good order, and such as are not convenient, attractive, and adapted to the best requirements.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 68.

No part of the premises occupied by the public schools shall in any case be used for private schools, or for any other purpose than that for which they were designed.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 18.

The buildings shall not be used for any other purpose than the accommodation of the public schools, except by consent of a majority of the board.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 87.

The superintendent has general supervision of all the school-houses and apparatus.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 20.

The public school-houses owned by the city shall be used for no purpose not immediately connected with school instruction, unless by permission of the board.—*Newark, N J.*, 1864.

Teachers shall not permit the school-rooms to be used for any other purpose whatever, except for schools under the care of the board.—*Oswego, N, Y.*, 1862, *p.* 95.

No school building shall be used for any other purpose than that of instruction, prescribed by the board, without the permission of the city council or the general committee.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 41.

A committee has the general supervision, and they are used only for school purposes.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 83.

The committee on school-houses shall annually inspect all school-rooms and school-houses, and report their condition, and recommend such improvements as may promote the health of teachers and scholars. They shall attend to the insurance of houses and furniture.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1866, *p.* 102.

BOOKS—HOW SUPPLIED.

All books and stationery used by the pupils shall be the property of the schools, and under the control of the commissioners, and obtained from the city treasurer. [The expense for this item in 1866-'7 was $34,349, or about $2 per scholar.]—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

The books used shall be such and such only as may be authorized by the board. The committee on accounts may carry out the provisions of the general statute in furnishing books for poor children at the expense of the city.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p* 37.

Every scholar shall be supplied with all the books used by his class. If poverty or the negligence of parents or guardians prevents their having proper books, the sub-committees are authorized to carry out the provisions of the general statutes.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 18.

Every pupil must have the necessary books, slate, and other utensils; but no pupil shall be excluded for the want of them, unless the parent or guardian shall be furnished by the teacher with a list of the articles needed, and one week shall elapse without their being obtained by the pupil.—*Chicago. Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 173.

Books for poor children may be provided at the expense of the city and loaned to the scholars, and collected by the teacher at the end of the term.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 114.

Whenever any school inspector certifies to the superintendent the inability of parents to procure books for their children, the latter shall give an order for the necessary books, and the teacher shall keep a list of them, and be responsible for their safe-keeping for the use of the school.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1867, *p.* 67.

The superintendent establishes book exchanges for second-hand books, under the care of the principals.—*Kingston, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 23.

Indigent children are supplied with books and stationery free.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 90.

School books, stationery, slates, pencils, &c., are furnished to the pupils throughout the city free of expense to the pupils.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

All books are purchased by the agent, and the poor only are supplied at the expense of the city.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 16.

The board of education determine the subjects of instruction, prescribe a list of text books, and provide a supply of the same in a general depository, from which list thus prescribed, the trustees of the several wards select and draw the books to be used in their respective wards. The expense for this item was $164,567, or an average of $1 19 per scholar, in 1866.—*New York.*

Books are loaned to indigent children. The books thus loaned are labelled "Board of Education."—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862, *p.* 95.

All books are prescribed and supplied by the board, at an expense in 1866, of $7,893, or 97 cents per scholar. —*San Francisco*, 1866.

All supplies for books and stationery are furnished by the secretary of the board. No book is to be used in any public school not authosized by the board. The expense for this item for all the schools, in 1866, was $74,999 92, averaging about 90 cents per scholar.—*Philadelphia*, 1867.

The superintendent purchases and has charge of books provided for indigent children; they are lent to them in the same manner as library books, to be returned.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 89.

BOOKS FOR TEACHERS.

Each grammar and high school, and the normal and training schools are furnished with dictionaries, a set of Barnard's American Journal of Education and other books of reference.—*Boston*, 1867.

Books are supplied for the teacher's desk, and on one of the blank leaves is written, "The

property of the City of Cambridge; for the ——— school."—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 15.

Books are charged to teachers, and must be returned to the clerk at the end of the term, in good condition.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 24.

They are supplied at the expense of the city.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 9.

The superintendent furnishes to teachers such blanks, registers, text books, and stationery as may be required for the proper exercise of their duties.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 9.

BELL.

A bell is rung fifteen minutes before the opening, and every pupil not present at the time for opening is marked tardy.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 14.

The ringing of a bell five minutes before the school exercises are to commence summons pupils in doors. A stroke of the bell at the appointed hour precisely is given, and any pupil not then seated is counted tardy.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866, *p.* 6.

Teachers must be in their rooms at the "first bell," to open the rooms for pupils. No communications in the school room, or loud talking in halls, after the "first bell."—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865, *p.* 28.

A boy rings a bell at the time to close school and at recess, and the school is to close immediately.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862.

The school bell shall be rung fifteen minutes before opening the school, when the principal or the assistant must be present.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

BLANKS—HOW SUPPLIED.

The register and blanks for monthly reports shall be of uniform pattern, to be determined by the superintendent, to whom teachers must apply for them.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 31.

The committee on publication take the supervision of all blanks, etc.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 158.

The superintendent shall devise and report to the board a system of blanks and other statistics, and prescribe rules for keeping the same.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 168.

All report blanks shall be of a uniform pattern, determined upon by the committee on schools.—*New Haven, Ct.*, 1865, *p.* 6.

There are twenty-six different blank forms in use, viz: monthly reports of teachers, billl for salaries of teachers, bills for sweeping rooms and making fires, requisitions for schoof supplies, certificates of examination of teachers, notices to be sent by teachers to parents ot pupils who have been absent three days in a month; notices to sub boards of scholars absene more than four days in a month; abstract of teachers' monthly reports for the use of the secretary; abstract of teachers' monthly reports, to be kept by the teacher and sent to th, secretary at the end of the school year; rules and regulations of the school, in sheet form: to be hung up in the school-room; certificates of merit for pupils of the several grades; reports of absences, etc.; application for school books; notice to applicants for admissions tickets of admission to new scholars; tickets of transfer; monthly reports of the averages of scholars; certificates of honorable dismission; programme of the daily exercises; annual tabular statement by teachers, and treasurer's account.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 111.

BY-LAWS.

All teachers are required to make themselves familiar with the regulations relating to their duties.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

Teachers must observe the rules, especially those relating to their own duties, instruction and government of the schools.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 29.

The male principal, as the local superintendent, is responsible for the enforcement of the rules of the board. All the teachers must be familiar with them.—*Cincinnati, O.*, 1867.

Such rules and regulations as apply to pupils must be read at least once each term.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 60.

The regulations must be read to pupils at least once a month.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1867.

Teachers must have a copy in the school-room, and read such portion as relates to the government of the school once each term.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 69.

Teachers must see that the pupils understand and faithfully observe the rules prescribed.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 18.

All teachers must observe and carry out the rules.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 85.

All teachers must understand the by-laws, and read them at least once in each term to their pupils, so far as they relate to the government of the schools.—*Prov., R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 42.

Teachers must understand the regulations, and co-operate with the superintendent in enforcing them.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 62.

A copy of the rules and regulations must be in every school-room, and teachers must be familiar with them.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 109.

BILLS.

The secretary examines all bills for salaries, and for articles purchased by authority of the board.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 26.

No bill contracted by a teacher can be paid without the authority of the sub-committee of the school.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865, *p.* 13.

Teachers' bills are paid on Saturday after the close of each month, except the month of June. (payments for June and July being made together.)—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 161.

The committee on finance examine all bills, and report them to the board approved or rejected, with the reasons.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 68.

Every committee having the right to approve a bill, must have a stamp on which is the style of the committee, over which must be written the approval of the chairman, or the chairman *pro tempore*, the stamp and signature being made at a meeting of the committee; but the chairman of the committee on accounts may stamp his name on bills approved by that committee.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867, *p.* 320.

All bills for salaries of teachers must be presented in their name.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867, *p.* 336.

The committee on accounts examine and report quarterly on the accounts of the treasurer, and for what the bills were paid.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 103.

BOOK AGENTS.

Agents or others are not to enter any school to exhibit any book or apparatus without the permission of the superintendent.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

No agent or other person shall enter any school to exhibit to teachers or pupils any new book or article of apparatus.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p* 37.

Teachers must not allow books or other publications to be distributed through the schools, except those provided for the instruction of the children.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p* 26.

No agent shall be allowed to enter the school premises for the purpose of exhibiting any new book, map, or article of apparatus.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 172.

No teacher shall permit his own time or that of his pupils to be occupied by book agents, except by permission of the superintendent.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 117.

Teachers must not allow their time to be occupied by book agents during school hours without permission of the chairman of the committee.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 31.

No time of teacher or scholars can be occupied by book agents during school hours.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 76

Authors and book agents will not be permitted to visit any school to exhibit school-books, maps, or other apparatus.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

All book agents and other persons are prohibited from visiting the public schools for the purpose of interesting teachers in books or other supplies, and the teachers are requested to report the names of any who violate this rule.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867, *p.* 341.

BOOK-KEEPING.

In the following cities book-keeping is included in the course of studies:

Baltimore, Md., 1867; Boston, Mass., 1867; Cambridge, Mass., 1866; Cleveland, O., 1867; Chicago, Ill., 1867; Cincinnati, O., 1867; Cleveland, O., 1866; Fond du Lac, Wis., 1867; Lewiston, Me., 1867; Louisville, Ky., 1867; Manchester, N. H., 1867; Newark, N. J., 1866; New Haven, Conn., 1867; Oswego, N. Y., 1862; Philadelphia, Pa., 1867; Providence, R. I., 1863; Rutland, Vt., 1867; Salem, Mass., 1866; Springfield, Mass., 1867; St. Louis, Mo., 1867; Troy, N. Y., 1866; Worcester, Mass., 1867.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Constitution of the United States is found in some part of the course of instruction in the following cities:

Baltimore, Md., 1867; Boston, Mass.; Cambridge, Mass., 1866; Chicago, Ill., 1866; Cincinnati, O., 1867; Fond du Lac, Wis., 1867; Hartford, Conn., 1867: Indianapolis, Ind., 1867; Madison, Wis., 1867; New Haven, Conn., 1865; Philadelphia, Pa., 1867; Providence, R. I., 1867; Salem, Mass., 1866; St. Louis, Mo., 1867; Terre Haute, Ind., 1867.

COURSE AND GRADES OF INSTRUCTION.

There are primary, grammar, and high schools, and a city college.—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

The primary schools have six grades or classes, from which pupils pass to the grammar schools, and from them to the boys' English or Latin high schools, or to the girls' high and normal school.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Oral instruction is prominent in the early part of the course. There are six grades in the primary and six in the grammar departments; the latter is followed by a supplementary course of one year.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

Primary, grammar, and high schools are included, the latter having a course of four years in English and classical studies.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 17.

There are ten grades of one year each before reaching the high school, which has an English, a classical, and a normal department.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

The course includes six grades in the district schools, two in the intermediate department, and four years in the high schools, in which are English, German, and classical departments.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

The primary department has two divisions of three classes each; the secondary, two divisions with two classes each; the intermediate, two divisions and two classes, and the grammar department the same. The high school has a four years' course.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866.

The course embraces union schools, ending in a high school with an English course of three years and a classical course of three years, or four years for both courses.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1867, *p.* 29.

The course extends from primary schools to a high school with a three years' course.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867.

The course ends in a high school, occupying four years, with the preparatory school.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866.

The course commences in the primary schools, with oral instruction, and passes through the intermediate and grammar schools, two years in each, ending in the high school with an English and classical department, each of four years, or a normal department of two years.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867.

There are primary, intermediate, and high schools, with four grades of one year each in each school.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 18.

The primary, junior, and secondary departments have each three grades and terminate in preparation for the high school or academic department, which gives a three years' course—the whole, twelve years.—*Kingston, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 28.

The course ends in a high school for English and classical studies, giving a course of instruction of four years.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

The course ends in the male and female high schools—a course of two years in each.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

The course embraces a high school having a two years' course of instruction in English branches; but French, Latin, and German may be pursued by those who wish.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p* 18.

The schools are both graded and ungraded, and extend from the primary to the high school, in which students are prepared for college. Four years are spent in the grammar schools and four in the high school.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1867, *p.* 27

Primary, intermediate, and grammar departments are included.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 79.

There are primary, grammar, and high schools for white children, the grammar schools receiving children from six to sixteen and having four departments; in the high school white children over thirteen are received.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 16.

The course ends with the high school for boys only, unless there may be unoccupied seats not needed for boys.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 5.

The course, commencing with the primary school, ends with a high school for English and classical studies.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866, *p.* 6.

The schools embrace the primary, intermediate, grammar and high schools, with an English course of four years or a classical course of three. During the fall and winter term there is in the high school a teachers' class, to whom appropriate instruction is given.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865.

The course, beginning with mixed primary schools, goes through the grammar to the male and female high schools.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 9.

Primary, grammar, high, and normal schools.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

Commencing with an alphabetical department, there follow primary, secondary, intermediate, junior, and senior departments.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

There are ward grammar schools, having each a boys' and a girls' primary department, primary schools, a normal school, and the city college in the system of public instruction.—*New York, N. Y.*, 1867.

The course embraces primary, intermediate, model, grammar, and high schools, a training school, and a practicing school.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1863.

A primary with five grades, an intermediate with five grades, a grammar with eight grades, extending through four years, and a high school with a four years' course, English and collegiate, and having a boys' and girls' department.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

There are primary and secondary schools, boys' high schools, and girls' high and normal schools.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1866.

Primary, intermediate, grammar, and high schools.—*Portland, Me.*, 1867.

The schools are graded, giving a course of four years in the grammar department, including English and classical studies.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867, *p.* 12.

Beginning in the seventh grade, with lessons in counting, words of two letters, singing, and physical exercises, and ending in the grammar schools or with the free academy, having a four years' course, including the sciences and the Latin, German, and French languages.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

The course extends through the primary, secondary, intermediate, grammar, and high schools, the latter having an English and a classical department.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867.

The course is for twelve years, ending in the high school with English and Latin departments.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.

There are district, high, and normal schools. The high school is for boys and girls, with a classical course of four years.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

The course extends from the age of six in the primaries to eighteen or twenty in the high schools, of which there are three: one for girls, one for boys, and one for classical students. There is a normal and a training school, and a cosmopolitan school for modern languages.—*San Francisco*, 1867.

The course extends through the primary, grammar, and high schools, the latter having three departments, viz: an English department for male pupils, an English department for females, and a classical department.—*Salem, Mass*, 1866.

A primary, intermediate, grammar, and high school, with English and classical departments.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1865.

Through primary, intermediate, grammar, and high school, extending through nine years and eight months.—*Terre Haute, Ind*, 1857 *p* 16.

The schools include primary and secondary, male and female intermediate, and male and female grammar schools only.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

The course extends through sub-primary, primary, secondary, grammar, to and ending with the high school; the latter having a commercial course of two years, to which a third or scientific year may be added, an academic course of four years, or a collegiate course of four years, with an advanced or normal course. Training schools are also established.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 29.

CLASSIFICATION.

Each district committee may arrange the studies and classify the pupils in the primary schools. Each department of the grammar schools shall be divided into four classes.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

The superintendent shall pay particular attention to the classification of the schools, that there may be a uniform course and system in schools of the same grade.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

The classification in the different departments is conducted rigidly upon the plan of study adopted by the board.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867.

The classification shall be made with strict adherence to the course of study adopted by the board.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 24.

The superintendent shall pay particular attention to the classification of the pupils.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

Each department is divided into grades or classes for independent study and recitation, and a record is kept of every recitation.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866.

CANDIDATES FOR TEACHING.

When, at any examination for assistant teachers, there is a large number of candidates found qualified, the names and address and qualifications shall be taken and kept for future reference when vacancies occur.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

The superintendent shall keep a record of meritorious applicants for positions as teachers.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

Whenever a vacancy occurs, a candidate may be allowed to teach a short time on trial.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 12.

CLOCKS TO BE UNIFORM.

Each principal must see that the clocks belonging to his school are regulated by the city time every morning, and all teachers must conform to that standard.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

To secure uniformity of time, the principals shall cause the clocks of the respective schools to be regulated by the tapping of the fire bells at 12 m.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 136.

The principal master must see that the clocks belonging to the building are properly regulated, and all teachers must conform to the standard.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 69.

Clocks must be set by city time once a week, that there may be uniformity of time.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 84.

Teachers must regulate the school-room clock by the city time, and make records by it.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

CERTIFICATES OF MERIT OR HONOR.

The district committee shall determine who are to receive medals and certificates of merit four days previous to the annual exhibition. Each school shall be entitled to one medal and one of each of the certificates for every sixty pupils.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 18.

Semi-annual certificates shall be given, in the name of the board, to all deserving pupils.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

In the female high school, pupils distinguished for superior excellence in scholarship or perfect regularity in attendance for five months, receive an "honorary certificate."—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 80.

Certificates are given for punctuality, good deportment, and scholarship, when their daily records amount to the required standard.—*Newark, N. J*, 1854.

Each board of school directors is recommended to introduce the plan of publicly awarding certificates to meritorious scholars annually, to incite a greater interest.—*Philadelphia, Penn.*, 1866, *p.* 340.

Pupils reaching a certain per cent. (85) in scholarship have their names published in the proceedings of the board.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 90.

Certificates of merit shall be given at the close of each month to all pupils who have received no demerit marks.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

CARE OF PREMISES AND APPARATUS.

Teachers are required to take daily care of the rooms and all the property belonging to the schools.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

The principal in the several schools shall prescribe rules for the use of the yards and outbuildings, and when repairs are needed he must give notice to the superintendent.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 36.

The superintendent has supervision of all the school-houses, books, and apparatus. The masters of the several schools are responsible for the care of the yards, basements, and outbuildings.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *pp.* 161, 167.

The superintendent must inspect the buildings and grounds, and report any deficiency to the board.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 133.

The immediate care of the school-rooms and furniture shall be intrusted to the teachers respectively.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 116.

The care of the yards and houses is given to the principals in each school; but all the teachers are responsible for the care of the property in their several rooms.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1865, *pp.* 30, 31.

The superintendent and teachers are to co-operate in care of the rooms and premises generally.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866, *p.* 7.

The principal teacher must carefully attend to the closing of the rooms and the doors of out-houses, gates, and windows, every day, after the close of school.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 34.

The principal of each school has the care of the building, furniture, and fixtures, and must see them and the fences and other property kept in good order.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p* 83.

The janitors must keep the side-walks and the buildings in good condition, safe, clean, and well warmed, and inform the clerk of all damages and needed repairs. -*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 12.

The principal has a general supervision of grounds, buildings, and appurtenances.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Teachers are to take care that no damage be done to the buildings, or other school property, and must give prompt notice of any injury to the superintendent.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

CLASSICAL DEPARTMENT.

The following cities have a classical school or department in connection with the course of instructions: Baltimore; Boston, Mass., 1866; Cambridge, Mass., 1866; Chicago, Ill., 1866; Cincinnati, Ohio, 1867; Dubuque, Iowa, 1867; Hartford; Lowell, Mass., 1867; New Haven, Conn., 1865; Louisville, Ky.; Newark, N. J, 1866; Norwich, Conn., 1867; New York, 1867; Niles, Mich., 1865; Philadelphia, Penn., 1867; Portland, Me., 1867; Providence, R. I., 1863; Rutland, Vt., 1867; Salem, Mass., 1866; St. Louis, Mo., 1866; Springfield, Ill., 1867; Springfield, Mass., 1867; Syracuse, N. Y., 1867; Troy, N. Y., 1866; Worcester, Mass., 1867.

COMMITTEES.

The following are the names of the principal standing committees, exclusive of committees for special duties, and selected from the lists of all the principal cities:

On accounts and expenses, ancient languages, attendance, auditing, boundaries and statistics, buildings and grounds, claims and accounts, colored schools, course of instruction, credentials, discipline, district, drawing, elections, examination of teachers, executive, finance, fuel, furniture, gymnastics, high school, janitors, lots, modern languages, music, normal school, organization, penmanship, qualifications, real estate and building, repairs, reports and excuses, rules and regulations, salaries, school-houses, school-rooms, stoves and furniture, supervision of library, supplies, teachers' institutes, text-books, visiting, vocal music, warming and ventilation, and ways and means.

Besides these, some of the cities have special committees on particular schools; as in Boston, on the English and Latin high schools, and on the girls' high and normal; and in

Philadelphia, committees on grammar. secondary, and primary schools, and on the Boys' Central High School and the Girls' High and Normal School. Louisville, Ky., has a committee on grievances, grammar, penmanship, rules, music, and physical exercises, beside the usual ones; and St. Louis, on ways and means, on evening schools, and a leasing committee, beside the usual ones.

CLOSING UP AT NIGHT.

The principals must cause the premises to be properly secured after the schools close.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 24.

The master of each school must cause the doors of the wood-shed and outhouses, gates, and the outside doors of his school-house to be locked, and all the windows of the same to be shut and fastened every day after the close of school.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 167.

The principal of each school shall cause all the doors of the coal-houses and outside doors of his school-house to be locked, and all windows and window-shutters to be properly closed every day after the close of his school.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 71.

The janitors attend to closing rooms.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

The teachers are responsible for closing.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

CONTRIBUTIONS.

No contribution allowed in any public school.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

No subscription or contribution for any purpose whatever shall be introduced into any public school.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 37.

No teacher shall permit collections of money from the scholars for the purpose of making presentation gifts, or any other purpose, without the permission of the school committee. Teachers shall not allow the proposing or taking of any contribution or subscription in the school.—*Detroit, Mich*, 1866, *p.* 31.

No subscription or contribution for presents to teachers, or other purposes, shall be allowed in the public schools.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 59.

No contributions allowed without the consent of the board.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867.

No subscription or contribution can be introduced into any school without the consent of the board.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 87.

No person shall be allowed to take contributions or solicit subscriptions on the school premises, except by the consent of the committee on the schools.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865.

No contribution allowed in any school, except for the promotion of proper school purposes.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 10.

None allowed but by permission of the superintendent.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 93.

No collection shall be taken up or subscription for any purpose introduced into any of the public schools.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

None allowed for any purpose whatever.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

No subscription whatever shall be allowed in any public school, nor shall any teacher accept a present from the pupils in the public schools.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 62.

No contribution or subscription whatever shall be taken in any public school without the permission of the board.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 108.

CALISTHENICS.

In the grammar classes calisthenics shall be taught to all the classes.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865, *p.* 22.

The teacher in each room of the intermediate and district schools must give a lesson at every session of the school in gymnastics or calisthenics of not more than five nor less than ten minutes, the time to be fixed by the programme of the principal.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 150.

COLORED SCHOOLS.

By special ordinance, in 1867, nine separate schools for colored children are established.—*Baltimore*, 1867.

The public schools are open to all children, irrespective of nationality or color.—*Boston*, 1867.

Teachers of the several district schools are instructed to refuse admission to their respective schools of all colored children applying to attend the same; all such children as are in whole or any part of African blood are to attend the colored schools.—*Cincinnati*, 1867.

The colored schools shall be opened to all the colored children of every age in the city. The regulations shall be the same as those of the other schools.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866.

One colored school in the place.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867.

The public school-houses and grounds are dedicated exclusively to the use of schools organized by authority of the board for the gratuitous education of all white youths of the city over six years of age.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 24.

There shall be one public school for colored children, to which all colored children are admitted on application to the principal.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

There are nine colored schools, with an average attendance of 750; teachers, 39. The buildings used are in fair order except No. 2. They are under the charge of a special committee of the board. Supplies of all kinds are freely furnished. They promise gratifying results.—*New York, N. Y.*, 1867.

Schools may be established for colored children; the children of all are entitled to the advantages of public schools, but trustees may establish separate schools for colored children.—*School Laws of New Jersey.*

There shall be three public schools maintained exclusively for the instruction of colored children, the grades thereof to be determined from time to time by the school committee.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 15.

The committee shall frequently visit the colored school, advising in its management, encouraging regular attendance, and report to the board for action any measures deemed needful for its prosperity.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 138.

From and after the passage of this act it shall be the duty of the municipal authorities of the cities of Washington and Georgetown, in the District of Columbia, to set apart each year from the whole fund received from all sources by such authorities, applicable under existing laws to purposes of public education, such proportional part thereof as the number of colored children between the ages of six and seventeen years, in the respective cities, bears to the whole number of children thereof, for the purpose of establishing and sustaining public schools in said cities for the education of colored children. (Act of Congress, approved June 25, 1864.)—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

CLEANLINESS.

Any child coming to school without proper attention having been given to the cleanliness of his person or dress, or whose clothes need repairing, shall be sent home to be properly prepared for the school-room.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 173.

Any pupil manifesting a want of proper cleanliness in person or dress may be sent home, that he may appear in his class in a proper manner.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 26.

Any pupil coming to school without proper attention to cleanliness of person or apparel, or whose clothes are not properly repaired, may be sent home to be put in proper order for school.—*Kingston, N. Y.*, 1865, *p.* 20.

Teachers will impress on pupils the importance of cleanliness.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

No scholar is expected to appear at school with unclean or slovenly person, or garments indecently torn or soiled.—*Norwich, Conn*, 1867.

No child coming to school without proper attention to cleanliness of person or dress can remain.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 11.

Teachers must cause the school-rooms to be properly cleaned at least once in each term, and give proper attention to the cleanliness and dress of each pupil.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 36.

Pupils are to come to school with clean hands and face and with hair properly combed, or sent home to be put in proper order for school.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 94.

Cleanliness of apparel and neatness of person are indispensable to continuance in school.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

Cleanliness in person and clothing is required of every person; repeated neglect causes suspension.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

CONDUCT OF PUPILS OUT OF SCHOOL.

It is particularly enjoined upon teachers that they devote their time faithfully to a vigilant and watchful care over the conduct and habits of their pupils during the hours of relaxation and play; before and after school, and during the recess.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 174.

Teachers are to exercise a constant supervision and care over the general conduct of their pupils, and on all suitable occasions to inculcate the observance of correct manners, habits, and principles, not only on the school premises, but also in going to and returning from school.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 116.

Scholars going to and returning from school must conform to the ordinary rules of politeness.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866.

Teachers are expected, as far as practicable, to exercise supervision over their pupils while going to and from school.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 75.

Fighting, rough and boisterous play are forbidden on the school premises.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865, *p.* 31.

The teachers are to exercise a general inspection over the conduct of scholars coming to and returning from school.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1863, *p.* 14.

The teachers shall, when deemed expedient, extend their supervision to pupils going to and returning from school. Whenever any teacher deems any misconduct of any pupil, either in or out of school, such that he is an unfit member of the same, he shall report him to the superintendent for examination.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *pp.* 34-36.

Teachers, as far as practicable, are to exercise a general superintendence over pupils, as well out of school as within its walls.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 26.

Pupils are required, in all cases, while on or about the school premises, to be kind, and gentle, and respectful in their conduct toward one another and toward their teachers.—*Syracuse, N. Y.*, 1867.

Pupils shall be under the jurisdiction of the teacher, to and from school.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 63.

Pupils must observe propriety and deportment in coming to and going from school.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Pupils are expected to observe propriety of deportment, not only in school, but in going to and from the same.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 25.

CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

Not inflicted except by the principal teacher.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

Teachers shall avoid corporal punishment in all cases where good order can be preserved by milder measures.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 32.

Corporal punishment shall be resorted to only in cases of persistent misconduct, and after the failure of all other reasonable means of reformation.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

When a teacher thinks it necessary to inflict corporal punishment, he shall prepare a statement in writing of the nature of the offence and the severity of the punishment, and make a report in writing to the sub-committee at the end of each month. Corporal punishment shall not be inflicted in any school without the consent and approval of the principal.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866. *p.* 14.

Rule the same as in Boston.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 165.

So far as practicable teachers are to govern their pupils by the moral influence of kindness, and by appeals to the nobler principles of their nature.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 141.

While the board are of the opinion that corporal punishment cannot be entirely dispensed with, they are decided in the conviction that it should be resorted to only in cases of flagrant disobedience, nor then until all other means are exhausted—a common rod or whip the only instrument.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 119.

Teachers are not to employ corporal punishment where milder measures will succeed; never to engage in violent controversy on discipline with any pupil in presence of the school, and in the more difficult cases of discipline they may apply to the superintendent for advice and direction. A record of every case is to be kept, with the time and cause thereof, to be reported to the superintendent at the end of the term.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 30.

Teachers are to punish as sparingly as may be consistent with securing obedience.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 58.

Rule as in Boston.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 70.

Teachers must avoid severe corporal punishment where good order and obedience can be secured by milder measures. A record of the punishment, and the reason, must be given to the superintendent.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866, *p.* 5.

Teachers shall avoid corporal punishment, when good order can be preserved by milder means.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 34.

Corporal punishment shall only be resorted to when other means fail.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 20.

To be avoided if possible; and when inflicted the nature of the offence must be explained to the scholar.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 86.

Used only in cases of extreme necessity.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

It shall be the duty of teachers to govern by moral suasion, and discourage all infliction of corporal punishment, resorting to it only in extreme cases.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 74.

Teachers must keep a record of each case of corporal punishment, giving the name of every scholar so punished, the nature and extent of the offence, and the punishment inflicted therefor, to be preserved for the inspection of the committee.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1867, *p.* 14.

Corporal punishment shall be administered only in extreme cases, and when all other means have failed; and a record of every case is to be submitted to the board at the end of the term.—*New Haven, Ct.*, 1865, *p.* 9.

In maintaining good order and obedience, when other means fail, teachers may inflict corporal punishment.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1865, *p.* 2.

Inflicted with great deliberation.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866.

Corporal punishment may be inflicted for wilful neglect or insubordination, by the principal only.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1867.

To be avoided when good order can be maintained by milder measures.—*Norwich, Ct.*, 1867.

Not to be used in any girls' schools.—*New York*, 1867.

Rule same as in Boston.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1863, *p.* 96.

Rule as in Boston, except that corporal punishment is defined to be all infliction of bodily pain.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 40.

The rule is the same as in Boston.—*Rutland, Vt*, 1867, *p.* 21.

As a final resort, the use of the rod is one way in which good order may be preserved.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 62.

As a general rule, corporal punishment should be resorted to only after milder measures have been fairly tried without success. Teachers are to return in their monthly reports the names of pupils who have received corporal punishment, and their offences.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 19.

Those teachers who are most successful in controlling pupils without corporal punishment, other qualifications being equal, shall be awarded by the board a higher degree of appreciation, and retain the preference in promotions and appointments.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Corporal punishment shall be avoided, except in extreme cases, and all cases recorded.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 23.

Teachers must preserve good order, without corporal punishment.—*Syracuse, N. Y.*, 1867.

If punishment *must* be administered, let it be done deliberately, seriously, and *effectively*, but at the same time *prudently*.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 28.

Teachers are to maintain a kind and faithful discipline, avoiding harsh punishments and provoking and improper language.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 13.

CALLS.

Pupils must not, during school hours, answer calls of any person at the door except of parents or guardians, or in other cases deemed by the teacher of urgent importance.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 10.

Pupils may not answer any calls at the door, except of parents and guardians.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 17.

CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.

No pupil affected with an infectious or contagious disease, or directly exposed to the same, shall be allowed to attend any public school.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 119.

No pupil affected with any contagious disease shall be allowed to remain in any public school.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 26.

No pupil affected with, or coming from a family where a contagious disease prevails, shall be allowed to remain in any public school.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 74.

In case of the refusal or neglect of parents to withdraw children who may be liable to communicate contagious disease, the principal may suspend them temporarily.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 10.

A pupil may be suspended so long as is necessary who would endanger the health of others.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 24.

DAMAGE TO SCHOOL PROPERTY.

Any pupil who cuts or otherwise injures a public school-house, fences, trees, or outbuilding, or writes any profane or obscene language, or makes any obscene picture or characters of any kind on any public school premises, shall be liable to suspension, expulsion, or other punishment. The teacher shall immediately notify the parent or guardian and the superintendent.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 175.

Scholars shall pay in full for all damage; if not paid, the secretary of the board shall proceed according to law.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 65.

Cutting, defacing, or injuring school property is an offence against good morals.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 75.

In default of full payment for all damage to school property a pupil may be suspended, to be readmitted only by permission of the board.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865, *p.* 31.

If any pupil wilfully or carelessly destroys or injures books or property of the schools, the parent or guardian shall be called upon to pay within two weeks, and if it is not done the delinquent pupil may be dismissed by the supervisory committee.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

The secretary shall direct prosecution for any injuries done to school property, either by pupils or others.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862, *p.* 94.

Every person who accidentally or otherwise injures school property, whether fences, gates, trees, or shrubs, or any building or part thereof, shall be liable to pay in full for all the damage done.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 38.

Pupils are required to pay all damages to buildings or furniture, and may be suspended in case of refusal.—*Syracuse, N. Y.*, 1867.

DEADLY WEAPONS.

Any pupil of the common schools bearing arms during school hours shall be at once expelled from the school.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 146.

Carrying deadly weapons subjects the student to a forfeiture of the weapons, and is a flagrant offence against good morals.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 75.

Any scholar carrying fire-arms or other deadly weapons shall be suspended and reported to the board.—*Springfield, Ill.*, *p.* 63.

DETENTION OUT OF SCHOOL HOURS.

Pupils detained at recess may go out after it.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 168.

Any pupil may be detained twenty minutes to make up a deficient lesson, or for discipline.—*Hartford, Conn.*, 1866.

A pupil may be detained except at noon, but not more than two hours at one time.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 89.

Pupils who have neglected their lessons, or disobeyed, may be detained after school to study or recite their lessons, or as a punishment.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 78.

Pupils deficient in their lessons, disorderly, or tardy, (unless excused,) may be detained, not to exceed one hour, after the dismission in the afternoon. No such detention can take place at noon, or at any recess.—*Newark, N. J*, 1864.

Teachers may detain pupils half an hour at noon and an hour at the close of the afternoon session for discipline, or to make up neglected lessons.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 9.

Pupils who have been absent, or who from any cause have failed to prepare their lessons satisfactorily, may be required to recite them after school.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Teachers are authorized to detain pupils beyond regular school hours for discipline, or additional instruction.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 23.

DIPLOMAS.

The secretary shall provide the diplomas awarded to successful candidates in the high school.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 26.

Scholars who successfully complete the English or classical course in the high school, and have a good moral character, shall be entitled to a diploma.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 25.

Every scholar who completes with credit the prescribed course in the high school, and has sustained a good moral character, shall have a diploma from the board.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

Diplomas are conferred upon students who complete either of the prescribed courses of study in the high school.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865, *p.* 24.

Pupils who satisfactorily complete the prescribed English or classical course shall be entitled to a diploma.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 14.

Pupils receive diplomas in the high school.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.

Diplomas are given in the high school.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 18.

DISMISSION BEFORE THE CLOSE OF SCHOOL.

Any pupil wishing to be dismissed before the close of the session must assign a satisfactory reason therefor, and obtain the consent of the teacher.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 39.

Pupils in the younger classes in summer may be dismissed during school hours, not less than an hour nor more than an hour and a half, each day; and in the winter not less than half an hour nor more than an hour. Pupils over nine years of age are dismissed only at the discretion of the teacher. Pupils of any classes in the primary divisions may be dismissed at the request of parents, after the forenoon and afternoon recesses, provided the dismission does not interfere with any school exercise.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 179.

The card and primer classes and in the first reader whose average age is less than eight years may be dismissed at recess morning and afternoon, provided no pupil shall be dismissed against the wishes of his parents. In the higher classes, requests from parents for the dismission of children are to be discouraged as much as possible, and none are to be dismissed before the close of the school without such request.—*Cleveland, O.*, 1866, *p.* 118.

No pupil can leave school before the regular hour of closing without the permission of the teacher.—*Columbus, O.*, 1848, *p.* 16.

No cause but sickness, or something of which the teacher shall judge the necessity, shall be sufficient to allow a pupil to be excused.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 64.

Pupils are not to leave school before its close for any cause except sickness, or some pressing emergency.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866, *p.* 7.

DISCIPLINE.

Teachers are enjoined to govern by persuasion and gentle measures as far as possible.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

All teachers should aim at such discipline in the schools as would be exercised by a kind and judicious parent in his family.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 32.

It is enjoined on instructors to exercise vigilant, prudent, and firm discipline, and to govern by persuasion and gentle measures as far as possible.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 14.

Reproof of wrong-doing in private, if possible; restraint or chastisement are proper.—*Columbus, Ohio*, 1848.

Teachers shall, as far as practicable, govern pupils by the moral influence of kindness and by appeals to the nobler principles of their nature.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

The discipline must be firm, vigilant, and prudent.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867.

Teachers must not resort to confinement in a closet or wardrobe, or any cruel or unusual punishment, as a mode of discipline.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 86.

Teachers shall exercise vigilance and care over the general conduct of scholars and encourage them in correct manners, habits, and principles.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 74.

Firm, prudent, and vigilant discipline, using corporal punishment as sparingly as may be consistent with good order, governing by mild measures, if possible.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1866, *p.* 14.

Such discipline as a kind and judicious parent would exercise, avoiding corporal punishment where order can be maintained without it.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 19.

Private admonitions, appeals to conscience, public reproof, monthly reports, suspension and detention at recess and for a reasonable time after school, and, as a final resort, the use of the rod, may be employed to secure good order.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 62.

All teachers are required to maintain strict order and discipline in schools and class-rooms at all times. They may employ any means which are proper, and which they deem necessary to maintain order; but all will be held to a strict accountability as to the manner in which they use the authority thus given.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Teachers are expected to exercise prudence, firmness, mildness, and uniformity in administering discipline.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 28.

Mild and conciliatory discipline is enjoined, and the avoiding of corporal punishment, as far as may be, with a due regard to the necessity of obedience.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 104.

DRAWING.

In the course of instruction the following cities include drawing, linear and perspective: Albany, N. Y., 1867; Boston, Mass., 1867; Cambridge, Mass., 1866; Chicago, Ill., 1866; Cincinnati, O., 1867; Cleveland, O., 1866; Indianapolis, Ind., 1867; Madison, Wis., 1867; New York, N. Y., 1867; Niles, Mich., 1865; Norwich, Conn., 1867; Oswego, N. Y., 1862; Philadelphia, Pa., 1867; Portland, Me., 1867; Providence, R. I., 1863; Salem, Mass., 1866; Springfield, Ill., 1867; St. Louis, Mo., 1867; Syracuse, N. Y., 1867; Troy, N. Y., 1866.

DISTURBANCE OF SCHOOL BY PARENTS.

Parents are requested not to embarrass teachers by stating grievances at the school-room, or in the presence of pupils.—*Columbus, Ohio*, 1848.

No parent or guardian will be suffered to make complaint in presence of the school.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866.

If a teacher is interfered with or reproved by parents or guardians, in the school-house or elsewhere, in the presence of his or her pupils, the children of such parents or guardians may be expelled.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867.

Any person convicted of wilfully interrupting or disturbing any public or private school, either within or without the place where such school is held, shall be imprisoned not exceeding one year, or fined not exceeding five hundred dollars.—*Law of Rhode Island.*

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

Conducted by the special committee, and none but the members of the board and superintendent to be present.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

The committee for examining a candidate for the mastership of a grammar school consists of the district committee and of the two wards numerically nearest. They examine all written evidence presented, have personal interviews with applicants, and carefully examine the candidates at a meeting for the purpose; report at a meeting of the board, designating two or three of the candidates whose examination was most satisfactory, and the board then proceed to ballot. The committees on the English high, the Latin, and the girls' high and normal schools constitute the committee of examination for those schools.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 24.

The committee and superintendent examine teachers and keep a record of qualifications for practical teaching as well as of scholarship.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 7.

No person shall be appointed a principal or assistant in any public school without a previous examination by the committee on teachers, with the city superintendent.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

Two examinations annually and four classes of certificates given.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867, *p.* 326.

Committee examine, make appointments on trial, subject to approval of the general committee, examine the list of teachers employed and report names of those who ought to be re-elected, give notice of a month to unsuccessful teachers that they will not be nominated for re-election.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *pp.* 27, 28.

The superintendent is *ex officio* chairman of the committee on the examination of teachers. No teacher shall be promoted from one school to another of higher grade without the approbation of the examining committee within one year.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867.

ELECTION OF TEACHERS.

Elected annually by seven ballots or more; holding office for a year unless removed.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

A teacher, except a master, must have three months' trial before he can be elected.—*Boston. Mass.*, 1866.

Teachers are elected on the Friday succeeding the close of the summer term.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865, *p.* 12.

Elected annually in July by the board.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 114.

Elected in July or the first week in August.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 15.

Elected annually in January for a year.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

Elected annually in February or March.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p* 6.

Elected by ballot before the first of September annually.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 14.

Elected by the board for one year.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

Teachers may be appointed by the superintendent and trustees for a term or for the school year.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

Evening or night schools in elementary branches for pupils over fifteen years of age, and in several cities, under special conditions to be determined by the school board, for pupils under fifteen, are provided as a part of the system of public instruction in Chicago, Brooklyn, Lowell, Newark, New Orleans, New York, Providence, Salem, San Francisco, and St. Louis.

They may be kept, commencing at half-past seven and closing at nine; no pupil under fifteen years of age to attend.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 32.

Evening schools are provided for in such places as the board may designate, commencing on the first Monday in October and continuing eighteen weeks. The schools are to commence their sessions at seven o'clock and close at half-past nine, the doors being opened at twenty minutes before seven. None are to be admitted except those who cannot attend day schools, nor without being accompanied by some responsible person, or presenting a certificate attesting identity and respectability. Males not less than fourteen, and females not less than twelve. No corporal punishment to be inflicted.—*New York, N. Y.*, 1867.

They may be opened and continued four months from the middle of October, beginning at seven and closing at nine o'clock.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

EVENING HIGH SCHOOL.

An evening high school is established, commencing on the first Monday in October and continuing twenty-four weeks. In this school are taught grammar, reading, declamation, penmanship, arithmetic, book-keeping, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, natural philosophy, chemistry, astronomy, history, and political science.—*New York, N. Y.*, 1867.

ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOLS.

The following are the studies in several English high schools, or courses in the English department:

Ancient Geography, Worcester's General History, Sherwin's Algebra, French, Drawing. Geometry, Book-keeping, Rhetoric, Constitution of the United States, Trigonometry, Surveying, Navigation, Mensuration, Astronomy, Paley's Evidence of Christianity, Natural Philosophy, Moral Philosophy, Political Economy, Natural Theology, English Literature, Spanish Language, Physical Geography, Logic, Geology, Chemistry, Mechanics, Engineering. English Composition and Declamation.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Book-keeping, Algebra, Latin, English History, Natural Philosophy, Geometry, Chemistry, English Classics, Drawing, French, Rhetoric, Political History of the United States, Ancient History, Astronomy, and Modern History.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865, *p.* 26.

Algebra, Zoölogy, History, Geometry, Botany, English Grammar, Natural Philosophy, Arithmetic, Physical Geography, Rhetoric, Chemistry, Physiology, Astronomy.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 26.

A three years' course, embracing Arithmetic, Algebra, Grammar, Physical Geography, General History, Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Geometry, Astronomy, and Rhetoric.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p* 31.

Higher Algebra, Physical Geography, Higher Arithmetic, History, (Outlines,) Physiology and Hygiene, Geometry, Natural Philosophy, Rhetoric, Constitution of the United States, Mental Philosophy, Astronomy, Geology, Botany, Ancient History, and Moral Philosophy.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 18.

Arithmetic, Book-keeping, Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry, Surveying, Navigation, English Language and Literature, Declamation, Spelling, Defining, and Composition.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865.

A three years' course: Geometry, History of English Literature, French, Declamation,

Composition, Drawing, Vocal Music, Natural Philosophy, Constitution of the United States, Rhetoric, Chemistry, Mechanical Drawing, Astronomy, Trigonometry, Intellectual Philosophy, Surveying, Book-keeping. In the girls' department is nearly the same, but with Latin, Algebra, Physiology, General History, Botany, Trench on the Study of Words, Reading, Spelling, and Composition, through the course.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

EXCLUSION.

For violent or pointed opposition to authority, a principal may exclude a pupil for the time being; must then inform the parent and ask advice of the district committee.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 33.

For violent or obstinate opposition to authority, the instructor may exclude from school a pupil for the time being; if he shows proof of amendment, he may be restored.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 15.

A teacher may exclude a pupil for violent or pointed opposition to authority, for the time being.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 13.

EXPULSION.

A pupil may be expelled for certain bad conduct, and notice must be sent by the principal to the superintendent, who notifies the other principals.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

A pupil may be expelled, with the approval of the board, for certain offences.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 175.

For open disobedience, a pupil may be expelled at once.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 118.

A pupil bearing fire-arms during school hours may at once be expelled from the school.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 146.

If a pupil's conduct is found injurious to associates, the principal, with the advice of the trustees, may expel him.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 89.

When a pupil's example is injurious, and he shows a determined neglect of good order, and his reformation is hopeless, the board may expel him.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

When a scholar's example is bad, and his reformation seems hopeless, the principal shall notify the committee on schools, who may expel him.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 11.

After expulsion, a scholar shall not be admitted to any other school without the consent of the general committee.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 29.

Pupils who are absent from any examination of the school without satisfactory reason, shall not return to any school without permission of the superintendent.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 96.

EXHIBITIONS.

There are annual exhibitions of the several grammar schools, and of the English and Latin high schools, at which medals and diplomas are conferred.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 40.

There shall be no public exhibitions or concerts by the pupils of schools without permission of the board, except the public reception immediately prior to the several vacations, by consent of the local committee.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

No school shall hold any exhibition during the school term, except the regular monthly exhibitions, and those only in the public school buildings.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 87.

No exhibition shall be allowed except for the promotion of proper school purposes.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 10.

Teachers and pupils of the high and grammar schools may give two exhibitions in each year, in singing, declamation, and dialogues, all preparations for them being made out of school hours, and the programme being previously approved by the president and superintendent.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

Annual exhibitions or school exercises will be very appropriately held within the week preceding the Christmas holidays.—*Philadelphia, Penn.*, 1867, *p.* 340.

No exhibitions of any kind without permission of the committee.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 10.

EXAMINATIONS OF SCHOOLS.

The district committees examine the grammar schools, and the sub-committees the primary schools, quarterly, and report to the board. The committees of the Latin school, the English high school, and of the girls' high and normal school, and each district committee, must make a thorough examination of their schools during the month of July, and report at the quarterly meeting of the board in September.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 21.

There is a general public examination, under the charge of the board, in the last week of the spring term of each year, and at such other times as the board may direct.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 27.

There are annual public examinations of all the schools by the board, and special examinations whenever the superintendent deems it expedient.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 73.

There is a public examination of all the schools in June, by the board.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 87.

Every school is publicly examined at the end of the second and fourth terms, that of the grammar and high schools occupying one day, conducted by sub-committees, and confined to a general review of the studies pursued.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 24.

There are quarterly examinations of the primary and intermediate schools on the afternoon of the last Thursday in each term; of the grammar schools on the forenoon of the last Friday, and of the high school on the afternoon of the last Wednesday in each term.—*Providence, R. I.*—1863, *p.* 30.

There is a public examination of the schools at the close of each school year, and an examination of the classes of the high school whenever they complete a study.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 66.

EXCUSES.

Teachers may require written excuses from parents or guardians of pupils who are absent or tardy.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 176.

The only excuse to be accepted by a teacher shall be for sickness or some urgent cause.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 118.

No mere statement that the parent or guardian has kept the pupil at home shall be accepted by the teacher as an excuse for absence. The teacher may require a written excuse, and send the delinquent immediately for such excuse, except when the weather would cause exposure to health.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 24.

A written excuse from the parent is required for absence of a pupil.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 89.

Every absentee returning must bring a written excuse from parent or guardian.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

No excuse or request, save in case of sickness or of some sudden necessity, may be entertained by a teacher, unless made by a parent or guardian.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

FESTIVALS.

In the afternoon of the day of the annual exhibitions of the grammar schools the annual school festival shall be held.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 40.

FUEL.

A committee report to the board the fuel required, and purchase and distribute it; and the superintendent of buildings reports annually the amount consumed in each house.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 128.

The messenger purchases and attends to the storing, cutting, distributing, and consumption of fuel.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866.

Teachers must give special attention to economy in the use of fuel, and take measures to prevent the janitors from wasting coal.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

The superintendent purchases all necessary fuel by authority of the executive committee.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 37.

FIRES.

During the season of fires the principal shall examine, or cause to be examined, all parts of the building, including the cellars and unoccupied rooms, at least once during each session.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

It is expected that the teachers, and particularly the principals, will give special attention during the season of fires, to economy in the use of fuel, and take every precaution to save the buildings from exposure to fire.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 30.

It is expected that the principals will superintend the making of the fires in the cold season.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 72.

To be built by the janitor, so as to have the rooms warm thirty minutes before the opening of school.—*Syracuse, N. Y.*, 1867.

GROUNDS.

The masters shall prescribe rules for the use of the yards, and are responsible for any want of cleanliness.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 167.

The committee on buildings examine and report on the condition of the grounds in June, every year.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 127.

Teachers are responsible for want of cleanliness about the houses.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862, *p.* 94.

Teachers must see to the safety of fences, trees, shrubbery, and other school property.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 89.

The bailiff has a general charge to protect the real estate from trespass or injury. The principals have supervision of the grounds, buildings, and appurtenances.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

GOVERNMENT.

The general government of the schools is committed to the principals. The assistants shall respect them and obey them in all matters relating to the government, instruction, and management of the schools.—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

The objects of government are, first, to secure regularity, punctuality, and quiet and good order; second, diligence in study and the formation of proper habits; third, to accustom pupils to a prompt and cheerful obedience to law.—*Columbus, Ohio*, 1848.

The principal teacher of the upper department of each school shall be deemed the head of the school for all purposes of discipline, classification, and regulation of studies.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 32.

Good government is the development of an indwelling principle, not the result of outward restraint; and that system of school government is desirable in which good conduct results from a well-regulated conscience.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865, *p.* 26.

Success in governing a school wisely and well is of paramount importance, and ranks above long years of experience and high attainments.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 28.

The objects of government in school are, first, to secure order and correct behavior; second, punctuality and regularity; third, to aid in forming good habits in regard to prompt obedience to proper authority; fourth, to cultivate the heart and manners.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 28.

GYMNASTICS.

There are some gymnastic exercises every half day in each school.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 36.

Teachers in each room of the intermediate and district schools shall give a lesson in gymnastics or calisthenics at every session, of not less than five nor more than ten minutes.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 150.

There are regular exercises in gymnastics.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

In severe cold weather the children may be employed, while the room is being ventilated, in marching, gymnastics, or other physical exercises. Five minutes in each session shall be devoted to gymnastics in all the schools.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 19.

Gymnastics shall form a part of the exercises of every session.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

Gymnastics shall be regularly taught and practiced in all the schools.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

General exercises in gymnastics are conducted by a graduate of Dr. Lewis's school.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

GIFTS TO OR FROM PUPILS.

No teacher shall permit collections of money from pupils for presentations, gifts, or for any other purpose, without the consent of the school committee.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 25.

No teacher shall award any medals or prizes without special authority from the board.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 171.

No teacher may receive any present or gift from any of his classes, nor shall any contribution be permitted for that purpose.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 35.

Teachers shall not award medals or other prizes to their pupils.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

No teacher shall accept a present from pupils in the public schools.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 62.

Teachers shall not receive presents of money or other valuables from pupils.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Teachers shall not present any premiums or gifts to any scholar at the public distributions.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 108.

GRADES.

Primary and grammar schools, with an English high school, Latin high school, and girls' high and normal school; also between the primary and grammar schools special schools.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Primary schools with six grades, numbered one, two, &c., grammar schools with six grades also, and supplementary schools.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

Ten grades, numbered first, second, &c., up to the high school, with an English and classical department, and a normal department.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

Primary, secondary, grammar, intermediate, and high.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 55.

Primary, intermediate, grammar, and high schools.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867.

Ten grades in the primary, three in the intermediate, and three in the grammar departments; also a female high school.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

The schools are, "ungraded, partially graded, primary, middle, intermediate, grammar, and high schools."—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865.

Intermediate with a two years' course, and grammar schools with a two years' course; a high school with an English and classical department and a three years' course.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865.

Primary schools, five grades; intermediate schools, five grades; grammar schools, eight grades and four years; and a boys' and a girls' department in the high school.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

Primary, grammar, and high schools, the latter having three co-ordinate departments, viz: English for males and for females, and a classical department.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 17.

GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

There are separate intermediate and grammar schools for girls.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

GRAMMAR SCHOOLS, WHAT BRANCHES.

Spelling, Etymology, Reading, Writing, Composition, Grammar, Geography, Natural Philosophy, Arithmetic, Algebra, Mensuration, Music.—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

Spelling, Writing, Reading, Drawing, Mental and Written Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, Map Drawing, Composition, Declamation, History of the United States, Book-keeping by single entry, Worcester's History, Natural Philosophy, Physical Geography, and Physiology.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Reading, Spelling, Rules of Spelling, Abbreviations, Punctuation, Penmanship, Drawing, Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, History of the United States, Composition, Algebra, Astronomy, Bookkeeping, Physiology.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

Reading, Spelling, Geography, Mental and Written Arithmetic, Object Lessons, Grammar, History of the United States, Physiology and Hygiene, Declamation, Penmanship, Drawing Maps and Sketches, Music, Physical Culture, Moral Instruction.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866.

Reading, Mental and Written Arithmetic, Grammar and Analysis, Geography, Elementary Algebra, History of the United States.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867.

In addition to the studies of the primary schools, Penmanship, Drawing, Vocal Music, Grammar, History, Natural Philosophy, Composition, and Declamation.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

Reading. Spelling, Defining, Mental and Written Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, Singing, Physical Exercises, and Map Drawing.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866.

The grammar schools are for such children between six and sixteen years of age as reside in the local districts. There are four departments, and studies from those of primary schools to Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History of the United States, Elocution, and Composition.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867.

Reading, Spelling, Penmanship, Intellectual and Written Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History, Elements of Algebra.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867.

GERMAN SCHOOLS.

The German language is taught in the district schools.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

Departments in most of the schools are formed for teaching the German language.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

Provision is made for teaching the German language in several of the schools; limited to six schools.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

German may be taught in the primary schools only by way of interpretation; but no teacher shall be employed who is not fully competent to give instruction in English.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

A department in German is had under a special teacher in the ward grammar schools.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 13.

HIGH SCHOOLS.

There are three courses; first, the complete course of English study; second, the shorter course; and third, the classical course.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865.

Candidates must be twelve years of age, and the term of attendance in the classical or English department four years.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866.

Candidate for admission must be twelve years of age, of good moral character, and pass a satisfactory examination in Reading, Orthography, Penmanship, Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, and the History of the United States.—*Hartford, Conn*, 1866.

Candidates undergo a strict examination in the grammar school studies for admission, and any one completing the four years' course in all respects satisfactory receives a diploma.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1867.

There are the Brown High school, with an English and classical department, and the Female High school, each of which has a course of four years.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866.

In addition to the studies prescribed for the Grammar schools the elements of Chemistry, Physiology, Astronomy, Algebra, Book-keeping, Geometry, Moral Philosophy, Drawing, and other branches of useful knowledge, including Latin, Greek, German, and French languages and higher Mathematics, are studied.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

For admission to the girls' high school candidates are examined in Punctuation, Orthography, Definitions, Grammar, Parsing, History, and Constitution of the United States, Arithmetic and Mensuration. The course is not less than three years. There is no limitation with regard to age. The central high school for boys has a course of four years, and confers the degree of A.M. upon its successful graduates.—*Philadelphia, Penn.*, 1867.

Both sexes taught in the higher Mathematics, Natural History, General History, Languages, and Philosophy. There are three departments: English for males and for females, and classical.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866.

A course of four years, the branches taught being the higher Mathematics, History, Natural Sciences, Languages, (Latin, German, and French,) English Literature, Moral Science, Astronomy, and Political Economy.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 19.

HOLIDAYS.

Christmas, New Year's, the 22d of February Good-Friday, May Day, Thanksgiving Day, Artillery Election, and the Fourth of July.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

New Year's Day, the Twenty-second of February, Fast Day and the two following days, Anniversary Week in May, the Seventeenth of June, the Fourth of July and the Fifth, Thanksgiving Week and Christmas Day; and the high school has the days of public exhibition at Harvard College.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865.

The Fourth of July, Thanksgiving and the following Friday, and the Twenty-second of February.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

Christmas Week to New Year's Day inclusive, the Twenty-second of February, and all Fast and Thanksgiving days.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

National and State Fast and Thanksgiving Days and Christmas Week.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 55.

All Thanksgiving and Fast Days appointed by the State or General government and the Fourth of July.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867.

All the National and State Holidays.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867.

The Twenty-second of February, Good Friday, the Fourth of July, and National and State Fast and Thanksgiving Days.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867.

Thanksgiving, Christmas, New Year's, and the days between Christmas and New Year's, public Fasts, and the Fourth of July and Twenty-second of February.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 96.

The Twenty-second of February, Good Friday, Easter Monday, the Fourth of July, Thanksgiving Day and the day following.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

INSTITUTES.

Rule nearly the same as that of Indianapolis. Absence is considered the same as absence from school.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 157.

Teachers must meet on the first Saturday afternoon of each month for mutual improvement. The principal of the high school and the principals of the union schools, with the superintendent, constitute a committee to prepare a programme of exercises.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 32.

All the teachers are to meet on the afternoon of each third Saturday in the month to hold an institute for improvement in teaching, under the direction of the board of trustees. The superintendent is to report cases of absence, tardiness, or leaving before the close of the institute.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 71.

Held under the direction of the superintendent on the first Saturday of each school year, and the second Saturday of each month afterwards, beginning at nine a. m. and continuing three hours. Members are required to be present, and to perform the duty assigned them, having two weeks' previous notice.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

Teachers are required to attend the County Teachers' Association, and contribute their share to make them useful.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 17.

INDIGENT CHILDREN—HOW SUPPLIED WITH BOOKS, ETC.

The committee on accounts furnish books; the names are returned to the secretary of the board of pupils receiving books, of the books received, and of the parents and guardians whose children are furnished at the expense of the city.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Books are supplied from the Mosely and from the Jones and Newbury funds; they are simply loaned to pupils.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

No pupil shall be excluded from school for want of books.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867.

Primary industrial schools may be established for poor and destitute children of both sexes.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

Books are loaned to indigent children.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

The superintendent purchases and distributes books; the teachers are to take care of them, keep a record of them, and see that they are returned.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

Books may be obtained of the treasurer, to be returned on leaving the school.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

Books are furnished at the expense of the city for indigent children.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 20.

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

All between the primary and high school.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

Two divisions between primary and grammar.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866.

Between the grammar and high schools, having the 14th, 15th, and 16th classes in the course.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 45.

Two years between the primary and grammar.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 44.

Between the secondary and grammar schools.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866, *p.* 4.

Next above primary and below the grammar.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866.

Two years between primary and grammar.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 97.

INDEX TO RULES.

Brooklyn, N. Y., none; Boston, Mass., has one; Cambridge, Mass., has one; Chicago, Ill., none; Cincinnati, O., has one; Cleveland, O., none; Detroit, Mich., has one; Fort Wayne, Ind., none; Indianapolis, Ind., none; Kingston, N. Y., none; Louisville, Ky., none; Lowell, Mass., has one; Manchester, N. H., none; Madison, Wis., none; Milwaukee, Wis., none; New Haven, Conn., has one; New Orleans, La., none; Newburyport, Mass., none; Newport, R. I., none; Niles, Mich., none; Oswego, N. Y., none; Philadelphia, Pa , none; Providence, R. I., has one; Rutland, Vt., none; Springfield, Mass., 1867, has a table of contents only; Springfield, Ill., none; Troy, N. Y., has one; Washington, D. C., none; Worcester, Mas., 1867, has one.

JANITORS—THEIR APPOINTMENT AND DUTIES.

The building and supply agent contracts with the janitors, and the master of each school must see that the work of keeping rooms and premises clean is properly done.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 168.

The principal shall have power to employ a janitor, acceptable to the trustees, subject to the direction of the principal in term time, and in the vacations to the superintendent of buildings.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 137.

Appointed by the committee on school-houses; must keep the buildings in neat and convenient order, and kindle fires seasonably; but in the union and high schools janitors are subject to the authority of the principals during term time.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1867, *p.* 19.

The porters (janitors) are appointed by the committee on school-houses to take good care of the buildings and premises. They are to be present during school hours for the purpose of receiving and delivering messages concerning the business of the schools, and do whatever may be required about the school-houses to which they are appointed; provided, they shall perform no service of a merely personal kind for pupils or teachers.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 24.

LEAVING SCHOOL.

Scholars shall not remain about the school premises after dismissal.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 119.

Pupils shall at once leave the premises after the close of the school.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 13.

Scholars shall not assemble about the school building exceeding thirty minutes before school, and no scholars must ever remain about the building after the school is dismissed.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 78.

Pupils must return directly to their homes after dismissal.—*New Orleans. La.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

When pupils are dismissed at the close of each session they shall pass quietly and promptly from the school premises to their homes, or to such place as their parents or guardians have directed.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 11.

All collections of pupils about the schools or in the street near them, for playing after school closes, are strictly prohibited.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867, *p.* 19.

Pupils are to quit the neighborhood of the schoolroom in a quiet and orderly manner, immediately on being dismissed.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 109.

LIBRARIES

A large public library is free to all, but not under the control of the school board.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

A large public library is under the care of the school board.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

A district library must be established according to law. The committee on the library purchase the books under the direction of the board.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1867.

There is a public school library, free to teachers and supernumeraries of the schools and certain specified classes of persons; but minors of either sex pay three dollars annually for its privileges; adults, ladies pay four dollars and gentlemen five dollars.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 25.

The library contains over fifteen hundred volumes, accessible to scholars, in a room at the high school.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867.

The high school library has nearly 1,000 volumes; any pupil becomes a member by paying fifty cents and a monthly due of twenty-five cents.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

LESSONS OUT OF SCHOOL.

No lessons shall be assigned to girls to be studied out of school; boys shall have no longer lesson than a boy of good capacity can learn in an hour's study.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 51.

Certain lessons may be given to be studied out of school, but not such as would require more than two hours' study by a child of average capacity.—*New York, N. Y.*, 1867.

No more than two lessons at any one time shall be given to pupils of grammar or secondary schools to be studied at home; from secondary pupils, no more than one hour of home study shall ever be required, and none from primary pupils.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867, *p.* 337.

Pupils are expected to occupy as much time in study out of school hours as may be consistent with family arrangements at home.—*Sandusky, Ohio*, 1860.

The teachers of all the schools shall assign one or more lessons to be studied by the pupils daily out of school.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 108.

LORD'S PRAYER.

In the opening of the schools the Lord's Prayer, in connection with the reading of the Scriptures, is to be repeated by the teacher alone.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 30.

With other morning exercises the Lord's Prayer is to be repeated by the pupils.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865, *p.* 18.

Repeating the Lord's Prayer is one of the morning exercises.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 165.

The reading of the Scriptures may be followed by the Lord's Prayer and singing.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 34.

The Lord's Prayer and the Commandments shall be taught in all the primary and middle schools.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

Whenever religious services take place in school the Lord's Prayer is recommended as a part thereof.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

The Lord's Prayer and Ten Commandments, without comment, shall be recited as a regular exercise once a fortnight.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

It is recommended that one of the opening exercises be repeating the Lord's Prayer by the pupils in unison.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 9.

MANNERS.

Teachers are to give all possible attention to the manners of their scholars.—*Columbus, Ohio*, 1848, *p.* 14.

Teachers are to inculcate the importance of correct manners.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 116.

Teachers are to use all suitable means to promote good manners among pupils.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 14.

Teachers are on all suitable occasions to encourage their pupils in correct manners.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

Propriety of deportment is expected of pupils, being respectful to teachers and kind and obliging to schoolmates.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 77.

Teachers shall constantly endeavor to form their pupils to principles and habits of courtesy and kindness.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 15.

Teachers are to regard the social culture of their pupils, and shall endeavor to form them to habits of social refinement.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 61.

Teachers must strive, by precept and example, to impress the importance of improvement in manners and deportment, as well as learning.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 12.

MORALS.

Good morals being of the first importance to the pupils, and essential to their highest progress in useful knowledge, instruction therein shall be daily given in each of the schools.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 30.

Teachers are particularly to regard the moral, social, and physical culture of their pupils.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 58.

Teachers are to impress the importance for continued effort for improvement in morals and manners, as well as useful learning.—*Fond Du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 37.

Teachers must use all suitable means to promote good morals.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 14.

All teachers are to use every suitable influence to lead their pupils to form correct moral habits.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865, *p.* 29.

Teachers shall constantly endeavor, by precept and example and training, to form their pupils to habits of uprightness, truth, and the love and practice of every virtue.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 15.

On all suitable occasions teachers are to inculcate principles of truth and virtue.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 18.

Teachers must endeavor to impress on the minds of their pupils principles of morality and virtue, a sacred regard for truth, love to God, love to man, sobriety, industry, and frugality.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

MEDALS.

The district committee determine which scholars shall receive medals, and present them. They are provided for all the schools. Teachers must not present medals. All medal scholars are invited, for the year in which they receive them, to the annual exhibition.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Medals or scholarships are given to meritorious scholars, but no scholar shall receive both.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 171.

The Carney medals are distributed each year by the board to the three male and three female members of the senior class of the high school who are most distinguished for excellence of character and scholarship, and who are residents of the city.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 30.

Teachers shall not award medals or other prizes to pupils under their charge.—*Rutland, Vt.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

The Andrews medal is given to pupils of the senior class in the high school who distinguish themselves during their course.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866.

Not less than thirteen nor more than twenty medals may be given to pupils in the high school, being provided from the income of $1,000 given for the purpose in 1859 by Hon. A. H. Bullock, then mayor of the city.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

MEETINGS OF TEACHERS.

The superintendent may hold occasional meetings with the teachers; those of the primary teachers not exceeding half a day in each quarter, and those with the grammar teachers not exceeding half a day in each half year.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 27.

The teachers of the high school shall meet once a week for consultation in regard to the interests of the school.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 166.

Teachers must attend all meetings called by the superintendent, or give a satisfactory reason for absence.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 117.

The teachers are to meet for educational improvement each alternate week.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 57.

Teachers are to attend promptly all meetings of teachers called by the superintendent.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 7.

The superintendent meets the teachers once a week to instruct them in the theory and practice of teaching.—*Madison, Wis*, 1867, *p.* 20.

The superintendent shall call together the teachers at least once each term to interchange views on points of instruction and discipline. The teachers must attend regularly and punctually.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 33.

Regular meetings are held monthly, and continue in session three hours. The secretary of the meeting reports to the board the names of those who are tardy or absent.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 58.

All teachers shall meet on the second Saturday of each month, during the sessions of the schools, at 10 o'clock a. m., for discussing matters relating to the interests of the schools. The days of meeting are regarded as school days, and absence from them counted as half a day's absence from school.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

MONITORS.

Teachers must not rely upon the aid of monitors to preserve order in the halls, except in cases of special necessity.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 170.

There shall be no monitors, nor shall any pupil hear recitations of other pupils.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866, *p*. 4.

MUSIC.

A committee on music has a general supervision over this department.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

The committee on music nominate teachers, make examinations of each grammar school in music at least once in six months, and report semi-annually to the board.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p*. 14.

Music shall be taught in the primary as well as the grammar and high schools.—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

There are four music teachers, at a salary not exceeding $1,800 each per annum.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p*. 143.

Vocal music is taught in the primary and grammar schools.—*New York, N. Y.*, 1867.

In addition to daily exercises in vocal music, lessons of one hour each week in the elements and science of music are given in each intermediate and grammar school, and in the high school.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p*. 40.

The high and normal schools have two lessons in vocal music a week, and the grammar schools one. The primary schools have two lessons of half an hour each per week.—*St Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

The committee on vocal music nominate to the board a suitable teacher and exercise a general supervision over that branch, reporting annually to the board.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p*. 103.

MODERN LANGUAGES.

Modern languages (French and German, or both) are included in the high-school course in Baltimore, Boston, Cambridge. Chicago, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Detroit, Dubuque, Fond du Lac, Hartford, Louisville, Madison, New Haven, New York, Niles, Oswego, Philadelphia, Providence, Rochester, San Francisco, Springfield, St. Louis, Terre Haute, and Worcester.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The girls' high and normal school was established in 1852, in which girls who desire to teach may be fitted for teaching.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p*. 58.

An institute called a normal institute, composed of teachers, is under the supervision of the school committee, who act with the advice of the superintendent. *Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p*. 132.

There shall be a department in the high school expressly for the qualification of teachers, which shall be styled the normal department.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p*. 40.

A department of the high school called the training school prepares teachers for the work of primary instruction —*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862, *p*. 46.

There are two, (held on Saturday,) one for white and one for colored teachers.—*New York, N. Y.*, 1867.

A normal school shall be maintained for the education of teachers, held four hours each Saturday during the terms of school.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

This is for the training of persons of both sexes who desire to become teachers in the St. Louis schools; all persons properly qualified, or who have graduated from the high school, and who are sixteen years of age, may be admitted on subscribing the conditions prescribed.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

NON-RESIDENT PUPILS.

They cannot be admitted without the consent of the board and paying a tuition fee.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

No child having only a temporary residence in the city can attend any public school.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p*. 173.

When there are vacant seats children of non-residents may be admitted by paying tuition in advance.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p*. 114.

They have no right to be admitted to any school, but when after a week of the term the school is not full they may be admitted to the primary and union schools by paying two dollars a term, and to the high school by paying five dollars a term.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1867, *p*. 33.

No pupil not a resident of the city shall be admitted into any public school.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p*. 37.

They cannot be admitted into the city schools till they have paid a tuition fee in advance.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p*. 65.

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN A SCHOOL.

The grammar schools shall contain, as nearly as practicable, an equal number of pupils, the maximum being fifty-six. In the English, high, and Latin schools thirty-five pupils are

allowed for one instructor; in the girls' high and normal school only thirty to each assistant teacher.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Each department of the grammar schools, excepting the principal's room, shall contain not more than sixty scholars.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

The average number in the grammar department shall be thirty to each teacher; in the intermediate, forty; in the primary, fifty.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

There shall be entered upon the school registers in the primary department sixty scholars to each teacher employed; in the grammar department, fifty scholars in the first, second, and third classes, and fifty-six in each of the other classes.—*San Francisco, Cal.*, 1861.

NUMBER OF STUDIES.

The number of studies taught each day shall not exceed two besides reading, writing, spelling, and the general exercises, unless by special permission of the superintendent.—*San Francisco, Cal.*, 1861.

OPENING SCHOOL-ROOMS.

Must be in the school-rooms twenty minutes before the hour of opening, from the first Monday in March to the first Monday in November, and the rest of the year, twenty-five minutes.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

Teachers are to be at their rooms fifteen minutes before school.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865.

From the first of March to the first of December, the rooms are to be open and teachers present ten minutes before the time to commence, and the rest of the year, fifteen.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

Teachers must be present fifteen minutes before school in the morning, and ten minutes in the afternoon.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866.

Teachers are expected to be at their rooms fifteen minutes, at least, before the time to commence the school, both morning and afternoon.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 33.

Teachers must be in the school-rooms fifteen minutes before the hour for commencing school in the forenoon, and ten minutes before in the afternoon; and in stormy weather teachers may admit pupils before the hour for school.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

Teachers must be present at least twenty-five minutes before opening in the morning, and fifteen in the afternoon, from November 1 to April 1, and fifteen before, both morning and afternoon, for the rest of the year.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862.

Any teacher who fails to open his room fifteen minutes before the school exercises are to commence, in the morning, and five minutes before, in the afternoon, is reported as tardy.—*St. Louis.*

OPENING EXERCISES.

The morning exercises shall commence in all the schools with reading a portion of the Scriptures by the teacher, to be followed by the Lord's Prayer by the teacher alone.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 30.

A portion of the Scriptures shall be read by one of the teachers without note or comment.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 24.

Commence with reading the Scriptures without note or comment, which may be followed by repeating the Lord's Prayer and singing.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 165.

Reading either from the Protestant or Douay version of the Bible, the Lord's Prayer or singing, the exercise being limited to eight minutes.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 56.

Reading the Scriptures without note or comment, and the Lord's Prayer and singing, may follow.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 34.

All the schools commence with reading the Scriptures, followed by the Lord's Prayer, or a short prayer by the teacher.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 13.

Reading the Scriptures without comment, and, at the discretion of the teacher, the invocations of the divine blessing and singing, the exercises not to exceed fifteen minutes.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

Teachers shall open their schools with reading from the Bible as a devotional exercise, or with prayer, at their option.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 34.

Reading some portion of the Bible by the teacher without note or oral comment; but no scholar shall be required to read from any particular version, whose parent or guardian expresses conscientious scruples against it.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 26.

Shall include reading some portion of the Bible without comment; but no pupil shall be compelled to read whose parent or guardian declares that they have conscientious scruples against it. Prayer by the teacher or the Lord's Prayer by the pupils is also recommended.—*Worcester.*

ONE SESSION A DAY.

The central high and female high schools have but one session daily, commencing at 9½ a. m. and closing at 2½ p. m.—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

The English high school shall hold one session a day, commencing at 9 a. m. and closing

at 2 p. m., except Saturday, when it shall close at 1 o'clock. The Latin grammar and the girls' high school have the same hours, except that the girls' high school closes at 1 p. m. both Wednesday and Saturday afternoon.—*Boston*, 1866.

No single session shall be allowed except in case of a violent storm, when the session of the morning may be prolonged to 1 o'clock.—*New Haven*, 1865, *p*. 7.

One session, from 9 a. m. to 2½ p. m.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p*. 17.

The female high school, between the May and August vacations, may hold one session a day, commencing at 8 a. m. and closing at 1 p. m.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p*. 9.

When necessary, by reason of bad weather, there may be one session of five hours.—*Philadelphia, Penn.*, 1867, *p*. 17.

In the high school from 8¼ a. m. to 1 o'clock p. m.—*Portland, Me.*, 1867.

The high school shall hold one session during the months of June and July from 8¼ a. m. to 1¼ p. m.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p*. 94.

PUNCTUALITY.

Teachers shall require scholars to be in their seats, so as to commence exercises punctually at the prescribed hours.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p*. 30.

Students of the high school are expected to set an example of punctuality.—*Detroit, Mich*, 1866, *p*. 29.

Pupils must be in their rooms before the hour for commencing school.—*Madison, Wis.* 1867, *p*. 23.

Strict punctuality shall be observed in opening the sessions of the school.—*Newport, R. I*, 1866, *p*. 7.

Teachers are carefully to impress upon pupils the importance of punctuality.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

The exercises shall commence precisely at the hour stated, and no time allowed for tardiness.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866, *p*. 9.

All pupils are required to be in their rooms before the time for the school to begin.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p*. 38.

PRIMARY SCHOOLS, BRANCHES TAUGHT.

Spelling, Defining Common Words, Reading, Writing, Geography, the Primary Rules of Arithmetic, Music.—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

There are six classes in the primary schools, beginning with the Primary Reader, the Boston Primary School Tablets and Slates, and going on with Spelling, Primary Arithmetic, Writing, Lessons on Objects, Singing and Physical Exercises.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Printing and Drawing on Slates, Reading, Oral Arithmetic and Geography, Phonetic Spelling and Elementary Sounds, Object Lessons, Physical Exercises, Singing, and Declamation.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p*. 107.

There are five grades or classes, and the studies end with Reading in Third Reader, Spelling and Defining, Writing and Drawing on Slates, and Written Arithmetic through Numeration and Notation.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p*. 44.

The primary department extends through three years, ending with Reading, Spelling, Sentence-making, Writing, Mental and Written Arithmetic, Primary Geography, Declamations and Recitations.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p*. 44.

Spelling, Reading, Printing and Writing on Slates, Oral Instruction, Arithmetic, and First Lessons in Geography.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867.

Alphabet, Spelling, Reading, Punctuation, Abbreviations, Numeral Letters, Multiplication Table, Mental Arithmetic, Primary Geography, orally and by maps, Singing, and General Exercises.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, p. 27.

Arithmetic, Object Instruction, Primary Geography, Morals, Manners, Singing, and Physical Exercises.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p*. 14.

There is a first and second primary department, taking children from the first lessons in counting and the use of tablets to Spelling, Reading, Intellectual and Written Arithmetic, Geography and Drawing, with Physical Exercises each half day.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865.

Counting words of two letters, forming letters on slate, drawing straight and curved lines, Physical Exercises, Singing, lessons by conversation on color, form, animals, &c., Mental Arithmetic orally, Reading, Spelling, &c.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

There are three grades, including Reading, Spelling, Mental Arithmetic, Singing, oral instruction in Geography, Physical Exercises, and thirty pages of the text-book are permitted.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866.

Alphabet, Articulation, Spelling, Reading, Abbreviations, Punctuation, Arithmetic and the Signs and Tables, Vocal Music, Writing, Drawing on the Slate and Blackboard.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p*. 105.

PRIZES.

(See *Medals.*)

PROMOTION.

The regular promotion to the grammar schools is semi-annually on the first Mondays in March and September.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 42.

The general examination for promotions shall be in the last month of the school year.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 147.

Pupils may be transferred from one department to another in the same house by the principal teacher, and transfers from detached schools to higher departments in union schools shall be made upon examination by the principal of such union school.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 29.

The promotions from one class or one grade to another are made at such times as the interest of the schools may require, after a satisfactory examination by the principal. When a pupil falls behind in his class he may be sent to a class below.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 77.

There are annual examinations of the ward schools in the month of June for promotions. The first grade shall be examined by the faculties of the male and female high schools respectively, the second grade by the teachers of the first grade, the third grade by the teachers of the second, and so on through all the grades, the pupils of the tenth grade being examined by the teachers of the ninth—all the examinations being under the direction of the principals.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 87.

All promotions are made at the close of a term, on examination. The superintendent may promote scholars for special merit when qualified.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 24.

The superintendent once in six months examines the most advanced classes, and causes those best prepared to be promoted.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 33.

Teachers at the close of the year make such promotions to the grade higher as they think proper, except to the high school.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 14.

The promotions are made during the first weeks in September and January. Those only are promoted whose attendance, conduct, and improvement have been satisfactory to the subboard.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 104.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

(See *Gymnastics* or *Calisthenics*.)

POLITICAL OR SECTARIAN SUBJECTS.

All questions of a partisan or sectarian character shall be carefully kept out of the schools.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 165.

Teachers are to refrain at all times from discussing either in the schools or the teachers institute any sectarian or political question of a partisan character. Sectarian instruction is expressly prohibited.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 59.

All partisan and sectarian questions excluded.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

No teacher shall introduce sectarian or political sentiments into the school, or make them subjects of discussion in the presence of pupils, in or about the school room.—*Newburyport Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 11.

No teacher shall in any manner, or upon any pretext, by reading or oral teaching, inculcate the doctrines of any political party or religious sect.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 27.

No teacher shall exercise any sectarian influence in the schools.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

No songs or other exercises of a political or partisan nature are permitted in any school.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 100.

PROGRAMMES.

A daily programme of exercises should be arranged for each class.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

Every teacher having entire charge of a room must make out a programme of recitations and studies of the several classes at the beginning of the school year, and furnish a copy to the superintendent.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867.

Every teacher, at the commencement of a term, shall prepare an order of exercises showing the exact time given to each, and shall have the same conspicuously placed in the schoolroom.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

Every teacher shall keep a time-table indicating the stated exercises for every hour in the week.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865.

Each teacher must have a card in a conspicuous place in the school room, showing the order of exercises for each day in the week and the time.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862.

Teachers shall make a written programme of the daily exercises in their respective departments, and place the same in a conspicuous place in their several rooms.—*Syracuse, N. Y.*, 1867.

The teacher of each school shall prepare and place for convenient inspection by the trustees a programme of the exercise of each day during the week, specifying the length of time of each recitation.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 108.

PROFANE LANGUAGE.

Pupils must be carefully instructed to avoid profanity and every wicked and disgraceful practice.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 31.

A pupil who writes any profane or unchaste language about the premises is liable to suspension.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 175.

Pupils are to refrain entirely from the use of profane or vulgar language.—*Columbus, Ohio*, 1848, *p.* 16.

For using profane or indecent language a pupil may be suspended.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 25.

Pupils are enjoined to avoid idleness and profanity, indecent language, and every disgraceful practice.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 74.

Pupils must not use profane or indecent language in writing or speaking.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

No pupil can remain in school who indulges in profane or unchaste language.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 42.

Teachers must not tolerate in pupils falsehood, profanity, cruelty, or any other form of vice.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867, *p.* 61.

No pupil shall remain in school who is guilty of the habitual use of profane or obscene language.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 96.

QUORUM.

A majority.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

A majority of all the members.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

Five members, not counting the mayor.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1865.

Eleven members.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1867.

A quorum shall consist of a number greater by one than the number (13) of the wards in the city.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

Five members constitute a quorum for making warrants for payment of money, and the transaction of general business; but no warrant for the payment of money can be drawn at a special meeting.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867.

For the transaction of ordinary business, seven members; but for the election of superintendent and secretary, the election and dismissal of teachers, and the appropriation of money, the quorum shall be thirteen.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 4.

RULES.

Teachers must co-operate with the board in securing their observance.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 163.

Same as the Chicago rule, and a faithful compliance is one condition of retention.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 115.

Must be read to pupils once each term.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 29.

Teachers must read that portion relating to pupils once a month to them.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1866, *p.* 4.

Teachers must observe and carry out the rules, and a copy must be kept so that visitors may consult them.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 26.

Teachers must have a copy in the school-room at all times, and they are to be read to the pupils once a month.—*Norwich, Conn.*, 1867.

Teachers are to observe and enforce them.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 33.

Teachers must aim to carry them into full effect.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 16.

Teachers must see that pupils faithfully observe the rules relating to themselves.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

REGISTERS.

The principal teachers shall keep a register of the names, ages, date of admission, and residence of each scholar.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 31.

Each teacher must keep a school register as prescribed.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 25.

Teachers shall keep a full record, as prescribed by the board, in the school register.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 55.

The principal and assistants shall keep the required register, as furnished by the superintendent.—*Fond Du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 35.

Teachers must keep registers neatly and accurately, according to prescribed form.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 73.

Each principal shall keep a register and furnish a synopsis of it to the superintendent at the end of each year.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 84.

Teachers must keep registers to be returned to the superintendent.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 18.

The teachers must keep registers as prescribed by the committee.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 8.

Records of attendance, scholarship, and deportment are kept in all public schools as prescribed by the city superintendent.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

The principals shall keep registers in which are recorded the name, age, birth-place, residence, and date of admission of each pupil, when first admitted; also, a daily record as prescribed.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

An admission register shall be carefully kept in each school, and such items as are prescribed.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 107.

RECESSES.

Fifteen minutes each half day.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

Each morning session shall have a recess of twenty minutes, as nearly as practicable, at the expiration of half the session.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, p. 36.

The grammar divisions have fifteen and the primary twenty minutes each half day. When health would not be exposed pupils must go out.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 168.

In the first and second primary departments there shall be a recess of twenty minutes each half day; in the other schools, of fifteen minutes.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 39.

A recess must be had at the expiration of one-half a school session. Boys and girls must have them at different times where there is but one yard.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 20.

In any school where there is but one yard the recesses for boys and girls must be at different times.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 17.

Recesses of fifteen minutes are to be had each half day.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

A recess of fifteen minutes, except in the afternoon, when, in schools above the primary, it shall be only five.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866, *p.* 1.

In the forenoon a recess of fifteen minutes; in the afternoon one of ten minutes for the primary children only.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

RETURNS.

The principals must make monthly returns at the office of the board.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 171.

All teachers shall make monthly returns of their respective rooms to the board.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 73.

The principal of each school must make a quarterly return to the executive committee of the rank and time of service of each teacher employed in his school.—*Portland, Me.*, 1867.

Principals furnish the superintendent quarterly and annually an abstract of the school records as made daily.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

The principal of each school at the close of each term shall carefully fill up a return and deliver it to the superintendent, as provided for by the blanks furnished by the superintendent.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 26.

Teachers are to make returns to the superintendent each month, term, and year, upon blanks furnished for the purpose.—*Syracuse, N. Y.*, 1867.

A copy or abstract of the school records shall be sent every month to a member of the sub-board.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 107.

REPAIRS—HOW PROVIDED FOR.

The committee on school-houses cause them to be kept in good repair.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 16.

The committee on school buildings supervise repairs.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 156.

The superintendent of buildings attends to repairs.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 135.

The principals will transmit to the secretary of the board a list of all repairs requisite, the teachers of the lower departments reporting to the principal.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 116.

The committee on buildings have charge of necessary repairs.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 68.

The committee on school-houses are to attend to repairs, and may authorize them to any house not exceeding $20 in any one month.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

An executive committee of five cause necessary repairs to be made.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 27.

RESIGNATIONS OF TEACHERS.

No resignation shall take effect without one month's notice to the president of the board, unless by special permission of the board.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

The board will accept the resignation at any time of those teachers who find the duties imposed by the rules too onerous or their salaries unsatisfactory, but no teacher shall resign without giving two weeks' written notice to the board; in default of which notice compensation for that period shall be forfeited.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 59.

Teachers intending to resign must give at least two weeks' notice to the superintendent.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 33.

When about to resign teachers shall give at least a month's notice to the superintendent; failing to do so, shall forfeit half a month's salary.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 7.

Any teacher may withdraw at the end of the term, provided at least one month's notice be given in writing to the superintendent. Any teacher who withdraws at any other time, or

without giving the prescribed notice, shall forfeit all compensation for the term or any part thereof.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866, *p.* 4.

Any teacher may resign at the end of a term, provided at least a month's notice of his intention be given in writing to the superintendent. A teacher who withdraws without the consent of the committee on qualifications or without notice as aforesaid, shall forfeit all compensation to which he may be entitled, or such part as the committee may specify.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 30.

Teachers must give one month's notice when about to resign, or they will forfeit one month's pay.—*Portland, Me.*, 1867.

When about to resign teachers must give a month's notice in writing to the president or clerk of the board or chairman of the committee on engagement of teachers.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 102.

Teachers must give at least one month's written notice of their intention to resign to the sub-boards of their district, under forfeiture of the pay due.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 107.

REMOVAL OF TEACHERS.

The local trustees must give one week's written notice to any teacher whom they do not see fit to nominate for the ensuing year.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, *p.* 122.

The board reserves the right to dismiss any teacher at any time for wilful violation of the rules, misconduct, or incompetency, or on thirty days' notice, without assigning a reason.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 20.

All engagements terminate with the school year. Teachers wishing to re-engage must send a notice to the clerk of the board before the end of the year.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 37.

The tenure of office is at the pleasure of the board; a teacher may be dismissed for violation of rules, unfitness, or incompetency, at any time.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 68.

Teachers are responsible to the board for the faithful discharge of their duties, and are subject to removal by the board at any time.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 15.

For a wilful violation of rules, or unfaithfulness in duty, or immoral conduct, a teacher may be reprimanded by the board or dismissed.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 85.

Teachers may be removed at any time by the board.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1865, *p.* 6.

A teacher may be suspended by the committee on teachers, in cases of emergency, till the case is acted upon by the board.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.

A teacher may be removed by a majority vote of the board when the interests of the school require it.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866, *p.* 103.

The superintendent, with the consent of the board, may dispense with the services of any teacher when it appears that his services are not beneficial.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

REPORTS.

The chairman of the district committee shall make a report at each quarterly meeting in regard to the condition of the schools; the committees on examination present their report at the quarterly meeting in December; at the quarterly meetings in March and September the superintendent shall present a semi-annual report to the board.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

The superintendent shall make the annual report required by law and such other reports as the board may require.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

District committees make reports from time to time to the board, and the superintendent prepares a general report annually for publication.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

Teachers prepare monthly reports to be sent to parents and guardians, and also report to the superintendent, who makes an annual report to the board.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867.

Each principal makes a report to the superintendent at the end of each term, and an annual report at such time and in such form as the superintendent may require, and the superintendent reports annually to the board.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

The superintendent prepares an annual report to the board, and within the last two weeks of the year he reports to the board the names of those teachers who, in his opinion, should not be retained.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1866.

Teachers are to make quarterly reports in writing to the superintendent; the superintendent reports to the board at every quarterly meeting, and the city reports to the State commissioner, so as to entitle it to its share of public money.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

Teachers transmit full reports each month and year to the superintendent, according to the blanks; also report monthly to parents, showing averages of attendance, scholarship, and deportment. The superintendent reports to the board.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

The superintendent shall report in writing, quarterly, to the board, giving a detailed statement of the condition and prospects of the schools, and making recommendations, as he thinks proper, and also an annual report at the close of the year.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Teachers report at the end of every term to the superintendent, and make a monthly report to parents, and keep accurately the school register. The superintendent reports each term to the board in writing, and prepares the annual report of the school committee.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867.

SUPERINTENDENTS, DUTIES AND SALARY.

The superintendent is required to visit the several schools of the city at least once every two months, to meet the teachers once every month, to pay particular attention to the classification of the pupils and the character of the instruction given, to report frequently to the board, to furnish annually an inventory of the property of the board, keep a record of his official acts, keep the accounts of the free academy and of each school in charge of the board so as to show every amount paid for salaries, supplies, repairs, cleaning, and other purposes, distinguishing between furniture, fuel, and other supplies, and generally act under the direction and advice of the board, and perform such other duties as the board may from time to time direct.—*Albany, N. Y.*

The superintendent of public schools shall be elected annually, by ballot, at the quarterly meeting of the board in June, to enter upon the duties of his office on the first day of September next ensuing. He shall devote himself to the study of the public school system and keep himself acquainted with the progress of instruction and discipline in other places. He shall visit each school as often as his other duties will permit. He shall advise the teachers on the best methods of instruction and discipline. He shall see that all school registers, books of records, circulars, blanks for monthly reports of teachers and annual reports of district committees, are prepared after uniform patterns and ready to be furnished when needed. All stationery required in the schools shall be furnished by the superintendent. He shall keep a record of the names, ages, and residences of persons who may desire to be considered as candidates for the office of assistant or primary school teacher, with such remarks and suggestions respecting them as he may deem important for the information of committees, and he shall perform such other duties as the school committee shall prescribe or from time to time direct. His salary is $4,000.—*Boston, Mass.*

The salary of the superintendent of public schools of the city of Buffalo is $1,200. The clerk of the superintendent has a salary of $525.

The superintendent of public schools acts under the advice and direction of the board of education, and has superintendence of all the public schools, school-houses, books, and apparatus. He is to devote himself exclusively to the duties of his office; keep regular office hours, other than school hours; acquaint himself with whatever facts and principles may concern the interests of popular education; visit all the schools as often as his duties will permit; attend all the meetings of the board of education, and act as secretary thereof; keep a record of all his proceedings, and make a general report at the close of the year on the condition of the public schools, for publication. He shall also perform such other duties as the board of education shall from time to time direct. The salary of the superintendent is $3,500; that of the clerk of the superintendent, $1,000.—*Chicago, Ill.*

The superintendent of the common schools of Cincinnati is required, by the rules of the school board, to perform substantially the same service as is specified in regard to the superintendent of the public schools of Boston. His salary is $2,500.

The superintendent of schools is also principal of the high school and receives a salary of $1,700.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*

The superintendent is also principal of the high school. Salary, $1,500.—*Madison, Wis.*

The superintendent shall be elected by ballot, by the members of the board of education, at the meeting for the appointment of teachers, and shall hold his office for one year, unless sooner removed by a majority of votes of the board.—*Sandusky, Ohio.*

The superintendent, in addition to duties specified in regard to those of some other cities, is required to assist the teachers' committee in all examinations of teachers; he is also *ex officio* librarian, having charge of all books and documents belonging to the library. His salary is $3,500; that of the assistant superintendent, $2,500; that of the secretary of the board, $2,500; and that of the assistant superintendent of the German department, $2,000.—*St. Louis, Mo.*

The duties of the superintendent are substantially the same as those specified for the superintendent at Albany.—*Toledo, Ohio.*

The superintendent must acquaint himself with the public school systems of other places, and may advise the board of education and teachers as to the best modes of instruction, discipline, &c. He must see that the regulations of the board are enforced; ascertain, as far as practicable, the number and condition of children not attending school, the reasons for non-attendance and the remedy; must aid the various committees, and give them such information as they require; shall be *ex officio* a member of the committee on the examination of teachers and on the normal school.—*San Francisco, Cal.*

SUPERINTENDENTS—HOW CHOSEN.

Elected annually, by ballot, at the quarterly meeting of the board in June.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

The city superintendent and assistant superintendent are chosen by the board annually.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

Appointed by the board of education annually.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866.

Elected annually by the board of education.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866.

The same as Springfield, Illinois.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1867.

Elected by ballot by the school committee.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.
Elected annually by the board.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.
Chosen annually by the board.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867.
Elected annually by the board of directors.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867.
Elected annually by the board on the Wednesday following the first Tuesday in January.—*Newark, N. J.*, 1864.
Appointed annually by the school committee in July.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.
Appointed by the board annually.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867.
Chosen by ballot by the school committee annually in January.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.
Elected annually by the board by ballot.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.
Elected by the board, by ballot, annually on the third Monday of March.—*Salem, Mass* 1866, *p.* 4.
The clerk of the board acts as superintendent of public schools.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866.
Elected by the board in October.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 8.

SCHOOL HOURS OR SESSIONS. √

The grammar and primary schools commence at 8 o'clock and close at 11 a. m. from the first Monday in May to the first Monday in September; during the rest of the year, from 9 to 12. The afternoon sessions to commence at 2 p. m. and close at 4, without any recess. The English and Latin and girls' high school hold one session daily, commencing at 9 and closing at 2 p. m., except on Saturday, when they close at 1 p. m.; the girls' high school closing at 1 p. m. also on Wednesdays.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Commencing at 9 a. m. and closing at 3 p. m., with an intermission of an hour at noon.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 21.

From September to April from 9 to 12 a. m., and from 1½ to 4½ p. m.; during the remainder of the year, in the afternoon, from 2 to 5.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867, 147.

In the forenoon, schools commence at 8.45 and close at 12, except the high school, which closes at 12½. The other schools commence at 1¾ p. m. and close at 4½.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1867, *p.* 22.

From the first of March to the first of November from 8½ to 11½ a. m., and from 2 to 5 p. m.; the rest of the year, from 9 to 12 a. m. and from 1½ to 4 p. m.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, p. 14.

From the first Monday in April to the first Monday in November between 8½ a. m. and 12 m., and from 2 to 4½ p. m.; from the first Monday in November to the first Monday in April from 9 a. m. to 2 p. m.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 86.

Two sessions of three hours each; the forenoon session commencing at 9 and the afternoon at 1½ from October to April; and at 2 p. m. during the rest of the year.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 73.

Except in the high school, from 8 to 11 a. m. from the first of May to the first of October; and the rest of the year from 9 to 12 m.; and from 2 to 4 p. m. throughout the year.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865, *p.* 13.

From October first to April first from 9 to 12 m., and from 2 to 4½ p. m.; for the rest of the year, from 8½ to 11½ in the forenoon.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867, *p.* 336.

In the high and normal schools one session from 9 a. m. to 2½ p. m. In all other schools two sessions from 9 a. m. to 12 m., and from 1½ to 4 p. m.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

SCHOOL YEAR—ITS DIVISION. √

Summer and winter terms, so-called; the first, from the first Monday in March till the Tuesday before commencement day; the second, from the second Monday in September to the Friday preceding the last Monday in February.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 17.

Three terms; two of twelve weeks each and one of sixteen weeks, the commencement of each to be determined by the board of education.—*Fond Du Lac, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 40.

Four terms; one from the first Monday in September to the Saturday before Thanksgiving day, the second ending the third Saturday in February, the third ending the second Saturday in May, and the fourth ending the last Saturday in July.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, p. 14.

Forty weeks and three terms; first, from the first Monday in September, sixteen weeks; second, from the first Monday in January, twelve weeks; third, from the 15th of April, twelve weeks.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

Three terms; the first, from the first Monday in September, sixteen weeks; second, fourteen weeks, from the first Monday in January; and the third, ten weeks, after a vacation of a week.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1867. *p.* 23.

Four terms of eleven weeks each; the first ending on Friday preceding Thanksgiving week: the rest, with vacations, making up the year.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863, *p.* 29.

Commencing the first Monday in September, it continues forty-four weeks, including holidays and two weeks' vacation in spring.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 96.

From the first Monday in September, forty consecutive weeks, exclusive of the Christmas holidays, divided into four terms of ten weeks each.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

Beginning the first of July and ending the last of June. There are three terms; one in the fall of sixteen and one in the winter and one in spring of twelve weeks each.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 20.

STATIONERY—HOW SUPPLIED.

All stationery required in the schools shall be furnished by the superintendent.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 28.

The secretary has charge of the depot and aids in distributing supplies.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 15.

The orders for supplies shall be given by the superintendent, under the general direction of the president of the board.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 162.

The messenger, under the direction of the superintendent, purchases supplies.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 19.

All purchases for the schools are made by the superintendent or secretary.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867, *p.* 86.

The superintendent furnishes blank books and such stationery as he may deem necessary.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867, *p.* 13.

The secretary has the custody of supplies, and when any are needed he reports to the committee on supplies.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867, *p.* 318.

Each pupil furnishes his own books and stationery, but the city furnishes both to indigent children.—*St. Louis, Mo.*, 1866.

The allowance of stationery for public school purposes is not to exceed $2 50 per annum for each teacher, and is to be furnished by the treasurer upon the requisition of the teacher of each school, approved by a member of the sub-board.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867, *p.* 107.

SUSPENSION.

When the example of any pupil is very injurious, and in all cases where reformation is hopeless, the principal teacher, with the approval of the committee on the school, may suspend a pupil.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866, *p.* 34.

The master of a school may suspend a pupil temporarily for misconduct.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 175.

A pupil habitually tardy, and after suitable warning failing to correct the evil, may be suspended.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866, *p.* 23.

A pupil who shall refuse to obey the rules of the school or the instructions of the principal may be suspended.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 60.

For violent and repeated opposition to authority a teacher may suspend a pupil for the time being.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 70.

Teachers may suspend pupils for gross misconduct or insubordination.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867, *p.* 20.

A pupil may be suspended for a period not exceeding two weeks by a principal for injurious conduct, reporting to the superintendent.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867, *p.* 20.

In case a teacher refuses to obey the written instructions of the superintendent he may be suspended; teachers may suspend pupils for specified misconduct.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

For open disobedience or insubordination a pupil may be suspended by a principal.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867, *p.* 95.

In the case of pupils of a comparatively mature age, especially females, it may be expedient to adopt, as a substitute for corporal punishment, suspension by the teacher, and this should not be resorted to by teachers except for grave offences.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1876, *p.* 19.

The principal may suspend a pupil, and he must report to the superintendent, stating the offence.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 23.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Between the primary and intermediate four classes in Mental Arithmetic, Writing and Drawing on slates and paper, Object Lessons, Reading, Elementary Sounds and Phonic Spelling, first steps in Geography, Map Drawing, Written Arithmetic, and Physical Exercises.—*Clevcland Ohio*, 1866, *p.* 106.

Between the primary and grammar four grades, Spelling, Defining, Mental Arithmetic, Written Arithmetic, Reading, Writing, Geography, Object Lessons.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867, *p.* 44.

Between primary and intermediate, Writing, Reading, Spelling, Arithmetic, Geography, Object Lessons, Language, Singing, and Gymnastics twice a day, being the studies.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1867, *p.* 4.

Between primary and intermediate, Reading, Spelling, Mental Arithmetic, Writing on Slates, Drawing Geometrical Figures, Definitions, Elementary Sounds, Written Arithmetic, Lessons on Things, Physical Exercises.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1866, *p.* 25.

SUPPLIES—HOW PROCURED.

A special committee of three procure all articles needed.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

By building and supply agent.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

Three members of the board act as a committee on supplies.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

The messenger, under the direction of the committee on school-houses, attends to purchasing, storing, cutting, and distributing the fuel, making small repairs, and supervising large ones, as ordered by the board.—*Detroit, Mich.*, 1866.

There is a special committee on supplies.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867.

The committee on school-houses has the oversight of repairs and supplies.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

The committee on salaries and supplies provide supplies, fuel, furniture, &c.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

The custodian of the depository and sergeant-at-arms fills requisitions from principals and accounts to the board.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867.

The secretary, together with the executive committee, provides the supplies.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1867.

The secretary has charge of the supplies, and issues them on the order of the committee.—*Philadelphia, Pa.*, 1867.

The sub-boards supply such wants and order such repairs as are immediately necessary.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

SEATING PUPILS.

No pupil shall be exposed in his seat to a current of air.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865.

It is not thought desirable that pupils should be seated in the school room according to their rank in the class.—*Newburyport, Mass.*, 1866.

Each pupil shall have a particular desk assigned him.—*Oswego, N. Y.*, 1862.

Pupils shall be seated according to their size, giving the largest desks to the largest scholars, and so on in regular gradation.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

SYLLABUS.

A syllabus is prepared of Object Lessons for four grades in the district schools, for five grades of Composition, and of Geography for three grades, the latter embracing items to be determined before using maps; using the Globe, using the Maps of the Hemispheres, local Geography, items to be described according to text-books, using Map of the Hemispheres, using Map of the United States, Europe, South America, Asia, Africa, and Oceanica.

The following is the "ORDER OF RECITATION IN GEOGRAPHY," recommended for the higher grades, (A and B:)

1. Location; 2. Boundaries, including oceans, seas, gulfs, bays, sounds, channels, straits, capes, promontories, &c.; 3. Surface, including mountains, hills, rivers, lakes, plateaus, deserts, &c.; 4. Climate; 5. Soil; 6. Productions; 7. Industries; 8. Cities; 9. Government; 10. Religion and Civilization.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

SEWING SCHOOLS.

Instruction shall be given in sewing to all the pupils in the fourth class in each of the grammar schools for girls, except when in the judgment of the district committee it will be for the interest of the school to omit it; but the committee must apply to the board for authority to suspend the rule. Plain sewing may be introduced into any primary school at the discretion of the sub-committee.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

One or more schools for the special instruction of children *over seven years of age*, and not qualified for the grammar school, may be established in each district. Any scholar over eight years of age, and not in the first or second class, may be removed from any primary school to a school for special instruction, at the discretion of the sub-committee.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

There is a cosmopolitan school for acquiring German, French, and Spanish, in connection with English, and a school for the Chinese children is proposed.—*San Francisco*, 1867.

SUBSTITUTES.

In case of the sickness of a teacher a substitute may be employed, with the approval of the sub-committee.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

No substitute shall be employed for more than a day at a time without the approbation of one or more of the sub-committee, nor in any department of the grammar schools, without the consent of two or more of the district committee, one of them being the chairman.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

If substitutes have the required certificate they shall have the same compensation as the absentee whose place they occupy; others are paid two-thirds as much.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

No substitute can be employed without the permission of the superintendent being first obtained, the absentee to pay the substitute.—*Newport R. I.*, 1866.

In case of the sickness of a teacher the superintendent may employ a suitable substitute, at the expense of the absent teacher.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

Whenever a teacher is temporarily absent the special committee may appoint a substitute; but no substitute shall continue more than a month unless approved by the board.—*Salem, Mass.*, 1866.

SWEEPING ROOMS.

The janitors, under the oversight of the principals, are to keep the rooms and buildings in a neat and proper condition.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

The porters shall keep the rooms neat and clean.—*New Orleans, La.*. 1867.

The executive committee shall employ a proper person to sweep the rooms and entries of the several buildings daily, and dust the blinds, seats, and furniture.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

Teachers are responsible for the neatness of their rooms; but sweeping shall not be done in school hours.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

All rooms in use are to be swept daily after school, and dusted with cloths in the morning.—*Syracuse. N. Y.*, 1867.

SATURDAY OR WEDNESDAY AS A HOLIDAY.

The weekly holidays, so far as given in the cities named, are as follows:

All day on Saturday: Washington, Chicago, Providence, Madison, Fond du Lac, Springfield, Mass., Troy, N. Y., Milwaukee, Cincinnati, Albany, N. Y., St. Louis, Rochester.

Wednesday and Saturday afternoon: Cambridge, Newport, R. I., Boston, Lowell, Worcester, Newburyport.

TEACHERS, AGE OF, WHEN EMPLOYED.

No person can be an assistant teacher in the central high school, nor principal in a male grammar school, under twenty-one years of age, or of a female grammar school under twenty years of age.—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

No person whose age is less than eighteen shall be employed as a teacher in any public school.—*Louisville, Ky.*, 1867.

No person under eighteen years of age shall be employed to teach in the public schools.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1866.

Teachers of grammar schools must be not less than twenty-one years of age; of primary, secondary, and intermediate schools, not less than eighteen; and sub-assistants, not less than sixteen.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

TRUANCY.

When pupils become habitually truant their names and that of their parent or guardian are to be reported to the truant officer of the city.—*Albany, N. Y.*, 1867.

The teacher having pupils who are habitually truant shall report their names and the names of their parents or guardians to the truant officer of the district.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866.

A pupil habitually truant may be suspended by the superintendent.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1867.

Absence from school for any reason whatever, unknown to or unsanctioned by parent or guardian, constitutes truancy.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866.

Teachers shall report all cases of truancy, with the names of parents and guardians, to the superintendent.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

When the habit of truancy is beyond the influence and control of the teacher, the offender is subject to the jurisdiction of the police court, to be sent, on conviction, to the truant school.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.

TARDINESS.

Tardiness shall be subject to such penalty as in each case the teacher may think proper.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Every pupil not in the school room when the hour for opening school arrives shall be marked as tardy.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

Every teacher, when tardy in the morning or afternoon, shall mark the number of minutes that he is tardy after the letter T in the blank for reports.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

Tardiness, not excused by the parent or guardian, is accounted a misdemeanor, for which the pupil is liable to be punished.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.

(See *Absence of Teachers*, *Absence of Pupils*, and *Punctuality*.)

TEMPERATURE IN THE COLD SEASON.

Teachers must give vigilant attention to the temperature of their rooms.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

At no time should the temperature be more than 65° Fahrenheit.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

The rooms in winter must never be heated above 67°. Thermometers to be examined four times a day.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866.

The temperature should be from 65° to 68° of Fahrenheit.—*Indianapolis, Ind.*, 1867.

Teachers must endeavor to preserve a uniform temperature of 68° Fahrenheit. They will be considered grossly negligent if they permit a variation of more than 5° from that standard.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

Teachers shall, at all seasons, make the temperature of their rooms an essential object of attention.—*Manchester, N. H.*, 1866.

Teachers must watch over the temperature of their rooms by means of thermometers, and avoid extremes of heat and cold.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866.

The superintendent shall cause a thermometer to be placed in each room for the healthful regulation of the temperature, and teachers must endeavor to avoid extremes of heat and cold.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

Teachers shall carefully ascertain the temperature of the rooms, and use all proper means to avoid those injurious extremes of heat and cold which negligence might induce.—*St. Paul, Minn.*, 1867, *p.* 16.

Teachers must keep a uniform temperature, not above 70°, and as near as possible 68°.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867.

Teachers are required, at all seasons, to make the temperature of their rooms a special object of attention.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

TRACTS.

Teachers shall not permit any books or tracts or other publications to be distributed in their schools.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

The same rule as for Boston.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865.

For similar rule see *Book Agents* and *Advertisements*.

TIME TABLE.

(See *Programmes.*)

TERMS, LENGTH OF.

(See *School Year.*)

THERMOMETER.

Teachers must examine the thermometers at least four times a day, at intervals, to determine the temperature, noting any remarkable variation from 67° in winter.—*Cleveland, Ohio*, 1866.

The superintendent shall cause a thermometer to be placed in each room, for the healthful regulation of the temperature.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

The temperature must be indicated by a thermometer, hanging in some central position in the school-room.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867.

(See *Temperature.*)

TOBACCO.

No teacher or pupil shall use tobacco in any form during school hours.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

The pupil who persists in the use of tobacco in the school building, or upon the school grounds, is liable to suspension.—*Dubuque, Iowa*, 1867.

Teachers shall abstain from the use of tobacco in any form, and forbid its use in the school-rooms or on the school premises by their pupils.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1867.

Pupils shall not smoke or chew tobacco in the school-rooms or their neighborhood.—*Newport, R. I.*, 1866.

The use of tobacco on the school premises is strictly forbidden.—*Niles, Mich.*, 1865.

Pupils must not use tobacco in any form in the school-room or upon the school premises.—*New Orleans, La.*, 1867.

No teacher or pupil shall be permitted to use tobacco in any form during school hours.—*Springfield, Ill.*, 1867.

Pupils are to refrain from its use in any form.—*Syracuse, N. Y.*, 1867.

No smoking shall be allowed in the school-rooms under the control of the board of education.—*San Francisco, Cal.*, 1861.

No teacher shall use tobacco in any form during school hours, nor at any time in or about the building.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

TUITION.

The tuition fee shall be at the rate of a dollar per term, payable in advance.—*Baltimore, Md.*, 1867.

The committee may receive children of non-residents into schools near the boundary lines, on payment of tuition.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.

Tuition is required of non-residents.—*Fort Wayne, Ind.*, 1867.

Rule the same as for Fort Wayne in Lowell, Mass., 1867; in Cincinnati, Ohio, 1867; in Cleveland, Ohio, 1867; in Terre Haute, Ind., 1867; in Detroit, Mich., 1866.

Non-residents may be received on paying tuition.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866.

Rule the same as for Troy in Springfield, Ill., 1867; in Rochester, N. Y., 1867; in Fond du Lac, Wis., 1867; in Niles, Mich., 1865.

VACCINATION.

No child, unless coming from another school in the city, shall be admitted without a certificate from a physician of vaccination.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

Pupils must have been vaccinated for the kine-pox before admission to any school.—*Worcester, Mass.*, 1867.

The rule is the same as in the foregoing instances, substantially in the following cities: Providence, R. I., 1863; Chicago, Ill., 1866; Boston, Mass., 1866; Detroit, Mich., 1866 Springfield, Ill., 1867; Milwaukee, Wis., 1867; Indianapolis, Ind., 1867; Cambridge, Mass., 1866; Rutland, Vt., 1867; Springfield, Mass., 1867.

VISITATION BY SUPERINTENDENTS.

The city superintendent, while the schools are in session, shall devote his time to their visitation and supervision, except on Tuesday of each week.—*Brooklyn, N. Y.*, 1867.

The superintendent shall visit each school as often as his duties will permit.—*Fond du Lac, Wis.*, 1867.

The superintendent shall visit each school as often as once in each week.—*Madison, Wis.*, 1867.

The superintendent must visit the schools frequently.—*New Haven, Conn.*, 1865.

The superintendent must visit the schools at least twice in each term and as much oftener as his duties will permit.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

The same rule, substantially, as given for all the following cities: Boston, Mass., 1866; Springfield, Ill, 1867; Terre Haute, Ind., 1867; Cincinnati, Ohio, 1867; Manchester, N. H., 1865; Indianapolis, Ind., 1867; Springfield, Mass., 1867; New Orleans, La., 1867; Detroit, Mich., 1866; Chicago, Ill., 1866; Providence, R. I., 1863; Worcester, Mass., 1867; Lowell, Mass., 1867; Fort Wayne, Ind., 1867; Newark, N. J., 1866; Albany, N. Y., 1867;

VISITATION BY TEACHERS.

Teachers may visit schools of the same department or grade as their own, not more than half a day, each term, with the permission of the superintendent.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

Teachers may occasionally, under the direction of the sub-committee, visit other schools.—*Cambridge, Mass.*, 1866.

Teachers may visit other public schools in the city, once each quarter, with the consent of the superintendent.—*Lowell, Mass.*, 1867.

Teachers may visit one or more schools of the same grade as their own, once each quarter.—*Providence, R. I.*, 1863.

Teachers are allowed one day in each term to visit other schools with the permission of the superintendent.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

With the permission of the superintendent, teachers may visit other schools occasionally.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.

Rule the same as that of Boston, and also, teachers are required to send a written report of their observations to the superintendent within a week after the visit.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866.

VACATIONS.

Besides the holidays, Thanksgiving week, the week preceding the first Monday in March, the week commencing on the Monday preceding the last Wednesday in May, and the rest of the year after exhibitions.—*Boston, Mass.*, 1866.

From the last Friday in June to the first Monday of September, with the exception of a week for the normal institute.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1866.

From the third Friday in July to the first of September, Christmas week, and the last week in April.—*Milwaukee, Wis.*, 1867.

One week at Thanksgiving, Christmas to New Year, inclusive, one week in the last of May, and from the examination in February to the first Monday in March, and from the examination in July to the first Monday in September.—*Portland, Me.*, 1867.

Christmas week, two weeks in May, and five weeks after the first Monday in July.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

From the last week in June to the first of September, two weeks at Thanksgiving time, and two weeks in the spring.—*Springfield, Mass.*, 1867.

Six weeks from the 23d of July, and two weeks from the 24th of December, besides holidays.—*Troy, N. Y.*, 1866.

Eight weeks in July and August, two weeks in the fall, and two in the spring.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867.

From the 15th of July to the first Monday in September, and Christmas week, besides the holidays.—*Washington, D. C.*, 1867.

VENTILATION.

Teachers are required, for the preservation of the health of themselves and pupils, to give particular attention to the ventilating and warming of their rooms, and always to ventilate, except in summer, by lowering the upper sash of the windows, and on no account to suffer the children to sit in draughts of cold air; and, as a general rule, to cause all the windows to be opened for the free admission of air at recess, and at no time to raise the temperature of the rooms higher than 65 degrees Fahrenheit.—*Cincinnati, Ohio*, 1867.

A regular system of ventilation shall be practiced in winter as well as in summer by which the air in all the school-rooms shall be effectually changed at each recess, and at such other times as may be necessary to prevent the breathing of impure air. Whenever windows are opened for the purpose of ventilation, it shall be by lowering them from the top, except during the warmest weather, when they may be raised from the bottom; but in no case shall the pupils be allowed to sit in a draught of cold air. During the season for fires the temperature of the school-rooms shall be kept, where the pupils sit, between 65 and 68 degrees Fahrenheit, according to thermometers furnished by the board. If in any case the temperature is found to rise above 70 degrees in the lower part of the school-room, it should be reduced immediately by lowering the windows, and if found below 60 degrees measures should be taken immediately to raise it.—*Detroit, Michigan*, 1866.

Special attention to thorough ventilation is required of teachers by the rules of the following cities: Fort Wayne, Ind.; Washington, D. C.; Oswego, N. Y.; Lowell, Mass.; Brooklyn, N. Y.; Providence, R. I.; Chicago, Ill.; Madison, Wis.; Dubuque, Iowa; Springfield, Ill.; Rochester, N. Y.; Boston, Mass.; Springfield, Mass.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Indianapolis, Ind.; Cleveland, Ohio; Troy, N. Y.; Newark, N. J.; St. Louis, Mo.; New York, N. Y.; and Hartford, Conn.

VOCAL MUSIC.

(See *Music.*)

WARMING.

During the cold season it is expected that the principals will superintend the making of fires, so far as may be necessary to insure their being made at the proper time and in a proper manner. They shall give special attention to the practice of economy in the use of fuel, and take measures to prevent the janitors from wasting coal with the ashes which they remove from the stoves and furnaces. They shall also use every precaution to save the buildings from exposure to fire. In cold or stormy weather the principals shall also make such arrangements that one or more rooms or halls will be open to receive pupils half an hour before school. In cold weather those rooms or halls shall be made comfortably warm, and one or more teachers, to be designated by the principal, shall be present and exercise a general care over the pupils.—*Chicago, Ill.*, 1867.

(See *Fires*, *Fuel*, *Janitors*, and *Porters*.)

WHISPERING.

All pupils are required to avoid all social intercourse during study hours.—*Rochester, N. Y.*, 1867.

Teachers are expected to adopt as a standard of order in school the entire suppression of noise and communication between pupils during school hours, and never to proceed for a moment with the regular exercises of the school while there is not a proper degree of order and quiet in the room.—*Terre Haute, Ind.*, 1867.

WASHING ROOMS.

Floors of halls and of school-rooms in front of desks are to be washed weekly, and the floors under and about the desks monthly.—*Syracuse, N. Y.*, 1867.

Distribution of studies in public high schools.

Studies.	Baltimore.†	Boston.‡	Cambridge.	Chicago.	Cincinnati.	Cleveland.	Dubuque.	Fond du Lac.	Hartford.	Indianapolis.	Lewiston, Maine.	Louisville.	Madison.	Manchester.	New York.§	New Haven.	Newark.	Niles, Michigan.	Philadelphia.‖	Portland.	Providence.	Rochester.	Sandusky.	San Francisco.	Springfield, Illinois.	St. Louis.	Terre Haute.	Troy, New York.	Washington, D. C.¶	Worcester.
Algebra*	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Arithmetic	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	1	1	1	1
Astronomy	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	1	1	1	1	..	1
Bookkeeping	1	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	..	..	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	..	1	1	1	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	1	1
Botany	..	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	[illegible]	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..
Calculus	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..
Cæsar	1	1	..	1	..	..	1	1	1	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	..	1	1	1	..	1	..	..
Chemistry	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1
Cicero's Orations	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..
Composition	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	..	1	1	1	1	1
Constitution of United States	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	1	..
Declamation	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	1	1
Drawing	..	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..
Engineering	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
English Grammar	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	..	1	1	1	1	1
English Literature	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	..	1
English Synonyms	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
Etymology	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Evidences of Christianity	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..
French	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	..	1
Geometry	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Geology	..	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	..
German	1	..	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	1
Greek	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	1
History, Ancient	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	1	1
Modern	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	1	1	1
Homer	1	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	1	..	..
Horace	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
Latin	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1
Logic	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
Mechanics	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Mensuration	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..
Mental Philosophy	1	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1
Mineralogy	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..
Moral Science	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1
Music	..	1	..	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1
Natural Philosophy	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Natural History	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	1	..	1
Natural Theology	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Navigation	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1
Ovid	1	1	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pedagogics	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Penmanship	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	1
Political Economy	1	1	..	1	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	1	..	1	..
Physical Exercise	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..
Physical Geography	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Physiology	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Reading	1	1	1	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
Rhetoric	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1
Sallust	1	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..
Science of Government	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	..	1	..	..
Spanish	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Spelling	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
Surveying	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	..	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..
Tacitus	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Trigonometry	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	1
Virgil	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	1	..	1	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..
Xenophon, Anabasis	1	..	1	1	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	1	1	1	1	..	1	..	..
Zoology	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..

* The figure 1 denotes that the study is pursued in the high schools of the place indicated at the head of the column.

† Including the female high schools and Baltimore College.

‡ Including the English and Latin high schools, and the girls' high and normal schools.

§ College of the city of New York.

‖ Including the central high school and the girls' high school.

¶ There being no high school in this city, the studies indicated are those pursued in the grammar school.

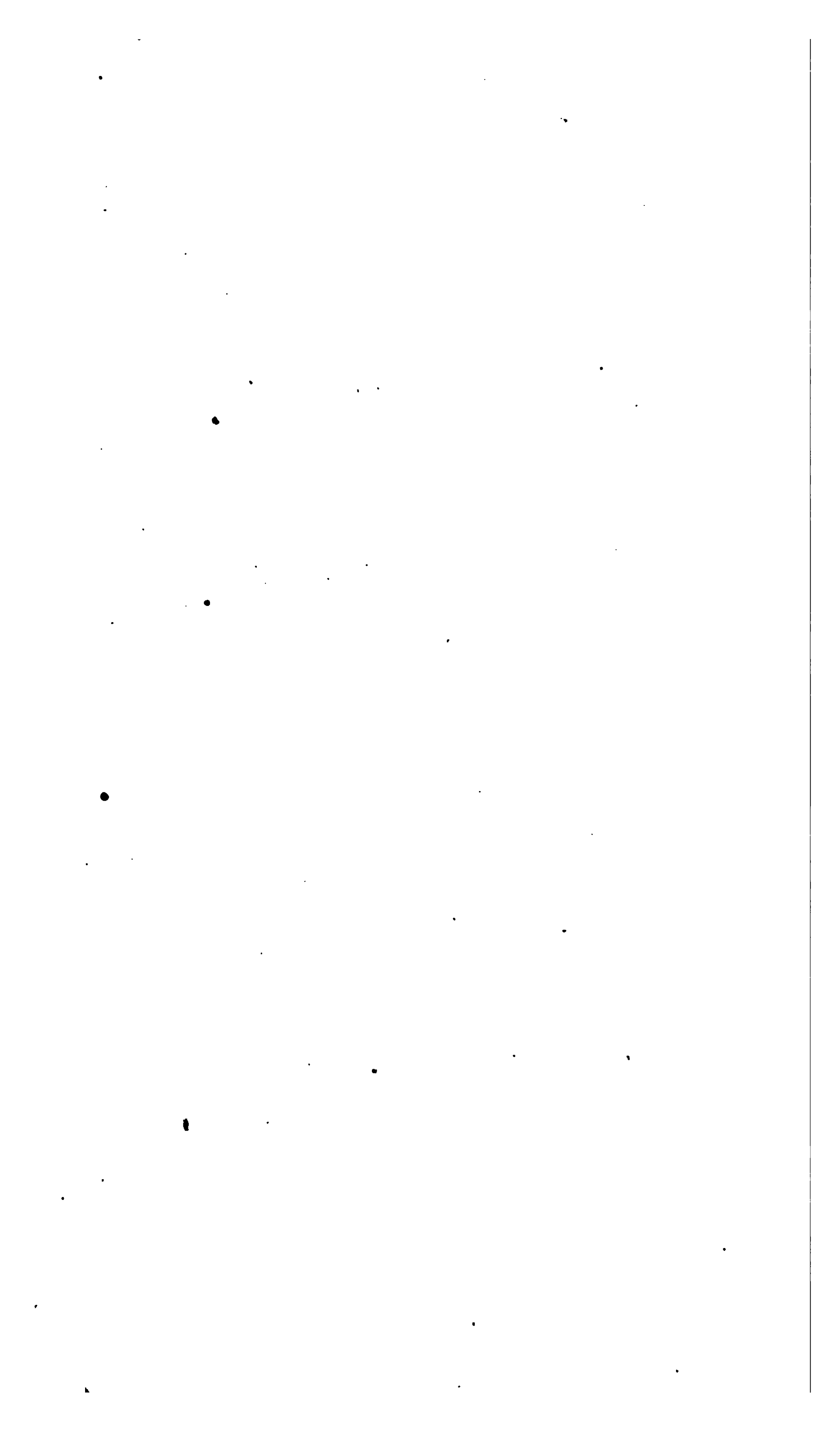
REMARK.—The subjects of instruction are taken from the official regulations of each city; but for want of space in this table, it has been necessary to group certain similar studies under one name; thus including under the heads of Ancient or Modern History the Histories of Greece and Rome, of England, France, and the United States; under Pedagogics, the Theory and Practice of Teaching; under Science of Government, Political Philosophy, and the Governmental Instructor; Metaphysics with Mental Philosophy; Acoustics and Optics with Natural Philosophy; Anatomy with Physiology, &c.

Topics embraced in the digest of rules and regulations.

SUBJECTS AND COURSES

OF

INSTRUCTION IN CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS.



APPENDIX G.

Subjects and courses of instruction in city public schools.

SUBJECTS AND COURSES OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN CITIES.

BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

Before presenting the subjects and course of instruction in the several grades of schools into which the pupils of the public schools are distributed, we will note the date of the establishment of these grades to show the gradual development of the system. The germ of the whole is to be found either in a vote of the "townsmen" of Boston on the 13th of April, 1635, "entreating Mr. Philemon Permont to become schoolmaster," or in a subscription started at a general meeting of the richer inhabitants" on the 22d of August, 1636, at which about £50 "was given toward the maintenance of a free schoolmaster for the youth with us, Mr. Daniel Maud being now also chosen thereunto." As both Mr. Permont and Mr. Maud were men of education and subsequently in the ministry, it is probable that the school first taught in Boston was in the nature of the grammar school of England of that day, receiving pupils of all ages, and in the studies in which their fathers had been instructed at home. The records show that the principal school, and for many years the only public school, was "the grammar school." Subsequently a second school was started (and in 1682 mention is made of this school) in another part of the town; and, according to Cotton Mather, a charity school for the poor was opened about 1708, which was supported by contributions of the churches. "The writing school" and "reading school" begin in time to appear (the former in 1741) on the record, which alone the girls were allowed to attend so late as 1789. Down to 1818 little children were taught the alphabet and to read in "dame schools" or at home—the permission of the law of 1790, requiring "preparatory schools" to be established, not having been acted on—and no pupils were admitted to the writing school under seven years of age, or to the grammar school, "unless they shall have learned in some other school or way to read the English language."

In 1741 the population of Boston was 16,382, and on the 23d of June, in that year, there were five public schools, with 535 pupils; and in May, 1785, there was the same number of schools, with 564 pupils. In 1800 there were seven free schools, containing about 900 pupils, of whom 160 were taught Latin, besides a number of private schools, in which were about 500 pupils. The head master of the Latin school was paid $766, and the usher $433 33. The town tax realized $61,489 25, of which the school expenses were $11,100 35.

In 1817 the necessity of making further provision for the instruction of all the children, "both as a civil and a religious duty," was felt, and committees were appointed by the town to ascertain the number and condition of public and private schools. From a report of one committee, submitted November 3, 1817, the following list of public schools and pupils is given:

Names.	Boys.	Girls.	Pupils.
Latin Grammar school	......	......	147
The North public school	309	140	449
The West school	339	234	573
The Centre school	290	36	326
The South school	270	283	653
The school at South Boston	......	......	100
The African school	30	20	50
The school at alms-house	44	23	67
Eight schools	......	......	2,365

In addition to this exhibit the several ward committees "were instructed to visit each house, to ascertain the name of every child between the age of four and fourteen years, who from any cause failed to attend any school." From the return of those committees it appeared there were in the town 162 private schools of various descriptions in which 4,132 children—1,479 boys and 2,288 girls—were instructed between the ages of four and fourteen. Of these schools eight were charity free schools, with 365 pupils, (girls,) maintained by an association of young ladies, that received contributions from individuals and collections taken up in the churches. These private schools cost the parents of the children $49,154. These facts do not argue well for the condition of the public schools of Boston at that date, when the private schools had more pupils maintained at double the cost of the public schools; but the most alarming fact brought out by this inquiry, was, that 529 children of school age were not in any school, public or private. The subject was agitated in the public press. From one of these articles, written by James Savage, (who still lives, 1868, after having assisted in establishing almost every great public institution of which Boston is justly proud,) over the signature of "Many," the following extracts are taken:

All should be taught to read; the poor and the rich should have an equal chance to understand the nature and principles of our republican government. Many parents in this town send their children to private schools kept by women, while those who are unable to pay for tuition are obliged to leave them to traverse the streets, or shut them up at home. Of this class there are hundreds among us already growing up to all kinds of iniquity. In the report of the school committee of the 3d of November last, we are told that the number of children between the ages of 4 and 14 is 526 who go to no school. What are those children doing? Who has charge of them? Where do they live? Why are they not at school? The committee have not informed us. Have they not a right to a good bringing up and to a common school education? and have they not a right to a common share of the friendship of the community? If their parents neglect to provide them a school, is it not the duty of the town to do it? and if the town takes no interest in their welfare, is it not the duty of the legislature to enact laws for the purpose of saving these dependents—these sufferers?

All children have an equal right to the schools, we know, on the following conditions, and none other, viz: 1. The child must be 7 years old. 2. He must be able to read in the Bible sufficiently well to keep his place in a class. 3. He cannot be admitted after the age of 14, however well he can read, or however deficient he may be in writing or arithmetic. Take the case of a parent (and there are hundreds in town) whose circumstances are such as to prevent him from qualifying his children for enjoying the benefits of our free schools, under and after the age of 7. Can it be said that the doors of our schools are open to these children? We say that they are not; yet we are told "they are open to their reception;" but these children are as much deprived of the benefits of our schools as they would be of running after their legs were broken, or their eyes were put out.

The friends of educational improvement persevered against the opposition of some, and the apathy of more, until in the next year primary schools were established; and with that step in advance, as well as in the improved condition of the Latin school, the work of popular education has gone steadily forward—chronicled by the institution of the English High School in 1821; the Girls' High School in 1826, suspended or superseded in 1829 by a general improvement of all the grammar schools for girls, and only to be revived in the Normal School for female teachers in 1852; the special or intermediate grade in 1828; the appointment of a city superintendent of public schools in 1851; the training department in 1864; the foundation of the Lowell free lectures in 1839; the establishment of the city library in 1858; of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the compulsory attendance of all children at some school under the operation of the truancy agency in 1860.

SUBJECTS AND COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

As the Boston primary schools were the first of this grade of public schools in this country, we will notice a few of the earlier regulations respecting them. Twenty schools were opened under that number of females, and each school was

to receive not less than forty nor over fifty pupils. They were to be arranged in four classes: those in the alphabet and in monosyllables in the fourth or lowest class; those in two or more syllables, in the third class; those in easy reading in the second class, and those in the Testament in the first class. The books authorized were Kelly's Child's Instructor, Bingham's Child's Companion, (second class,) and the Testament, (first class.) "The course and mode of instruction to be pursued in the primary schools" in 1821 were as follows:

The fourth or youngest class shall stand up with due ceremony at as great a distance from the instructor as possible, and read with a distinct and audible tone of voice in words of one syllable. No one of this class shall be advanced to the third or higher class who cannot read deliberately and correctly in words of one and two syllables.

No one of the third class shall be advanced to the second class who cannot spell with ease and propriety words of three, four, and five syllables, and read all the reading lessons in Kelly's Spelling-book.

No one of the second class shall be advanced to the first class who has not learned perfectly by heart, and recited, as far as practicable, all the reading lessons in Kelly's Spelling-book, the Commandments, and the Lord's Prayer; all the stops and marks, and their uses in reading; and in Bingham's Spelling-book the use of the common abbreviations, such as A. M., D. D., L. L. D., &c.; the use of numbers and letters used for numbers, in reading; the catalogue of words of similar sound, but different in spelling and signification; the catalogue of vulgarisms, such as chimney, not chimbly—vinegar, not winegar, &c.

No one of the first class shall be recommended by the examining committee to be received into the English grammar schools, unless he or she can spell correctly, read fluently in the New Testament, and has learned the several branches taught in the second class; and also the use and nature of the pauses, and is of good behavior. And each of the scholars, before being recommended, shall be able to read deliberately and audibly, so as to be heard in any part of the grammar schools.

Thus a foundation will be laid in the primary schools for further and greater improvements in the English grammar schools than has heretofore been known, and of course the scholars from the primary schools will be qualified to enter the grammar schools on an advanced standing.

The committee particularly recommend that the instructors shall employ the girls occasionally (especially those of the first class) in sewing and knitting, so far as the same shall not interfere with their progress in learning.

The following regulations relate to primary schools in 1866-'67:

Regulations of the primary schools.

1. Every teacher shall admit to her school all applicants of suitable age and qualifications, residing nearest to the school under her charge, provided the number in her school will warrant the admission; and in all cases of doubt or difficulty in the discharge of this duty she shall apply to her sub-committee for advice and direction.

2. When any child shall apply to be admitted from another primary school the teacher shall require a certificate of transfer from the teacher of the former school, which certificate shall serve instead of a certificate of vaccination.

3. Whenever any scholar is absent from school the teacher shall immediately ascertain the reason; and if such absence be continued, and is not occasioned by sickness or other sufficient cause, such child, with the consent of the sub-committee, may be discharged from school, and a record of the fact be made.

4. The regular promotion of scholars to the grammar schools shall be made semi-annually, on the first Monday in March, and on the first Monday in September; but occasionally promotions may be made on Monday of any week, whenever the sub-committee of the primary school and the master of the grammar school may deem it necessary.

5. One or more schools for the special instruction of children over seven years of age, and not qualified for the grammar school, may be established in each district. The course of study shall be the same as in the primary schools; and it shall be in the power of each district committee to introduce writing and the elements of written arithmetic. Any scholar over eight years of age, and not in the first or second class, may be removed from any primary school to a school for special instruction, at the discretion of the sub-committee.

7. The teachers shall attend to the physical education and comfort of the pupils under their care. When, from the state of the weather or other causes, the recesses in the open air shall be impracticable, the children may be exercised within the room in accordance with the best judgment and ability of the teachers. In the schools which are kept in buildings occupied by grammar schools, the recesses shall be arranged by the masters so as not to interfere with the exercises of those schools.

8. The schools shall contain, as nearly as practicable, an equal number of pupils, the

maximum number being 56; and the pupils in each of the schools shall be arranged in six classes, unless otherwise ordered by the district committee.

9. Plain sewing may be introduced into any primary school, at the discretion of the sub-committee, and singing shall form part of the opening and closing exercises of every session: and such time be devoted to instruction in music in each school as the sub-committee may deem expedient.

10. The following books and studies shall be attended to in the respective classes. The order of the exercises and lessons assigned to each class to be determined by the teacher; subject, however, to the direction of the committee of the school.

SIXTH CLASS.

Hillard's First Primary Reader.—To the 30th page; the words in columns to be spelled without book, and also words selected from the reading lessons.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Number 11, the words and elementary sounds repeated after the teacher; number 1, the name and sound of each letter, including the long and short sound of each vowel; number 15, to be read and spelled by letters and by sound, and read by calling the words at sight; number 16 to be read by spelling and by calling words at sight, with oral lessons on the meaning of the sentences; number 13 to be spelled by sounds; numbers 9 and 10 to be used in reviewing the alphabet for variety of forms of letters; number 5, the pupil to name and point out the lines and plane figures; number 2, analyize the forms of the capitals and tell what lines compose each.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 1.—Print the small letters and draw the straight lines and the rectilinear figures. The blackboard and tablets to be used in teaching the slate exercises.

Develop the idea of numbers to 10 by the use of objects; count to 100 on the numeral frame.

Repeating verses and maxims; oral lessons on size, form, and color, illustrated by objects in the school-room; also upon common plants and animals, illustrated by the objects themselves or by pictures.

Learning to read and spell from letter and word cards, at the option of the teacher.

Singing for 5 or 10 minutes, twice at least each day.

Physical exercises for 5 or 10 minutes, twice at least each session.

FIFTH CLASS.

Hillard's First Primary Reader.—As in the sixth class, completed.

My First School Book.—For spelling on the 24th page, and for reading to the 70th page.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Review the exercises on tablets prescribed for the sixth class; number 19 entire, and number 20 to L; number 6, name and point out the figures and their parts; number 11 to be taught from the tablet; number 14, syllables to be spelled by sound.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 1.—Review the slate exercises prescribed for the sixth class; print the capital letters, also short words; draw the curvilinear figures.

Counting real objects, and counting with the numeral frame by twos to 100.

Repeating verses and maxims; oral lessons on form, size, and color, and on plants and animals; singing and physical exercises as above.

FOURTH CLASS.

My First School Book.—Completed both as a reader and a speller.

Hillard's Second Primary Reader.—To the 50th page; the words in columns to be spelled, and also words selected from the reading lessons; spelling words by sounds.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Numbers 5 and 6 reviewed, with description or analysis of the lines and figures; numbers 11, 13, and 14 reviewed; numbers 12 and 20 to be learned; numbers 17 and 18, names of punctuation marks.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 1.—Used daily; copies in printing and drawing reviewed and completed; printing four or five words daily; writing Arabic figures.

Adding and subtracting numbers to 20, illustrated by objects and the numeral frame; counting on the numeral frame by twos to 100, and by threes to 50.

Repeating verses and maxims; oral lessons on objects as above, with their parts, qualities, and uses; singing and physical exercises as above.

THIRD CLASS.

Hillard's Second Primary Reader.—Completed; the words in columns to be spelled, and also words selected from the reading lessons; at each lesson in reading and spelling, words spelled by sounds; conversations on the meaning of what is read.

Spelling and Thinking Combined.—To the 35th page; spelling words by sounds; questions on the meaning of words.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Numbers 5, 6, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 20, reviewed; number 3; number 18, use of punctuation marks commenced.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 2.—Write the small script letters and draw the plane figures; exercises in writing and drawing to be illustrated by tablets and blackboard; print a few words in capitals.

Eaton's Primary School Arithmetic, or North American Arithmetic.—Begun; miscellaneous questions in adding and subtracting small numbers; practical questions involving similar combinations; the idea of multiplication devolving by the use of the numeral frame; numbers to be combined, occasionally written on slates from dictation.

Repeating verses and maxims; abbreviations; oral lessons as above, and above common objects and the senses; singing and physical exercises as above.

SECOND CLASS.

Hillard's Third Primary Reader.—To the 100th page; the words in columns to be spelled, and also words selected from the reading lessons; difficult words to be spelled by sounds; conversations on the meaning of what is read.

Spelling and Thinking Combined.—To the 75th page; spelling words by sounds; questions on the meaning of words.

Eaton's Primary Arithmetic, or North American Arithmetic.—Addition, subtraction, and multiplication tables to be learned, and the practical questions under these rules to be attended to.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Numbers 3, 5, 6, 11, 12, and 18 to be reviewed; number 7, drawing and oral lessons on the objects represented; number 18, uses and definitions of points and marks learned, and applied in reading lessons.

Boston Primary School Slate, No. 2.—Writing capital and small letters, and drawing planes and solids, with illustrations from tablets and blackboard; writing short words; review abbreviations and Roman numerals.

Repeating verses and maxims; oral lessons on objects, trades, and the most common phenomena of nature; singing and physical exercises as above.

FIRST CLASS.

Hillard's Third Primary Reader.—Completed; with definitions, explanations, spelling by letters and by sounds; also questions on punctuation, the use of capitals, and the marks indicating the pronunciation.

Spelling and Thinking Combined.—Completed; spelling words by sounds; questions on the meaning of words.

Eaton's Primary Arithmetic, or North American Arithmetic.—Completed; the tables of multiplication and division to 12 $\times$ 12 and 144 $\div$ 12; notation to 1,000; counting by threes and fours forwards to 100, and backwards from 100 to 1; practical questions to be attended to.

Boston Primary School Tablets.—Review those used in the second class; frequent drill on number 12; number 8, drawing and oral lessons on the objects represented.

Boston Primary School Slate, No 2.—Writing capitals and small letters, the pupil's name, and words from the spelling lessons, with particular care to imitate the letters on the frame; drawing all the copies on the frame.

Repeating verses and maxims; review abbreviations; oral lessons on objects, trades, occupations, with exercise of observation by noting the properties and qualities of objects, comparing and classifying them, considering their uses, the countries from which they come, and their modes of production, preparation, or fabrication; singing and physical exercises as above.

11. No scholars are to be promoted from one class to another till they are familiar with all the lessons of the class from which they are to be transferred, except for special reasons satisfactory to the sub-committee.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL OF BOSTON.

We will not attempt here to trace the progressive development of this grade of public schools, as the main points are given by Mr. Philbrick in the extract from his report further on, but will introduce the Regulations of 1866.

1. These schools form the second grade in the system of public instruction established in this city.

In these schools are taught the common branches of an English education.

2. The schools for boys shall each be instructed by a master, a sub-master, an usher, a head assistant, and three or more female assistants.

The schools for girls shall each be instructed by a master, a head assistant for each story in the building, and three or more female assistants.

The mixed schools (boys' and girls') shall each be instructed by a master, a sub-master, a head assistant for each story in the building, and three or more female assistants.

Any existing exceptions to the foregoing organizations, authorized by special vote of the board, shall remain until otherwise ordered.

3. Each school shall be allowed a teacher for every fifty-six pupils on the register. and an

additional female assistant may be appointed whenever there are thirty scholars above the complement for the teachers already in the school, if the district committee deem it expedient; and whenever the number of pupils on the register shall be reduced to thirty less than such complement, one female assistant may be removed from such school, if the district comittee recommend it: *Provided*, That, in determining the number of teachers to which any school may be entitled under this section, one head assistant shall not be counted.

4. Any pupil may be admitted into the grammar schools who, on examination by the master or any of his assistants, shall be found able to read, at first sight, easy prose; to spell common words of one, two, or three syllables; to distinguish and name the marks of punctuation; to perform mentally such simple questions in addition, subtraction, and division as may be found in Eaton's Primary Arithmetic; to answer readily to any proposed combination of the multiplication table in which neither factor exceeds 10; to read and write Arabic numbers containing three figures, and the Roman numerals as far as the sign of 100; and to enunciate clearly and accurately the elementary sounds of our language. And no pupil who does not possess these qualifications shall be admitted into any grammar school, except by special permit of the district committee.

5. Within the two weeks preceding the first Monday in March, annually, the master of each grammar school shall visit each primary which is expected to send pupils to his school; and he shall examine the first class in each of said schools, and shall give certificates of admission to the grammar school to such as he may find qualified in accordance with the foregoing requirements. But in the month of July, annually, each teacher in the primary schools shall accompany her first class to such grammar school-house in the vicinity as the master may designate, when he and his assistants shall examine the candidates for admission to the grammar school, in presence of their instructors, and shall give certificates to those who are found to be properly qualified. If, however, the parent or guardian of any applicant not admitted on the examination of the master is dissatisfied with his decision, such person may appeal to the district committee for another examination of said applicant.

6. Pupils admitted from the primary schools are expected to enter the grammar schools on the first Monday of March and of September; but all other applicants residing in the district, found on examination qualified in all respects, may enter the grammar school by applying to the master at the school-house on Monday morning of any week when the schools are in session. Pupils regularly transferred from one grammar school to another may be admitted at any time, on presenting their certificates of transfer, without an examination.

7. No lessons shall be assigned to girls to be studied out of school; and, in assigning out-of-school lessons to boys, the instructors shall not assign a longer lesson daily than a boy of good capacity can acquire by an hour's study; nor shall the lessons to be studied in school be so long as to require a scholar of ordinary capacity to study out of school in order to learn them; and no out-of-school lessons shall be assigned on Saturday.

8. Each school or department of a school shall be divided into four classes. Each class shall consist of two or more divisions, each of which sections shall pursue the studies and use the text-books assigned to its class; but whenever it shall appear that a division of a lower class has, in any particular branch of study, made the attainments requisite for promotion to a higher class, at a period earlier than the regular time for general promotion, then such division may, at the discretion of the master, and with the approval of the committee, enter upon the study of one of the text-books prescribed for the next higher class.

9. The books and exercises of the several classes shall be as follows, except that each district committee may, in the exercise of its discretion, omit or limit the amount of such particular studies in its schools as, in its judgment, will promote the best interests of said school; all such discretionary action, however, to be reported to the board in the quarterly reports, viz:

Class 4.—No. 1, Worcester's Spelling Book; 2, Hillard's Fourth Reader; 3, writing in each school, in such writing books as the district committee may approve; 4, drawing in Bartholomew's Drawing Books; 5, Eaton's Intellectual Arithmetic, with lessons in written arithmetic on the slate and blackboard; 6, Warren's Primary Geography.

Class 3.—No. 1, Worcester's Spelling Book; 2, Hillard's Intermediate Reader; 3, writing, as in fourth class; 4, Eaton's Intellectual Arithmetic and Eaton's Common School Arithmetic, revised edition; 5, drawing in Bartholomew's Drawing Books; 6, Warren's Primary Geography; 7, Kerl's Elementary English Grammar.

Class 2.—No. 1, spelling; 2, Hillard's Fifth Reader; 3, writing, as in fourth class; 4, Eaton's Intellectual Arithmetic and Eaton's Common School Arithmetic, revised edition; 5, Warren's Common School Geography, with exercises in map drawing, on the blackboard and by pen and pencil; 6, Kerl's Elementary English Grammar, or Kerl's Comprehensive English Grammar; 7, drawing in Bartholomew's Drawing Books; 8, exercises in composition, and, in the boys' schools, in declamation; 9, Swan's First Lessons in the History of the United States.

Class 1.—No. 1, spelling—Adams's Spelling Book for advanced classes permitted; 2, reading in Hillard's Sixth Reader; 3, writing, as in fourth class; 4, Geography, as in class 2; 5, Eaton's Intellectual Arithmetic and Eaton's Common School Arithmetic, revised edition; 6, grammar; 7, exercises in composition, and, in the boys' schools, in declamation; 8, drawing in Bartholomew's Drawing Books; 9, Worcester's Dictionary; 10 bookkeeping

by single entry; 11, Worcester's History; 12, Hall's Manual of Morals—a Monday morning lesson, with oral instruction; 13, instruction in natural philosophy, using Hooker's Natural Philosophy as a text-book, with the philosophical apparatus provided for the schools, shall be given at least to the first division of the first class; 14, instruction in physical geography, by occasional exercises, the treatise of Warren or of Cartée being used as a text-book; 15, Hooker's Primary Physiology.

10. In teaching arithmetic to the several classes, every teacher shall be at liberty to employ such books as he shall deem useful, for the purpose of affording illustration and examples; but such books shall not be used to the exclusion or neglect of the prescribed text-books, nor shall the pupils be required to furnish themselves with any book but the text-books.

11. One treatise on mental arithmetic and one treatise on written arithmetic, and no more, shall be used as text-books in the grammar schools.

12. Two half-hours each week in the grammar schools shall be devoted to the study and practice of vocal music. Instruction shall be given to the first and second classes by the music teachers. Musical notation, the singing of the scale, and exercises in reading simple music shall be practiced twice a week by the lower classes, under the direction of the assistant teachers: and the pupils shall undergo examinations and receive credits for proficiency in music, as in the other studies pursued in the schools.

13. It is recommended that in the arrangement of the studies and recitations in the grammar schools those which most severely task the attention and effort of the pupils be, as far as possible, assigned for the forenoon.

14. It shall be the duty of the committee of each grammar school, at the beginning of each school year, either at a special meeting called for this purpose or through their chairman, previously authorized to act in their name, to superintend the organization of the first class, and, at the close of each school year, to see that none are retained as members of that class who are qualified to join the English high school or the girls' high and normal school. No pupil shall be allowed to remain in the master's class more than one year, except with the consent of the district committee.

In his report for September, 1866, the superintendent (John D. Philbrick) characterizes the course of study above prescribed "as too general and vague;" and "the Report on the visit to schools in other cities," in 1867, drawn up by Rev. Dr. Lathrop, strongly commends the course of studies for the grammar schools of New York, in which subjects, and not text-books, are indicated. These suggestions led to a review of the course of study by the committee in the summer of 1867, and to the following comments and suggestions by the superintendent in his report for September, 1867:

My limits will not allow me to trace the history of the present programme, however useful an account of its growth might be as a guide in future action upon it, but I must find space to introduce here the course of study which was adopted by the town of Boston in 1789, when the school system was thoroughly reorganized to adapt it to the circumstances and wants of the time. This course, which was prepared by a committee of learned and able men, among whom was the great patriot Samuel Adams, was as follows:

IN TOWN MEETING, *October* 16, 1789.

"*Voted*, That there shall be one writing school at the south part of the town, one at the centre, and one at the north part; that in those schools the children of both sexes be taught writing, and also arithmetic in the various branches [of it] usually taught in the town schools, including vulgar and decimal fractions.

"That there be one reading school at the south part of the town, one at the centre, and one at the north part; that in those schools the children of both sexes be taught to spell, accent, and read both prose and verse, and also be instructed in English grammar and composition.

"That the children of both sexes be admitted into the reading and writing schools at the age of seven years, having previously received the instruction usual at women's schools; that they be allowed to continue in the reading and writing schools until the age of 14; the boys attending the year round, the girls from the 20th of April to the 20th of October following; that they attend those schools alternately, at such times and subject to such changes as the visiting committee, in consultation with the masters, shall approve."

Such was the "system of education," as it was called, provided for the grammar schools. It will be observed that no text-books were named; and little was the need, for there was, up to about that time, but *one* school-book proper which pupils were expected to have, and that was Dilworth's spelling-book, containing a brief "treatise on English grammar," which was doubtless the English grammar required to be taught. Noah Webster's Institute, comprising three parts, namely, a spelling-book, a grammar, and a reader—the first American school-books—had been but recently published, and it is not probable that the Boston schoolmasters, who were rather conservative in those days, had yet adopted them. The Testament, the Psalter, and the Bible were the only reading books. There were no printed copy-books for writing, and no slates in use, the ciphering being done on paper. The writing-master had, of course, a copy of Dilworth's Arithmetic, entitled "Schoolmaster's Assistant," from which he "set the sums for ciphering" for each pupil in his blank ciphering-book. The pupils had then for books the spelling-book and the Bible, or parts of it, and, these being the only

standard outfit for a common town school, there was no occasion for prescribing the text-books to be used.

The requirements of this programme, let it be remembered, were considerably above what had previously been taught in the schools, and were thought by some to be excessive. Grammar and composition were taught only to the "choice and prime" of the schools, (the few brilliant geniuses,) and it was feared that reading in the upper class would occupy time which ought to be employed on more useful branches. And accordingly a petition was soon laid before the committee, praying that the boys might be required to devote the whole of their last year's schooling to writing and arithmetic, "instead of dividing it between those objects and reading."

By the side of the course of 1789 let us now place the course of 1867, "for comparison helpeth the understanding of matters." In the latter we find 17 books prescribed for use, namely, four readers, one speller, two arithmetics, two grammars, two histories, three music books, and one dictionary; and, besides these, a series of drawing-books and a series of writing-books are to be used. In addition to the studies and exercises of these books, six subjects are required to be taught, for which no text-books are prescribed: composition, declamation, bookkeeping by single entry, natural philosophy, physiology, and physical geography. The whole number of subjects, exclusive of physical exercises and the use of the dictionary, is 15, just three times as many as pupils were thought capable of studying to advantage 80 years ago. * * * * * * * *

If the provisions of the course were fully carried out no pupil would be considered a graduate and be entitled to a diploma who has not mastered the text-books on the list. But if any one will take pains to read through the 17 books on our list, and estimate the aggregate number of pages they contain, he will probably be convinced that the amount of matter is too great to be learned in the period properly belonging to this grade of schools. And then, the theory on which many, if not all, the examiners proceed is, that pupils are not only to be prepared on the matter of the text-books so far as they have studied them, but also to answer questions given out at random on points not embraced in the books, the range and character of such outside questions depending upon the judgment of each individual examiner. But, as there is no plan of oral instruction laid down in the programme, some of the more ambitious teachers try to teach too much miscellaneous matter, while others, of the opposite cast of character, limit themselves quite strictly to the text-books. Then it is to be remembered that there are several branches to be taught for which no text-books are named or allowed. In this important part of the programme there is an entire absence of all limitations. There is no maximum and no minimum of requirements, either expressed or implied. It is left with the master of each of the 22 schools to teach as much or as little of these subjects as he sees fit. Where, then, is the standard by which it is to be determined whether a pupil has "properly completed the prescribed course of study," and become entitled to a certificate of graduation? It is quite plain, then, that our programme does not set such limits to the pursuit of the several branches of instruction as are requisite to constitute an intelligible and definite standard of attainments; and it is in this absence of limitations that the course seems to me to be especially defective.

Besides this want of restrictions in respect to the contents of the instruction to be given, and the consequent want of a definite standard of attainments for graduation, there is another radical defect to be pointed out; I mean the want of due order in the arrangement of the studies, both with reference to each other and with reference to the several classes. * *

It appears, then, that the programme is defective in two important elements: in the lack of provisions respecting the standards of attainment in the several studies, and in the lack of provisions respecting the relative order of the studies. The studies on the list are all desirable, though not equally desirable. There is no one of them which I should wish either to discontinue or to exchange for any other which is not now required. The practical question, then, for consideration is this: can all these studies be taught to advantage during the period allotted to the grammar school course? In other words, can those branches usually deemed indispensable receive due attention, while, in addition, the other studies on the list are taught to any useful extent, without imposing too much mental labor upon the pupils? This question I am inclined to answer in the affirmative. * * * * *

Assuming the grammar school period to be from six to seven years—the pupils being generally from eight to nine years of age at the time of admission—we are first to determine the number of steps into which the course of study shall be divided, or, what amounts to the same thing, the number of classes into which the pupils shall be graded. I am inclined to adopt six as the most convenient number of steps; not, however, with the view of attempting to make the studies required in each step the exact measure of a year's work. * *

Among the most obvious and at the same time the most important considerations to be kept in view in designating the requirements of the several classes are the following:

That the amount of work to be done should be graduated to the average capacity of teachers and pupils, and not to the skill of the ablest teachers or to the ability of the brightest pupils.

The arrangement should be made so as to meet the wants, as far as practicable, both of those pupils who are to complete the course and of those who drop out at different stages of

the course; and, to this end, each stage should be complete in itself and at the same time a fit preparation for the next stage above it.

That undue prominence should not be given to one branch at the expense of others.

That regard should be had to the progressive development of the mental faculties as well as to the logical relation and the practical utility of the different branches of instruction.

That while the specifications of the required attainments should be definite enough to constitute an intelligible standard for each class they should avoid such details as tend to embarrass the energy and inventive genius of teachers.

That every requirement of doubtful utility should be excluded, since there is matter enough to be taught which is of unquestionable value.

That whatever is not worthy of being remembered is not worthy of a place among the appointed studies.

"That it is better to know perfectly and retain easily and securely a part than to have many studies pass through the mind as clouds sweep through the sky."

With these principles in view we come now to consider what disposition of the studies is to be made in order to accomplish the object proposed. It is not necessary that I should at this time say all that I think about the details of the treatment which each branch should receive. So far as practicable, I avoid, at this time, the discussion of the modes of teaching. * *

Spelling.—I would not undervalue spelling as a branch of common school education. It must be taught in all elementary schools. This art was not always so necessary. Roger Ascham, a man of great wisdom and learning, the tutor of princes and princesses, the author of one of the very best books on education ever written, could not spell in the modern sense of spelling. The greatest writers of the Elizabethan age were also ignorant of this art. Shakspeare did not know how to spell his own name. But in those days there was no recognized standard of orthography, and so every one was left to spell according to his own fancy. The invention of dictionaries took away that privilege, and we moderns must strictly conform to the conventional mode of representing spoken words by alphabetic characters under pain of being classed with the illiterate. Fashion has made this penalty so dreadful that many an intelligent person refrains altogether from the use of written language for fear of exposing his ignorance of spelling. As things are, it is, no doubt, very hard for one ignorant of spelling to get on in the world; but one of the principal objects of education is to help everybody get on in the world, and so spelling must not be neglected. Still, it may be well to remember that spelling is not the chief end of man. As an instrument of intellectual discipline, it ranks the lowest of all studies. We should, therefore, give it no more time than is absolutely necessary, discarding at once and forever the idea of attaching much merit to the ability to spell picked hard words without a failure. It is very important to fix a reasonable standard of attainment in this branch and then to take care that it is observed; that pupils are brought up to it but not pushed far beyond it. What shall the standard be? Not a certain per cent., to be obtained on test examination, the words being selected at liberty. It should consist of a definite list of words to be spelled; a proper vocabulary, properly classed. A good spelling-book is just such a vocabulary, and should be the standard for test examinations in spelling. Formal lessons in spelling should be limited to the spelling-book if its vocabulary is as copious and choice as it should be. In the whole course of study there should be a vast amount of practical teaching of spelling, in compositions, dictation exercises, and written abstracts of lessons in nearly all the branches taught; and, to complete the requirements in this branch, it should be the aim from the first step to lead the pupils, by various ingenious contrivances, to form the habit of observing the orthography of words.

Where does spelling belong in the course? Before entering the grammar schools the pupils have already completed the primary speller, which contains a very considerable vocabulary. These are now well started in this branch. They are just in the condition to go forward rapidly in it, and they should do it. For the first year, or step, it should be the most prominent study. The spelling-book should be spelled through two or three times during the first three stages of the course, and the regular drill in this text-book should be considered as finished before the pupils enter the first class, or, better still, before they enter the second. During the early part of the course children are as capable as ever they will be to learn spelling, while they are not capable of studying to advantage other studies that are usually required at this period. And besides, if they were made to go through the spelling-book at an early period, they would be aided thereby in acquiring the ability to utter words with fluency and accuracy, the department of reading which should be conquered during the same period.

Writing.—Most of our teachers understand very well the art of teaching writing. Or perhaps it would be more strictly true to say that they know how to give good lessons in penmanship. But their skill does not seem to be turned to the best account. This, however, is not altogether their fault. The programme gives them no directions as to what should be accomplished or attempted during the successive stages of the course, nor does it state, even in the most general terms, what is to be expected in this branch. * * * * *

It seems to me, that in the management of this branch, the principal aim should be to secure to all the pupils the ability to write a neat, legible, rapid hand. If the pupils who complete the course can, without sacrificing more important objects of education, acquire a

hand which has, besides these more strictly useful qualities, grace and elegance, and the precision of an engraved copy, by all means let them do it. But this should not be the leading idea in ordering the course of instruction.

To carry out these views, I would suggest that the regular drill upon copy-books should end at the close of the fourth stage of the course, although occasional lessons in review of the principles might be permitted in the upper classes, and, if found necessary, one or two copy-books might be written. The pupils in the lowest class would be required to write through four or five writing books instead of one or two, and to write the books in course, taking them in the order of the numbers in the series, instead of writing over and over again the same elementary book for a year or two. In the next class this course might be repeated, and so on through two more classes, omitting the more elementary books, and adding the higher, according to circumstances. There should also be much practical writing in all the classes, especially in the higher ones, upon dictation exercises, compositions, abstracts of lessons, and book-keeping. The results of instruction in writing, as shown in these practical exercises, should be taken into account in estimating the merit of a school, and they ought to weigh more than the results as shown in the copy-books. Writing from dictation without copy is the best practical test of proficiency in this branch.

Reading.—This branch when properly taught has reference to three objects: to an ability to utter written language with fluency and correctness; to the acquisition of knowledge and discipline; and to the power of properly expressing thought and emotion by inflection, emphasis, and the tones of the voice. These objects are so closely connected that they cannot be wholly separated in teaching, nor is such a separation necessary. And yet it is proper and desirable that each of these three objects should, in succession, be made most prominent during successive periods of the course. The first should claim special attention in the two lower classes; the second in the two middle classes, and the third in the two upper classes. In the management of reading, I would have these three stages kept distinctly in view.

In accordance with this plan, the pupils in the lower classes would be taught to enunciate with force and distinctness, to pronounce correctly, and to utter without hesitation or mistakes, the words of the printed page. These elements of reading, which constitute what is sometimes called the mechanical department, should, during this period, be the principal object of the teacher; and in examining pupils of this grade, the examiner should have regard mainly to these elements. In connection with the instruction in this mechanical department, there would be, of course, more or less inquiry into the meaning of the pieces, and bad habits in regard to inflections and tones of voice should not be allowed. If the work in this first stage has been well done, the pupils of the middle classes will need to give little time to the mechanical part of utterance, and they will be prepared for the next higher department, the acquisition of knowledge and discipline. This now properly becomes the chief object of effort. The meaning of the pieces should be analyzed. Accounts of the authors should be looked up in the books of reference by the pupils themselves, when practicable, to cultivate the habit of investigation and of self-instruction. Inquiry should be made about the works from which the pieces were extracted, and copies of the works themselves, if within reach, should be inspected. The reading book should now be used by the teacher as a sort of intellectual conductor, by means of which he endeavors to put the minds of the pupils in communication with the thought and history and practical knowledge embodied in literature, and to create a taste for reading and studying "books that are books." The pupils should be trained to notice carefully the nature of the facts stated, to comprehend the moral and scientific principles presented, and to exercise the imagination in "picturing out" the scenes and objects described. It is to be understood, however, that exercises like these are not to occupy the pupils exclusively, but largely—mainly perhaps. Along with these, there must be much practice in reading, with the necessary attention to correct utterance—practice not merely on a few favorite pieces, but on many pieces.

The pupils are now supposed to have completed two-thirds of the grammar school course, and if they have been taught reading on the plan proposed, they are sufficiently proficient in this branch for the practical purposes of life, using the word "practical" in the common, but rather restricted sense. If they continue in school, they are furnished with the requisite foundation for the highest department of reading, comprising what may be regarded as the refinements and accomplishments of the art—expression in its high and large sense, impassioned and finished utterance, effective and appropriate delivery of emotional compositions of the highest order, both in prose and verse. This artistic reading—not artificial, stilted—requires and implies mental, vocal and æsthetic culture. It is a desirable accomplishment, but it can hardly be classed as a branch of elementary education, and therefore it should not occupy a very large share of time to the sacrifice of more strictly utilitarian branches, such as composition, natural philosophy and physiology.

Our text-books in reading are not now read through; at least, this is the case with those prescribed for the upper classes. Now if the reading books are too voluminous, they should be reduced in size; but if they are not too voluminous, they should be read through. I do not mean to affirm that our present reading books do contain too much matter. The amount of reading matter ought not to be stinted. While I would cut down the size of the text-books in all the other branches, and would not even consider the question of introducing a bulky one, yet I do not object to good-sized readers, provided that their matter is always as

choice as copious. But the programme, to be consistent, should require the reading by the pupils of the whole of each book in the series prescribed. It is obviously not right to require pupils to buy a considerable amount of printed paper which they are not expected to use.

Arithmetic.—I should be glad to see an improvement in the management of this branch—management, I say, meaning by this word something besides teaching—meaning whatever controls, shapes, and guides the teaching. It seems to me that we might get better results than we now do, and at the same time make a great saving in the expenditure of our educating power—better returns with less outlay. How can these desirable ends be accomplished? By harmonizing the programme and the authoritative inspection, and employing both these controlling agencies in such a manner as to favor rational teaching. The negative character of the provisions in our programme, respecting instruction in arithmetic, would seem to leave the teachers free to handle this branch according to their individual judgment. If this were the case, the teaching and its results would reflect the views and the abilities of the teachers. But the very absence of directions on the programme tends to crush out all independence and originality in teaching arithmetic. For the text-book is the programme, and the examinations are naturally based upon it. Without stopping to describe what arithmetical absurdities the circumstances compel all the teachers, except a few of the most independent and progressive, to perpetrate, I will proceed directly to state, as briefly as I can, the plan of teaching which I think the programme, backed up by the inspection, should encourage.

I begin with written arithmetic. No exercises, no modes of preparing or conducting recitations, no explanations, should be required or allowed merely for the purpose of intellectual discipline; for it is safe to assume that the method of proceeding which is best calculated to communicate a competent knowledge of the subject will really be the best as a disciplining process. Why make arithmetic hard for the sake of mere discipline, and then have no time left for algebra, geometry, or natural philosophy? Then it should be laid down as a fundamental rule that the text-book should not be taught in course. There is no branch of elementary instruction which, in my judgment, should be taught more independently of the text-book, than arithmetic. The proper use of an arithmetical text-book is to relieve the teacher, not wholly, but to a certain extent, from the task of preparing suitable problems for illustrating arithmetical principles and operations. The practice of giving out a certain number of sums in the book to be done at home should be wholly abolished. Until pupils are twelve or thirteen years of age, their lessons in arithmetic should be taught to them out of the brain of the teacher, instead of being assigned to them, to be learned from the pages of the book and recited. The hearing of recitations in arithmetic should be the exception, while teaching exercises should be the rule. Instruction in arithmetic during two-thirds of the course, or four of the six steps, should have for its main object to communicate such a practical knowledge of numerical operations as would be most generally useful to the mass of people, without special regard to particular occupations or pursuits. During the last two steps, more attention might be given to the science—the theory of numbers and the solution of problems requiring more difficult logical processes.

Pupils should, on their admission to the grammar school, immediately begin to receive instruction in written arithmetic, and they should continue to receive a short daily lesson in it until they have acquired a competent knowledge of the subject. No such thing as a brilliant or showy recitation in this branch should be tolerated, and of course no time should be wasted in drilling the pupils to show off. From the beginning to the end of the course, the pupils should not be required to commit to memory and recite a single "rule," for if a pupil knows how to perform an operation, he does not need a rule, and if he does not know how to perform an operation, a rule will not help him to understand it. Descriptions of processes should be required of pupils in their own language—but only after the processes themselves are well understood, and made familiar by practice.

Let no time be consumed in teaching children, at the outset, the whole theory of numeration and notation, and in requiring them to write every imaginable number up to nonillions. If they can read and write numbers of four figures, let them proceed at once to ciphering, but let them not be kept a half a year in simple addition, trying to foot up formidable columns of abstract numbers with the rapidity and accuracy of an accountant. During their first week in the grammar school, they should perform all the four operations in whole numbers, the examples, at first, being in small concrete numbers. In a short time, they should go on to fractions, vulgar and decimal. Then they should go back again to addition, review the ground, using larger numbers, both concrete and abstract, and proceed through compound numbers and percentage, applied to interest, discount, and profit and loss. In three or four years, pupils if properly taught will have a fair practical knowledge of the essential operations. If they still continue in school during the final year of the course or the last two years, they might again review for the purpose of practice in solving more difficult problems, and of acquiring some knowledge of the theory, and then give some attention to proportion and the roots.

As for mental arithmetic, but little time should be devoted to it, and it should always be taught in connection with written arithmetic. That is, the subject in written arithmetic to be taught on any given day should be taught on the same day or on the preceding day in intellectual arithmetic.

To sum up the whole, in a word, let some plan be devised whereby the teachers will be

wholly emancipated from the text-book routine, and be permitted and required to teach the subject, and to teach it with the sole view to give all the pupils a competent knowledge of it in the shortest time.

Grammar.—There is just now, among a certain class of educational writers, a decided disposition to disparage the study of grammar. They speak of it as lumber—useless stuff, as the means of the "artificial production of stupidity." They find that pupils who have had the benefit of some grammatical lessons do, nevertheless, commit errors in the use of language, and do not always speak and write English with Addisonian elegance, and so they condemn grammar altogether. * * Many things which have been unskilfully and unseasonably taught, as grammar, justly deserve censure, but grammar skilfully and seasonably taught is, in my humble judgment, an indispensable branch of elementary education. Grammar, regarded simply as a means of training the intellectual powers, is of great value, but it is quite unnecessary to teach it with reference to this object; for, as in the case of arithmetic, this object will be best accomplished in the grammar school grade by teaching it solely with the view to secure correct and apt expression. "It is the province of grammar to guide us not merely in the expression of our own thoughts, but also in our apprehension of the thoughts, and our interpretation of the words of others." This it does when effectually taught. But the mere memorizing of the rules and principles of grammar will exert little or no beneficial influence over any person's manner of speaking or writing. The principles should be rendered familiar by appropriate exercises. The chief of these exercises are the parsing and analyzing of what is right, and the correcting of what is wrong; and composition, not forgetting "conversation and intercourse." Exercises in speech and writing are not only modes of testing the proficiency of pupils in the use of language, but are also necessary to a complete course of English grammar. Exercising in parsing and analyzing are not generally managed as well as they might be, and hence are not as profitable as they might be. But of what branch may not the same be said? In their right place and with the proper limitations they are exceedingly valuable. My aim will be to help give them their true place and restrict them within just bounds.

Analysis should be limited to the last year of the course; and it seems to me that it would not be well to attempt to drill pupils in it until they are able to resolve at once, according to a prescribed formula, any complex or compound sentence that may be selected. Rather than devote the time to analysis required for the accomplishment of this object, I should prefer to give up the exercise altogether. Parsing should be made more prominent than analysis. Syntactical parsing is, indeed, as I believe, the best and most thorough method of analysis. "The grand clew to all syntactical parsing is the sense," and this exercise, judiciously conducted, with the view to lead the pupils to discover the true meaning of the author, is certainly one good way "to study language as the vehicle of the mind." But I doubt if I should ever give a lesson in parsing to be prepared and recited. At any rate, there should be no attempt at a "splendid recitation;" there should be no "rattling off," no parrot talk, no rigmarole formulas, no vain repetition of etymological definitions and distinctions. Syntactical parsing would be appropriate during the last two years of the course. This higher description of parsing, which calls into exercise nearly all the intellectual powers, should be preceded by a simpler and more limited kind; that which is called etymological parsing. This consists in distinguishing and defining the different parts of speech, and their classes and modifications. It should commence with the course and be continued until the higher kind is begun.

Exercises in correcting what is wrong, a very important part of grammar, should be extended over the whole course. It is not enough to correct such wrong expressions as may occur in the ordinary "conversation and intercourse" of the school. There should be a systematic and comprehensive course of these exercises prescribed in the programme, and graduated to correspond to the progress of the pupils in the principles of the language. Exercises in correcting should be carried along in connection with exercises in parsing, for these two classes of exercises are complements of each other, and both alike demand or imply a knowledge of the author's thought.

But while I would recommend the systematic teaching of grammar through the whole course of this grade, not even excluding it from the lowest class as is now done, I would have very little of committing and reciting the text-book; I would have but one text-book, small in bulk, which should be in the hands of all the teachers of the different classes, as a manual, guide, and authority in grammatical instruction. It might be put into the hands of the pupils who have reached the third or fourth stage of the course. For the first half of the course, at least, the pupils will do better without a book than with one. The reading-book, the blackboard, and the slate, will of course be brought into requisition.

I may as well, perhaps, say in this connection what I have to say about composition. As already intimated, I would have composition taught in all the classes of this grade.

Composition should be made a very prominent branch of instruction, and always in connection with, and as a part of grammatical instruction on the one hand, and on the other hand, in connection with and as auxiliary to every other branch taught. That is, in teaching each branch, the aim should be to lodge in the mind of the pupil definite knowledge about it which he can express in his own words. In this way the materials of the composition are to be furnished. The subjects assigned for composition should have reference to

the materials already communicated—to something that has been taught. The writing of the composition, after the materials have been furnished, affords at once the kind of exercise requisite to give command of written language, and the means of testing the pupil's grammatical accuracy.

Geography.—There is perhaps no part of our programme that needs a more radical change than that which relates to the study of geography. The present requirement designates two text-books to be used, one in the two lower classes, and the other in the two upper. In connection with the latter book, maps are to be drawn, and as supplementary to it, physical geography is to be taught by occasional exercises with the use of Guyot's wall maps. This provision means, as practically interpreted by most committees who examine classes in geography, that the two prescribed text-books are to be learned by the pupils so as to be able to answer whatever questions may be asked about the text or the maps. Consequently, the teachers, with few exceptions in all the grammar schools, are trying hard to make the contents of the two geography books stick in the memories of their pupils. They find this a truly Sisyphean labor. What was supposed to have been learned last year is found to have escaped from the memory, and the ground must be gone over again this year. Only by incessant and laborious reviews are the pupils kept prepared for examination. There being no principle of association by which the facts are connected with each other, each particular fact must be held by a dead pull of the memory. The result of this system of instruction is, that a large share of time is devoted to geography, without communicating a corresponding amount of valuable geographical knowledge. The larger half of what the pupils are at so much pains to learn is of no practical utility, and the sooner they throw it overboard, after their examinations are ended, the better for them.

Geography should occupy a subordinate place in the course, in respect to the amount of time assigned to it. Nothing can be more preposterous than to attempt to cram a pupil during his period of schooling with all the facts in geography, which he may, by the remotest possibility, have occasion to know.

Mr. Mill, in his recent masterly address on education, says: "It has always seemed to me a great absurdity that history and geography should be taught in schools, except in elementary schools for children of the laboring classes, whose subsequent access to books is limited. Whoever really learnt history and geography except by private reading? and what an utter failure a system of education must be, if it has not given the pupil a sufficient taste for reading to seek for himself those most attractive and easily intelligible of all kinds of knowledge? Besides, such history and geography as can be taught in schools exercise none of the faculties of intelligence except the memory." Although Mr. Mill seems to me to take rather extreme ground in relation to these studies, he is not an authority in such matters to be lightly regarded. Our system of education is designed for no special class; it is for the children of all classes, and it can never be a question whether geography and history shall be taught in our common schools, whatever may be thought best for the caste schools of England. But I confess my suspicion that the time will come when the study of geography, as now pursued by us, will be disapproved. Indeed, it appears to me not altogether improbable that in the progress of educational ideas, our laborious and persistent efforts to stow away in the memories of our school-children so much geographical rubbish will come to be looked upon as something at least approaching to absurdity—that these efforts will be looked upon by future generations much as we now look upon the efforts made in our schools in 1789, to lodge the text of Dilworth's Grammar in the memories of the pupils of that day. * * * * * * * * * *

The following summary comprises most of the topics appropriate to the course I have in view: "The distribution of land into continents and of water into oceans, and the proportion of the one to the other; the distribution of continents into countries and of oceans into seas; the chief features of the continents in respect of mountains, valleys, plains, deserts, forests, lakes, rivers, and coast-lines; and of the seas in respect of bays or gulfs and islands; the distribution of heat and cold, day and night, over the earth, and of winds, currents, and tides over the seas; the chief productions of the soil, whether vegetable or mineral, in different countries, and the principal forms of animal life in the different regions both of land and sea; the leading industrial occupations of the different peoples, with the circumstances that determine them, and the manner in which they dispose of the products of their industry, together with what is remarkable in their character, civilization, and modes and habits of life, particularly, and these are determined by the country or climate which they inhabit. Should the pupil leave school without advancing further, he will carry away with him such knowledge of the subject as will serve most of the purposes for which it is taught in school. The teacher who thus makes it his aim to inform his pupils in the broad elements of physical, commercial, and, if we may so call it, moral geography, and who looks upon the geography of names and locality as of value only in subordination to them, will confer a service upon them, whether as regards their education, their information, and the development of their human sympathies, infinitely beyond what he would do were he to store their memories with the exact heights in feet of all the mountains and the length in miles of all the rivers between the poles, or the exact areas of all the countries, the names of all the towns, and the numbers of the several populations all round the globe."—*Currie.*

When we have settled the question as to the amount and kind of geographical knowledge

to be imparted in school, there remains the two-fold problem of determining the order of the topics and the distribution of the work to be done among the six stages of the programme.

I will merely state my conclusion respecting this problem, without detailing the reasons for it.

1. A course which may be called primary or introductory, to occupy the period assigned to the first two stages of the programme. The objects of this preliminary course would be to acquaint the pupils with the elements of geographical description, by directing their attention to the features of the landscape around them, and putting them in possession of the terms by which these are denoted; to fill the mind with lively pictures of what may be called geographical types, such as mountain, hill, valley, gorge, plain, desert, table land, forest, undulating surface, mines, animals, and plants, river, rapid, falls, bluff, creek, harbor. bay, beach, lake, pond, canal, railroad, marsh, bridge, vineyard, plantation, farm, glacier, volcano, dwellings, village, town, city, palace, manufactory, island, cape, promontory, isthmus, peninsula. It is of little use to commit to memory definitions of these elements or types. The thing is to give the pupil correct and vivid conception of the things themselves In connection with this instruction, the pupils should be taught to understand how these geographical types are represented on the map by symbols, by reference to a plan of the school-house and yard, a map of the public squares, of the city, of the vicinity, and of the State. Some instruction on the globe and the map of the world might be added.

2. A general view of the geography of the world, with Mercator's map, to occupy the third-stage of the programme.

3. The geography of the United States, to occupy the fourth stage.

4. The geography of the continents, to occupy the fifth stage.

5. General review of geography, to occupy the sixth and last stage.

Map-drawing from memory should be practiced from the beginning. It should be remembered that teaching the maps is not teaching geography, but that the aim should be to teach geography through the maps.

As to text-books, I will only say that they should contain a limited amount of matter, and that there should be but one systematic text-book, professing to give a course of geographical lessons on the whole globe. The book for the introductory instruction, if any book is allowed for it, should be a captivating pictorial manual, to be read and talked about, and not committed to memory and recited.

THE GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL.

Prior to 1789 no public provision appears to have been made for the instruction of girls in the town of Boston. The only schools to which they were admitted in 1784 were called writing schools, and were kept by the teachers of the public schools between the forenoon and afternoon sessions. In that year (1784) Caleb Bingham opened a private school for girls, which met with such success that he was solicited and induced to take charge of one of the three reading schools, into which girls were admitted on a footing of equality with boys, the girls attending the reading school in the morning and the boys the writing school, and in the afternoon reversing this course, the masters never changing rooms, and the boys and girls changing the half day once a month. Even this privilege was only accorded to the girls for six months in the year, from April to October. This continued till 1826, when the city council appropriated $2,000 to establish a high school for girls on the monitorial plan. The school became so popular under the mastership of Ebenezer Bailey that larger accommodations and more teachers were demanded, and the problem was solved by discontinuing the school and introducing special branches into the grammar school, and allowing the girls to remain in them till they were sixteen years of age, although the boys were dismissed at fourteen years. This was a backward step, and its influence was to retard the establishment of similar schools in other cities.

In 1847 an attempt was made in the school committee to modify the course of instruction in the grammar school, "so that the school for boys should comprehend the studies which will be most useful to them as men," and "a high school for girls should be established, adapted to female education," and among other things "plain sewing should be taught and practiced in all the classes," and "habits of industry and economy" encouraged. After five years of agitation, on the recommendation of the superintendent, (Nathan Bishop,) a normal school for female teachers was made part of the system of public instruction,

and went into operation in the fall of 1852. The pupils were required to have completed the studies of the grammar school, and the course of instruction embraced a thorough review of those studies, and in addition, English literature, the French language, the natural sciences, intellectual and moral philosophy, geometry, drawing, music, and physiology, all taught with special reference to the art of teaching. As this school had special reference to training its pupils for teaching, it did not meet the wants of all the friends of a girls high school; and in 1854 it was converted into a high school for girls, retaining a normal course which was made truly effective for its purpose by ingrafting upon it in 1864 a training school under Miss Jennie H. Stickney, a pupil of one of the State normal schools and the Oswego (N. Y.) training school. We add the regulations of the school committee for 1867.

REGULATIONS AND COURSE OF STUDY OF GIRLS' HIGH AND NORMAL SCHOOL.

1. This school was instituted in 1852 with the design of furnishing to those pupils who have passed through the usual course of studies at the grammar schools for girls and at other girls schools in this city, an opportunity for a higher and more extended education, and also to fit such of them as desire to become teachers.

2. The instructors shall be a master, a head assistant, and as many assistants as may be found expedient; but the whole number of assistants shall not exceed the ratio of one for every thirty pupils.

3. The examination of candidates for admission to the schools shall take place annually on the Wednesday and Thursday next succeeding the day of the annual exhibition of the grammar schools in July.

4. Candidates for admission must be over fifteen and not more than nineteen years of age. They must present certificates of recommendation from the teachers whose schools they last attended, and must pass a satisfactory examination in the following branches, viz: spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, and history.

5. The examination shall be conducted by the instructors of the school both orally and from written questions previously prepared by them and approved by the committee of the school. It shall be the duty of the said committee to be present and to assist at the examination, and the admission of candidates shall be subject to their approval.

6. The course of studies and instruction in this school shall be as follows:

JUNIOR CLASS.

Reading, spelling, and writing continued; arithmetic, geography, and grammar reviewed; physical geography, natural philosophy, analysis of language, and structure of sentences; synonyms; rhetoric; exercises in English composition; history; Latin, begun; exercises in drawing and vocal music.

MIDDLE CLASS.

Natural philosophy continued; English literature; algebra; moral philosophy; Latin, continued; French begun, (instruction given by a native French teacher;) rhetoric, with exercises in composition, continued; physiology, with lectures; general history; exercises in drawing and vocal music; reading standard English works, with exercises in criticism.

SENIOR CLASS.

Latin and French continued; geometry; general history; intellectual philosophy; astronomy; chemistry, with lectures; exercises in composition; exercises in drawing and in vocal music; exercises in criticism, comprising a careful examination of works of the best English authors; instruction in the theory and practice of teaching. Such instruction in music shall be given to all the pupils as may qualify them to teach vocal music in our public schools.

7. The sessions of the schools shall begin at 9 o'clock a. m. and close at 2 o'clock p. m., except on Wednesday and Saturday, when the school shall close at 1 o'clock.

8. Instead of a public exhibition in this school the parents and friends of the pupils shall be invited through the pupils to attend the regular exercises in the various rooms during the five days preceding the last school day of the school year, and during such visitations the exercises of the school shall be conducted in the usual manner

9. The plan of study shall be arranged for three years. Pupils who have attended for that period, and who have completed the course in a manner satisfactory to the teachers and the committee on the school, shall be entitled to receive a diploma or certificate to that effect on leaving school.

ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL.

The English high school, or as it was originally called, the English classical school, was first proposed in 1820, to enlarge the course of instruction at that time given in the grammar schools, which dismissed the pupil at the age of 14 years, and to give that kind of education which in discipline and studies should fit him for his vocation, whether mercantile or mechanical, and which at that time could only be got in private schools. The committee, of which Samuel Adams Wells, an eminent merchant, was chairman, represented the clerical profession in Rev. John Pierpont and Rev. N. L. Frothingham, and the legal profession in Leonard Shaw, afterwards chief justice; and the press in Benjamin Russell. Their recommendation was almost unanimously adopted by the town, and liberal provision was made for philosophical apparatus and teachers, (all of whom were to be regular college graduates,) to put the new school on an equality with the old Latin classical school. The school was opened in the spring of 1821, under the mastership of George B. Emerson, who drew up its first course of study, and inaugurated its methods of teaching.

The original requirements for admission were as follows:

(1.) That the candidate be not less than 12 years of age. (2.) That the candidates shall be admitted only at the beginning of the school year, i. e. after the summer vacation. (3.) That the candidates shall produce, from the masters of the schools last attended by them, certificates of good moral character, and presumed qualifications for admission to the school. (4.) That the candidate "in order to be admitted shall be found well versed in reading, writing, English grammar, geography, and arithmetic as far as proportion, including a general view of vulgar and decimal fractions."

In 1829 these terms were modified so as to require the candidate "to have made satisfactory progress in arithmetic," and particularly to be well versed in "Colburn's first lessons and sequel," and the other prescribed studies. In 1852 the examination included the "history of the United States," and that the examination should be "strict," conducted by written questions. Mr. Philbrick, in his report for 1864, gives the progress of this pioneer school of its class in detail, from which we make the following extracts:

The mode in which candidates for admission are examined is as follows:

Questions in arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history, also a list of words for spelling, are prepared by the teachers and submitted to the committee for approval. Being altered, if thought advisable, and approved, they are, except the words for spelling, printed on large and good paper, with suitable blank spaces on which the candidate is to write his work.

In accordance with notice published in the newspapers, the boys assemble at the schoolhouse, at 8 o'clock, a. m., on the day of examination. They are placed in three or four different rooms, and the candidates from different schools are called to the teacher's desk, where their recommendations are examined. Then, their names, the names of their parents or guardians, places of residence, the schools from which they come, and their ages, are recorded.

They are next assembled in the hall, and having been counted, each receives a number upon a piece of paper drawn out by lot. His number is the only name by which he is known until he is called up for admission or rejection. The applicants are then divided into four nearly equal portions, and placed in four separate rooms. One of the sets of questions, with pens and ink, is distributed to each division, all the divisions having the same set at the same time. Each boy writes his number upon the paper and proceeds to his work. The time allowed for a set of questions varies from one hour to two hours or more, according to the amount of labor, although one hour for any department is deemed sufficient for a pupil thoroughly prepared. The papers are then taken from all, and another set placed before them, and so on until the whole four are finished. Subsequently the boys are examined in reading and spelling, the words in the latter being written by them.

The papers are next examined, and the proper estimate assigned in each branch. The value of each question has been previously fixed, and the total value of any one of the printed sets is one hundred, so that the correct answers give immediately the per cent.

All who have an average of 75 per cent. or more are marked admitted. They are called up, their names ascertained, and they receive certificates of admission. Others receiving less than 75 and more than 50 per cent., unless quite deficient in some one branch, are admitted in the same way.

Others having a less average are questioned as to their previous advantages and pursuits, and, if circumstances seem to indicate that they may succeed, they are admitted on trial.

For example, if one has been principally engaged in the study of the classics, this is a favorable circumstance, and offsets, in a degree, his deficiencies. These last, after a trial of one quarter, are required to leave the school, if it becomes evident that they cannot succeed; and these are almost without exception the only candidates whose names and circumstances are known before a decision has been made with regard to their admission.

The outline of the course of study proposed for this school by the committee who recommended its establishment has already been quoted.

The outline of the course of study proposed by the committee in 1820 was as follows:

The studies of the first class (lowest class) to be as follows: Composition; reading from the most approved authors; exercises in criticism, comprising critical analysis of the language, grammar, and style of the best English authors, their errors and beauties; declamation; geography; arithmetic, continued; algebra.

The studies of the second class—composition; reading; exercise in criticism; declamation: algebra, continued; ancient and modern history and chronology; logic; geometry; plane trigonometry, and its application to mensuration of heights and distances; navigation; surveying; mensuration of superfices and solids; forensic discussions.

The studies of the third class—composition; exercises in criticism; declamation; mathematics; logic; history, particularly that of the United States, continued; natural philosophy, including astronomy; moral and political philosophy.

The following is the programme of studies in 1823–24:

Class 3, (*lowest*.)—No. 1. Intellectual and written arithmetic, by Colburn and Lacroix. 2. Ancient and modern geography, by Worcester. 3. General history, by Tyler; history of the United States, by Grimshaw. 4. Elements of arts and sciences, by Blair. 5. Reading, grammar, and declamation. 6. Book-keeping, by single and double entry. 7. Sacred geography.

Class 2.—Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, continued. 8. Algebra, by dictation; * * * * and Euler. 9. Rhetoric and composition; * * * * Blair's lectures abridged. 10. Geometry, by Legendre. 11. Natural philosophy. 12. Natural theology, by Paley.

Class 1.—Nos. 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, continued. 13. Chronology. 14. Moral philosophy, by Paley. 15. Forensics. 16. Criticisms on English authors. 17. Practical mathematics, comprehending navigation, surveying, mensuration, astronomical calculations, &c., together with the construction and use of mathematical instruments. 20. A course of experimental lectures on the various branches of natural philosophy. 21. Evidences of Christianity, by Paley.

This programme was slightly modified in the copy of the regulations printed in 1827, the written arithmetic by Colburn being substituted for that of Lacroix; Goodrich's history of the United States for Grimshaw's; and the Constitution of the United States for the elements of arts and sciences, by Blair.

And the following studies were permitted in the first class, if the master should think proper to introduce them: Smellie's philosophy of natural history, chemistry, intellectual philosophy, linear drawing, and logic. Writing to be taught in all the classes.

The study of the French language was introduced in 1832, though it is not mentioned in the printed programme until 1836.

The next change appears in the regulations for 1833—composition being added to the studies of the third class, bookkeeping transferred from the second class to the third, and algebra from the third to the second, and the following studies stricken out: from the third class, sacred geography; from the second, rhetoric; and from the first, chronology, forensics, and criticisms of English authors.

In the regulations for 1836, we find that Blair's rhetoric is restored, elements of astronomy introduced, and the permitted studies are disposed of by omitting Smellie's natural history, and transferring the rest to the required list, viz.: linear drawing, logic, and intellectual philosophy. As the programme, thus modified, remained without change till 1852, it is here inserted in full:

No. 1. Reviews of the preparatory studies in the text-books authorized to be used in the grammar and writing schools. 2. Ancient geography, (Worcester's.) 3. Worcester's general history, and history of the United States. 4. Colburn's or Bailey's algebra. 5. Legendre's geometry. 6. Bookkeeping. 7. Blair's rhetoric. 8. Paley's moral philosophy. 9. Chemistry. 10. Trigonometry, with its application to surveying, navigation, mensuration,

astronomical calculations, &c. 11. Constitution of the United States. 12. Natural philosophy. 13. Linear drawing. 14. Paley's natural theology. 15. Paley's Evidences of Christianity. 16. Elements of astronomy. 17. Logic. 18. Natural philosophy.

The several divisions shall also receive instructions in spelling, reading, writing, English grammar, declamation, composition, and the French language.

A period of sixteen years having elapsed without any modification of the above programme, in 1852 the following changes were introduced:

The history of the United States was omitted from the course, and at the same time, as already stated, added to the studies required for admission; drawing was required in all the classes; Paley's Evidences was restricted to a Monday morning lesson; political economy and Cleveland's Compend of English Literature were introduced, and the Spanish language permitted in the first class, in addition to the French.

Up to this time pupils had been permitted to remain in the school only three years, but now the limit was fixed at four years, provision being made for giving instruction in an advanced course to such pupils as might desire to continue in the school another year after completing the regular course of three years. In this arrangement, astronomy, intellectual philosophy, logic and chemistry were transferred from the regular to the advanced course.

The course of study as then revised has remained unchanged, with the exception of the addition, in 1857, of permission to use, in the first class, Warren's treatise on physical geography, or Cartée's physical geography and atlas.

The course of study and instruction in this school in 1867 was as follows:

Class 3.—1. Review of preparatory studies, using the text-books authorized in the grammar schools of the city. 2. Ancient geography. 3. Worcester's general history. 4. Sherwin's algebra. 5. French language. 6. Drawing.

Class 2.—1. Sherwin's algebra, continued. 2. French language, continued. 3. Drawing, continued. 4. Legendre's geometry. 5. Bookkeeping. 6. Blair's rhetoric. 7. Constitution of the United States. 8. Trigonometry, with its applications to surveying, navigation, mensuration, astronomical calculations, &c. 9. Paley's Evidences of Christianity—a Monday morning lesson.

Class 1.—1. Trigonometry, with its applications, &c, continued. 2. Paley's Evidences, continued—a Monday morning lesson. 3. Drawing, continued. 4. Astronomy. 5. Natural philosophy. 6. Moral philosophy. 7. Political economy. 8. Natural theology. 9. Shaw's lectures on English literature. 10. French, continued—or the Spanish language may be commenced by such pupils as in the judgment of the master have acquired a competent knowledge of the French. Warren's treatise on physical geography, or Cartée's physical geography and atlas, is permitted to be used.

For the pupils who remain at the school the fourth year, the course of studies shall be as follows:

1. Astronomy. 2. Intellectual philosophy. 3. Logic. 4. Spanish. 5. Geology. 6. Chemistry. 7. Mechanics, engineering, and the higher mathematics, with some option.

The several classes shall also have exercises in English composition and declamation. The instructors shall pay particular attention to the penmanship of the pupils, and give constantly such attention to spelling, reading, and English grammar as they may deem necessary to make the pupils familiar with these fundamental branches of a good education.

By comparing the present programme with the earliest one, it appears that nearly all the original subjects of instruction have been retained. Sacred geography seems to be the only one which has wholly disappeared. Three or four more of the titles comprised in the first programme have been dropped, though the subjects which they designate are embraced under other heads in the present programme. The principal branches which have been added to the regular course are the French language, drawing, the Constitution of the United States, and astronomy. Of these added studies, French has been made by far the most prominent, being taught during the whole course. Drawing is pursued by the two upper classes. The Constitution is thoroughly taught, and so is astronomy.

The order of the studies, it will be observed, has been considerably modified, and, without question, for the better. In the original plan, the studies of the third or lowest class were arranged especially with a view to accommodate those pupils who could devote only one year to the high school course, but experience

led to the conclusion that it was best for the interests of the school, on the whole, to make the instruction of the first year conform more precisely to the requirements of a systematic course of three years. The present arrangement of the branches is, in the main, adapted both to the natural order of development in the course of the sciences, and to the natural order of development in the human powers, the two chief considerations in the ordering of every plan of systematic education.

The organization of this school is of that description which is called the class system, in distinction from that which is denominated the departmental system. For 10 or 15 years past, the pupils have occupied five school-rooms, the whole school being assembled in the hall only on public occasions. In one of these rooms the principal has the immediate charge of the first or highest class, which he instructs in all the branches of study prescribed for the last year of the course, except drawing. Each of the two sub-masters has, in a separate room, a half of the middle class, which he instructs in all the studies of the second year. In like manner the third, or lowest class, is divided between the two ushers. The plan of organization is called the class system, because each teacher, under the general direction and control of the principal, has the government and instruction of a class, or a division of a class, for a certain period—in this case for a year—giving instruction in all the branches which are studied by the pupils during that period. The departmental system requires a very different management. Its type is found in our colleges, where each teacher instructs in a single branch, or in a group of kindred branches. The pupils are under the immediate government of the principal. They are seated in a common study-room, where they remain when not engaged in recitation. From this room they are sent to several recitation rooms during the day, where they receive instruction from the teachers of the several departments of the course.

Our Latin school is conducted on the class system, while the girls' high and normal school combines, to some extent, both the class and departmental systems. The principal high schools of Europe, and some of the most important of those in this country, are conducted on the departmental plan. But for such an institution as our English high school, I think the class system preferable. It has been fairly tested here for the period of upwards of forty years, and the results have been entirely satisfactory.

A new importance has been given to this school, and the scope of its usefulness has been greatly enlarged, by the establishment in our city of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, an institution designed to furnish that superior education for which the high school course is such an admirable preparation. This institution when fully developed will sustain a relation to the English high school similar to that which the university sustains to the Latin school.

In this institution provision has been made for a department to be called a school of industrial science and art, in which regular courses of instruction are to be given, by lectures and other teachings, in the various branches of the applied sciences and arts, and where persons destined for any of the industrial pursuits may, at small expense, secure such training and instruction as will enable them to bring to their profession the efficiency due to enlarged views and a sure knowledge of fundamental principles, together with adequate practice in observation and experiments, and in the delineation of objects, processes, and machinery.

LATIN SCHOOL.

The Latin school, although the earliest established, (about 1636,) and the germ of the public school system of Boston, is not a continuation of the grammar school, and, in reality, has no organic connection with the schools below. It was originally the only public school, and was for a century known as the grammar school, and was made famous as a classical school all over the British

colonies by the long and successful mastership of Ezekiel Cheever, from 1670 to 1708, which reputation was enhanced by Benjamin A. Gould, (1814–'29) and his successors to the present time. The following historical data will serve to mark the progress of public instruction, especially in its highest grade, and encourage those who are laboring now under many obstructions to introduce, or to enlarge and perfect a system of public schools.

In his autobiography, the Reverend John Barnard, of Marblehead, (born in Boston in 1681,) speaks "of being sent, in his eighth year, to the grammar school under the tuition of that aged, venerable, and justly famous, Mr. Ezekiel Cheever," and, "from the grammar school, passing into the college at Cambridge."

The biographer of Rev. Dr. Coleman mentions that he (Dr. C.) entered the grammar school in 1678, "young and small, six years."

The following extracts are from the memorandum of an eminent clergyman who was educated in the best schools of Boston before the Revolution:

At the age of six and a half years I was sent to Master John Lovell's Latin school. The only requirement was reading well, but, though fully qualified, I was sent away to Master Griffith, a private teacher, to learn to read, write, and spell. I learned the English grammar in Dilworth's Spelling-book by heart. Griffith traced letters with a pencil and the pupils inked them. I entered Lovell's school at seven years. Lovell was a tyrant and his system one of terror. Trouncing was common in the school. Dr. Cooper was one of his early scholars, and he told Dr. Jackson, the minister of Brookline, that he had dreams of school till he died. The boys were so afraid they could not study. Samuel Bradford, afterwards sheriff, pronounced the P in Ptolemy and the younger Lovell rapped him over the head with a heavy ferule.

We studied Latin from 8 o'clock till 12 and from 1 till dusk. After one or two years I went to the town school, to Master Holbrook, at the corner of West street, to learn to write, and to Master Proctor, on Pemberton's hill, in the southeast part of Scolley's building. My second, third, and fourth year I wrote there and did nothing else. The English boys alone were taught to make pens. Griffith was gentle, but his being a private teacher accounts for it.

The course of study was grammar, Æsop, with a translation, Clark's Introduction to Writing Latin, Entropius, with a translation, Corderius, Ovid's Metamorphoses, Virgil's Georgics, Æneid, Cæsar, Cicero. In the sixth year I began Greek, and, for the first time, attempted English composition by translating Cæsar's Commentaries. The master allowed us to read poetical translations, such as Trappe's and Dryden's Virgil. I was half way through Virgil when I began Greek with Ward's Greek Grammar.

After Cheever's Latin Accidence we took Ward's Lily's Latin Grammar. After the Greek Grammar we read the Greek Testament and were allowed to use Beza's Latin Translation. Then came Homer's Iliad, five or six books, using Clarke's translation, with notes, and this was all my Greek education at school. Then we took Horace. and composed Latin verses, using the Gradus ad Parnassum. Daniel Jones was the first Latin scholar in 1771 and 1772, and he was brother to Thomas Kilby Jones, who was no scholar though a distinguished merchant afterwards.

I entered college at the age of 14 years and 3 months, and was equal in Latin and Greek to the best in the senior class. Xenophon and Sallust were the only books used in college that I had not studied. I went to the private school from 11 to 12 a. m. and to the public from 2 to 5 p. m.

The last two years of my school life nobody taught English grammar and geography but Colonel Joseph Ward, (son of Deacon Joseph Ward, of Newton, West Parish, blacksmith.) who was self-taught, and set up a school in Boston. He became aide to General Ward, when the war commenced, and did not teach after the war.

I never saw a map except in Cæsar's Commentaries, and did not know what that meant. Our class studied Lowth's English Grammar at college. At Master Proctor's school reading and writing were taught in the same room, to girls and boys from 7 to 14 years of age, and the Bible was the only reading book. Dilworth's Spelling-book was used, and the New England Primer. The master set sums in our manuscripts, but did not go further than the rule of three.

Master Griffith was a thin man and wore a wig, as did Masters Lovell and Proctor, but they wore a cap when not in full dress. James Lovell was so beaten by his grandfather John, that James, the father, rose and said, "Sir, you have flogged that boy enough." The boy went off determined to leave school and go to Master Proctor's, but he met one of Master Proctor's boys who asked whither he was going, and, when informed, warned him not to go, for he would fare worse.

Hon. Edward Everett, in an address at the annual school festival in Faneuil

Hall, in 1852, gives an account of the educational advantages he enjoyed in early life, (1804.) After speaking about his first lessons in reading and writing, he thus describes his studies at the Latin school of Boston:

It was kept in School street, where the horticultural hall now stands. The standard of scholastic attainment was certainly not higher than that of material comfort in those days. We read pretty much the same books, or of the same class, in Latin and Greek as we read now, but in a very cursory and superficial manner. There was no attention paid to the philosophy of the languages, to the deduction of words from their radical elements, to the niceties of construction, still less to prosody. I never made a hexameter or pentameter verse till years afterward. I had a son at school in London who occasionally required a little aid in that way. The subsidiary and illustrative branches were wholly unknown in the Latin school of 1805. Such a thing as a school library, a book of reference, a critical edition of a classic, a map, a blackboard, an engraving of an ancient building, or a copy of ancient art, such as now adorn the walls of our schools, was as little known as the electric telegraph. If our children, who possess all these appliances and aids to learning, do not greatly excel their parents they will be much to blame.

According to the printed regulations of 1823, "candidates for admission shall be at least nine years old," and "shall be able to read common English authors correctly and fluently, to know all stops, marks, and abbreviations there occurring, to write a running hand, and to parse common sentences in prose."

The school was divided into five classes, and the whole course occupied five years, beyond which time no pupil could remain, without express permission. The works and exercises were as follows:

Class 5.—No. 1 Adams's Latin Grammar.

Class 4.—No. 1 continued, and No. 2, Latin dictionary, Entick's or Ainsworth's; 3, Liber Primus; 4, Graecæ Historiæ Epitome; 5, Viri Romæ; 6, Phædri Fabulæ, by Burman; 7, Nepos; 8. Ovid's Metamorphoses, by Willymotte; 9, Valpy's Chronology; 10, Dana's Latin Tutor; 11, Tooke's Pantheon.

Class 3.—Nos. 1, 2, 10, continued, and No. 12, Greek grammar, Gloucester; 13, Cæsar's Commentaries; 14, Electa ex Ovidio et Tibullo; 15, Delectus Sententiarum Græcarum; 16, Col. Gr. Minora; 17, Sallust; 18, Virgil; 19, Frequent exercises in writing Latin prose, and translations from Latin and Greek into English.

Classes 2 *and* 1.—Nos. 1, 2, &c., continued, and No. 20, Valpy's Elegantæ Latinæ; 21, Bradley's Prosody; 22, Cicero's Select Orations, De Officiis, De Senectute, De Amicitia; 23. Horace Expurg.; 24, Juvenal and Persius Expurg.; 25, Greek Primitives; 26, Greek lexicons, Schrevelius, Hendericus, Scapula, Morell's Thesaurus; 27, Xenophon's Anabasis; 28, Mattaire's Homer; 29, Greek Testament; 30, Wyttenbach's Greek Historians; 31, Geography; 32, Arithmetic; 33, Geometry; 34, Trigonometry; 35, Algebra; 36, Neilson's Greek Exercises.

The following are required promiscuously of different classes: No. 37, Walker's Classical Key; 38, Sempriere's Classical Dictionary; 39, Adam's Roman Antiquities; 40, declamation; 41, themes; 42, exercises in Latin prose; 43, Latin poetry. To these two last items this board requires the particular attention of the principal.

No translations of the foregoing Latin and Greek authors are allowed in the school.

Reading English, both in prose and verse, with readiness and propriety, shall be considered as essential to every class in the Latin and English high schools, as well as in the reading schools; and the masters of these schools are required to pay the greatest attention to this important branch of instruction.

The three lowest classes shall be dismissed from the school each day at 11 o'clock, that an hour may be devoted by them to relaxation, or to some polite accomplishment or useful study, at the pleasure of each individual.

Without tracing the progress of this great classical school through any subsequent change, we will introduce the studies as we find them in the regulations of the school committee for 1867:

REGULATIONS AND STUDIES OF THE LATIN GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

1. This school, situated in Bedford street, was instituted as early as the seventeenth century.

2. The rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages are taught, and scholars are fitted for the most respectable colleges. Instruction is also given in mathematics, geography, history, declamation, English grammar, composition, and in the French language.

3. The instructors in this school shall be a master, sub-master, and as many ushers as shall

allow one instructor to every 35 pupils; and no additional usher shall be allowed for a less number.

4. It shall be a necessary qualification for the instructors of this school that they shall have been educated at a college of good standing.

5. Each candidate for admission shall have attained the age of 10 years, and shall produce from the master of the school he last attended a certificate of good moral character. He shall be able to read English correctly and fluently, to spell all words of common occurrence, to write a running hand, understand mental arithmetic and the simple rules of written arithmetic, and be able to answer the most important questions in geography, and shall have a sufficient knowledge of English grammar to parse common sentences in prose. A knowledge of Latin grammar shall be considered equivalent to that of English.

6. Boys shall be examined for admission to this school only once a year, viz., on the Friday and Saturday of the last week of the vacation succeeding the exhibition of the school in July.

7. The regular course of instruction shall continue six years, and no scholar shall enjoy the privileges of this school beyond that term, unless by written leave of the committee; but scholars may have the option of completing their course in five years, or less time, if willing to make due exertions, and shall be advanced according to scholarship.

8. The sessions of the school shall begin at 9 o'clock a. m. and close at 2 o'clock p. m., on every school day throughout the year, except on Saturday, when the school shall close at 10 o'clock.

9. The school shall be divided into classes and subdivisions, as the master, with the approbation of the committee, may think advisable.

10. The master shall examine the pupils under the care of other teachers in the school as often as he can consistently with proper attention to those in his own charge.

11. The books and exercises required in the course of instruction in this school are the following:

Class 6.—1, Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar; 2, English grammar; 3, reading English; 4, spelling; 5, mental arithmetic; 6, Mitchell's Geographical Questions; 7, declamation; 8, penmanship; 9, Andrews's Latin Lessons; 10, Andrews's Latin Reader.

Class 5.—1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 continued; 11, Viri Romæ; 12. written translations; 13, Colburn's Sequel; 14, Cornelius Nepos; 15, Arnold's Latin Prose Composition.

Class 4.—1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 12, 13, 15 continued; 16, Sophocles's Greek Grammar; 17, Sophocles's Greek Lessons; 18, Cæsar's Commentaries; 19, Fasquelle's French Grammar; 20, exercises in speaking and reading French with a native French teacher.

Class 3.—1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 12, 13, 15, 16, 19, 20 continued; 21, Ovid's Metamorphoses; 22, Arnold's Greek Prose Composition; 23, Felton's Greek Reader; 24, Sherwin's Algebra; 25, English composition; 26, Le Grandpère.

Class 2.—1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 15, 16, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25 continued; 27, Virgil; 28, elements of history; 29, translations from English into Latin.

Class 1.—1, 7, 15, 16, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 25, 27, 28, 29 continued; 30, geometry; 31, Cicero's Orations; 32, composition of Latin verses; 33, compositions in French; 34, ancient history and geography.

The following books of reference may be used in pursuing the above studies: Leverett's Latin Lexicon, or Gardner's abridgment of the same: Andrews's Latin Lexicon; Liddell and Scott's Greek Lexicon, or Pickering's Greek Lexicon, last edition; Worcester's School Dictionary; Smith's Classical Dictionary; Smith's Dictionary of Antiquities; Baird's Classic Manual; Warren's Treatise on Physical Geography, or Cartée's Physical Geography and Atlas is permitted to be used.

12. No translations, nor any interpretation, keys, or orders of construction are allowed in the school.

13. The instructors shall pay particular attention to the penmanship of the pupils, and give constantly such instruction in spelling, reading, and English grammar as they may deem necessary to make the pupils familiar with those fundamental branches of a good education.

14. Each pupil who shall honorably complete the course of studies prescribed for this school, to the satisfaction of the principal and the committee, shall be entitled to receive a suitable diploma or certificate to that effect at graduation.

To these general regulations we append an account of the school, by Francis Gardner, who has been head master since 1852:

As the Latin school is maintained to prepare young men for a collegiate career, its course of studies is in a great measure prescribed by the colleges, and it simply remains for the government of the school to accomplish the desired object with the greatest benefit to the pupil. In the following sketch we propose to give some account of the existing regulations of the school and the reasons for their adoption.

I. *Qualifications for admission, &c.*—Every pupil must have reached the age of ten years and pass a satisfactory examination in reading, spelling, writing, and in the elements of arithmetic, geography, and grammar.

Inasmuch as, from the very nature of the subject, the memory is a very important agent in the acquisition of grammar, the pupil being ignorant of the whole nomenclature, it has seemed best to employ those years when the verbal memory is strongest in the acquisition of

this indispensable knowledge. Therefore for nearly the whole of the last fifty years the age for admission to this school has been fixed at nine or ten years.

II. *Method of instruction.*—The studies of the school are divided into two departments, the classic, including Latin, Greek, mythology, ancient geography, and history, and the modern, including mathematics, French, modern geography, history, English grammar, compositions, written translations, reading, and spelling. Immediately upon entering the school the pupil has assigned him a lesson in Latin grammar for one of his two lessons for each day, the other being in the modern department. As it is assumed that his knowledge is very limited, he is called upon to commit to memory a very short lesson, great care being taken that he shall understand not only the general meaning of each sentence, but the particular signification of each word. When he has committed this portion to memory, test questions of all kinds are put in order to ascertain if he understands fully what he can repeat. The reason why the words of the book are required are twofold—because they express the ideas to be conveyed better than the pupil can give them in his own language, and because it is the shortest and easiest way of acquiring the desired knowledge, the test questioning making it impossible for the learner to acquire mere words without ideas. When the class has advanced as far as syntax they then begin to translate and parse, quoting from their grammars all that is applicable to the word under consideration. The rules of syntax are learned as fast as they occur.

The test questioning is kept up during the whole course, so that upon every "advance lesson" the pupil is responsible for all that he has previously learned upon the subject, whether grammar, mathematics, or geography.

III. *Distributions of teachers and subjects.*—At the beginning of each year a class is assigned to a teacher who is to have its entire management in both departments for the whole year. This arrangement is found to produce better results than when frequent changes are made, or when the pupils pursue different studies with different instructors.

IV. *Hours of recitation.*—There is no fixed programme for the recitations, and the hours for them, experience having taught that what may be an excellent plan for one class would be a most injudicious one for another. The teacher is constantly employed in hearing recitations, and the only rule imposed on him is that each class shall recite twice a day, and shall receive its due share of his time and attention. If, in his judgment, one of the lessons of the day demands more of his time than the other, he gives it.

V. *Study out of school hours.*—To the youngest classes an out of school lesson is assigned daily, intended to occupy the pupils one hour; to the highest classes a two hours' lesson is assigned. The great advantage of this is that the teacher thereby can profitably employ all his time in drilling his classes. Were they to study only in school he frequently would be obliged to wait for them to prepare a lesson, whereas now each of the three classes has a lesson in readiness to recite upon entering school.

VI. Six years is the time allotted to those who enter the school at ten years of age. Very many, however, enter at a later period and finish their course in two, three, or four years. But experience has incontestably proved that it is impossible for a boy who begins the study of Latin at fifteen years of age to make so good a scholar, at the time of entering college, as he would have been had he begun his Latin at ten, no matter how thorough his education may have been between ten and fifteen.

VII. *Closing examination.*—The only closing examination is that made by the sub-committee of the school in order to assign the Franklin medals, and here the committee are required "to inspect the school records" to ascertain the standing of the candidates as indicated by them. It is at the various colleges that the scholars undergo their examinations. If they fail there any diploma or certificate of scholarship which they might have received would be but a mockery.

VIII. *Discipline.*—"As is the master so is the school." Each teacher is held responsible not only for the order but for the proficiency of his classes. There can be no order, no proficiency, unless the teacher is really the master unless the pupils are under his control. They perhaps may not know the fact, but unless it exists there can be no satisfactory progress. The gentler the means by which this control is secured the better for both pupil and teacher. He is the best teacher who produces the best results with the least application of force. But force of some kind must be in the teacher, or good results cannot be produced. Some men have a kind of magnetic force to which a boy yields unconsciously, and which it is impossible for him to resist. Others are obliged to have recourse to mere external force. These men rarely become successful teachers, however talented or learned they may be.

This account would be incomplete without the addition of the writer's belief respecting all preparatory education. It is not what a boy learns at school that makes the man, but *how* he learns it. All the knowledge that a faithful student acquires before arriving at manhood is as nothing compared with the intellectual strength he has gained and the ability he has of taking hold of any work that may present itself and doing it. If the acquisition of knowledge were the chief object in education, very useful as an acquaintance with the dead languages is, indispensable in fact to the man of letters, one might with propriety doubt the expediency of spending so large a portion of youth and early manhood in the study. But the earnest, laborious student of language develops a power which no other training could possibly give him, and in comparison with which all his acquisitions of mere knowledge sink into utter insignificance.

NEW BEDFORD, MASSACHUSETTS.

The school committee of New Bedford have published a "*Manual of Instruction, containing a graded course of instruction for the public schools, with accompanying directions to teachers,*" adopted December 30, 1867. The introduction of 17 pages is full of valuable suggestions on the fundamental principles pertaining to the instruction of youth and the studies and discipline of schools; but we shall confine our extracts to the course of study.

The public schools of New Bedford, where fully organized, are divided into three grades, viz: primary, grammar, and high. The course of study for all the grades is arranged to occupy 13 years. The grades are divided into classes corresponding to the number of years.

Of these classes four are included in the primary grade, five in the grammar grade, and four in the high grade. The classes in the primary grade and part of the classes of the grammar grade will be subdivided into sections; but no class is to have more than two sections except in cases of positive necessity. The text-books referred to are Sargent's readers, Walton's arithmetic, Colton's geographies, Kerl's grammar, Lossing's history of the United States.

COURSE OF STUDY FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

THIRTEENTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—The human body, its chief parts and their uses; five senses; common objects, their form, size, color, and more observable properties.

Reading and spelling.—Begun with elementary sounds and names of letters, learned from cards and blackboard, and carried forward to reading lessons as far as the 70th lesson in the primer; word teaching, spelling from the reading lessons, by sound and by letter. Two or more lessons each day.

Drawing on the slate; straight and curved lines, first separately, then combined to form letters; simple geometric forms, figures, objects, &c., from pictures or sketches by the teacher.

Vocal gymnastics, according to the prescribed system, once every session, the exercises to be always very short.

Singing for a few minutes, at least twice a day.

Physical exercise for from three to five minutes, twice at least each session.

Printing, the small letters, so as to be able to print any easy monosyllable that may be given out.

Directions and suggestions.

Oral instruction.—The oral lessons to so young children must be very simple and conversational, beginning with the familiar objects that they have been accustomed to at home, and feel an interest in; such as their toys and plays. They should be encouraged to tell the teacher all they know. One great use of such lessons is to develop the senses and perceptive faculties, to lead to habits of attention and observation, and train the memory by associating words with things. The scholars should be encouraged to bring to the teacher objects for examination.

The senses will afford an abundant field for interesting instructions. Their offices, powers, and contrasts, the effects of their deprivation, should all be dwelt on and illustrated.

Reading.—The old rote method of teaching the letters and primer will not be tolerated. The little ones must be taught in a more intelligent and kindly manner. The new methods are so perfectly convenient, and may be made so attractive, that only lazy timeservers will refuse to employ them.

Word teaching should be combined with the spelling method. It will help the scholars far more rapidly on; for a word is just as readily learned so as to be called at sight as a letter. The oral exercises may in this way be made to help the reading exercises. Thus the teacher may print the names of objects spoken of in the object lesson, on the blackboard, if not too long and difficult, and cause the scholars to pronounce them, and associate the word picture with the vocal name.

The methods by which little beginners may genially and intelligently be carried on from the first lesson in the elements to connected sentences in the primer, by means of cards, pic-

tures, blackboard, letters on blocks, slate exercises, &c., are too various to be detailed in this manual. They are fully described in the approved books on the subject, and no primary teacher will be considered fit to begin her work until she is so conversant with them as to be able to employ them.

The scholars should be taught how to hold the pencil in printing on the slate, so as not to form bad habits; and it will be well sometimes to make it a simultaneous exercise, conducted by the teacher carefully and systematically.

There should also be systematic and simultaneous exercises in drawing, the teacher making a model on the blackboard, giving the pupils opportunity to follow her line by line.

In spelling by sound or by letter, and in all other vocal exercises, special pains must be taken to secure accurate and distinct articulation; and, in the oral lessons, all remarks by the scholars must be properly worded.

No exercise should be more than from ten to fifteen minutes long; no child should be kept sitting still with nothing to do. A motherly, patient, cheerful, loving, sympathizing spirit should be the guardian genius of a school of this class, and thus the school-room be made a happy place.

The teachers of this class will give special attention to the "general directions," especially on the point of morals, manners and order.

TWELFTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—Thirteenth class exercises reviewed, domestic animals, primary colors, flowers or trees, the three kingdoms of nature.

Reading and spelling.—Exercises on blackboard and cards continued; spelling by letters and sounds from the reading book, and through "second class" in speller; names and forms of the pauses; primer finished, and to the 60th lesson in first reader; exercises at least twice a day.

Counting, which is not specially prescribed for the thirteenth class, from 1 to 100; relations and combinations of numbers up to 10, all by means of objects, blocks, nuts, beans, &c., or the numeral frame; Roman numerals.

Drawing.—Inventive drawing may be introduced; a certain number of lines assigned, at first only two, and the scholars encouraged to combine them in as many ways as possible; set lessons in drawing, from elementary cards or models sketched by the teacher; exercises twice a day, carefully supervised to secure right holding of pencil, right method, &c.

Singing, morals, and manners.

Vocal gymnastics as in thirteenth class.

Physical exercises as in thirteenth class.

Writing.—Script writing will now be taught.

Oral instruction.—Thus far the object has been to awaken curiosity in the children and lead them to observe, without much attempt at system or classification. Now a system should commence that shall be carefully followed up through the succeeding classes. Objects are therefore to be classed under three general heads, (animal, vegetable, and mineral,) according to the three great kingdoms of nature. The teachers will remember that they must cultivate precision and accuracy of statement, and perfectly understand what they attempt to explain.

The course to be pursued in this connection is admirably detailed in some of the manuals for teachers on the subject.

In the lessons on domestic animals treat of their general structure, relative size, covering, and what use men make of their covering; modes of defence, kinds of food, habits, teeth, &c., and give anecdotes illustrative of their intelligence, sagacity, cunning, affections, &c.

Colors are to be now taken up; and the subject is of so great practical importance that the lessons must be carefully and discriminatingly given. Everybody has to do with colors in some or other ways, and, because so little instruction is usually given to children on the subject, very few persons can accurately distinguish shades of color and appropriately name them. The primary colors are red, blue, and yellow. The teacher must be sure to have the true prismatic shades as models and teach the scholars to discriminate accurately. In various and constantly occurring ways this subject may be illustrated. Flowers may be brought and compared, pieces of cloth, &c.

Reading and spelling.—The scholars should be required to hold their books properly, taught to point out and explain title page, table of contents, leaves, &c., everything that goes to make up a book. In preparing exercises in spelling it is very important that the scholars should hear the words first pronounced by the teacher, so that the true pronunciation shall be the only one to be impressed on their minds.

Numbers are now to be begun upon, and the teachers should remember always that the relations of numbers are very difficult to be comprehended by a child. Therefore, let every

step be illustrated, according to the "course of study," in various ways. Let the scholar's apprehension be frequently tested, and, if he do not understand the lesson, let the teacher patiently illustrate it again. The teachers are referred to the elementary treatises spoken of for detailed suggestions on this head.

Verses and maxims may be taught to scholars of this grade, and the exercise will form both a pastime and a source of improvement.

ELEVENTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—Wild animals; trees or flowers; secondary colors; divisions of time; review of previous oral instruction.

Reading and spelling.—First reader finished and reviewed; second reader to 31st lesson; spelling by letters and sounds in reading lessons, and to 31st page of the speller; frequent exercises in speaking words at instant sight, from cards, blackboard or book; questions on the meaning of what is read.

Drawing and writing.—These exercises to be progressively continued; words selected from the reading lessons to be framed into other sentences, so as to confirm the scholars in a true idea of their meaning; other simple exercises in composition.

Singing, morals and manners, physical exercises, vocal gymnastics, verses and maxims.

Length of time and alternation and frequency of exercises as in previous class.

Oral instruction.—Only the better known wild animals should be treated of, such as the elephant, camel, deer, bear, tiger, fox, rabbit, owl, whale, shark, alligator. The points to be considered are partly identical with what has been taught about domestic animals. Resemblances and contrasts to domestic animals should be traced; and anecdotes related as before.

Secondary colors.—These are violet, indigo, green and orange. The first two are composed of red and blue; the third of yellow and blue, and the last of red and yellow. The suggestions on the subject given in the tenth class are applicable here.

Trees and flowers.—If trees are treated of, such trees should be selected as the children have the opportunity of seeing and of studying. The difference should be exemplified between an oak, a maple, an elm, a pine, &c. Their structure, method of growth, use of the bark, leaves, roots, etc., should be explained. If flowers are treated of, the common garden or house plants should be selected.

Reading.—Some words of each reading lesson are prefixed to the lesson, with what profess to be definitions attached. The teachers of this class and all the primary classes must remember that the meaning of the defining word is likely to be just as mysterious to the scholars as that of the word defined. It is therefore an unintelligent and objectionable course to impose these definitions to be learned, unless they have first been themselves clearly explained. Even then, the explanation is likely to be better for the scholars than the text book definition.

Spelling.—Let the children spell common words, not in the lesson, as an occasional exercise; also their own names; the name of the city; State; days of the week; months of the week; months of the year.

Numbers.—the children should be taught to construct their own addition tables by the use of the slate and pencil, a great variety of exercises being introduced.

There may also be exercises in reading and writing Roman numerals to one hundred, forward, backward and irregularly.

TENTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—General classification of animals; qualities, characteristics and use of objects; contrasts of qualities in different objects; tints and shades; lines and angles.

Reading and spelling.—Second reader completed and reviewed; spelling, by letters and sounds, from the reading lessons and to page 45 of the speller; careful attention to enunciation, pronunciation, illustrations and definitions; the use of capitals.

Drawing, writing.—Progressive exercises as before; systematic attention to writing simple compositions.

Numbers.—The tables completed and reviewed; numeration through four places; simple problems in mental and written arithmetic, occasionally; exercises in ready reckoning, and in adding and subtracting series of numbers.

Physical exercises, vocal gymnastics, singing, morals and manners, verses and maxims.

The length and alternation of recitations and exercises much the same as in previous classes.

Oral instruction.—It is desirable, by this time, that the scholars should be taught to classify the animals about which they have learned, and here is introduced the general classification into beasts, birds, fishes, insects and reptiles. The subject suggests its own treatment to every active mind.

Color.—The primary and secondary colors have been treated. We now come to their tints and shades. The method of teaching will be much as before, great care being taken to discriminate accurately in assigning the appropriate names to samples, and arranging the samples, first with reference to the natural order of colors, secondly with reference to complementary colors. Harmonies and discords of color should be pointed out.

Qualities, &c.—This introduces a very prolific field of instruction. Visible objects are infinitely diversified both as to number and qualities; and their uses are correspondingly various. The teacher must select, not at random, but so as to combine the most interest with the most instruction. The manuals on object teaching give much information as to both methods and materials for such instruction; and to them the teacher is referred for details.

Lines and angles.—The subject of geometry is here introduced. The lines and linear figures that the little ones have been drawing hitherto without much, if any, system, are now to be scientifically combined. Definitions must be made clear, concise and truthful. The meaning of the terms straight, curved, crooked, horizontal, vertical, oblique, &c., as applied to lines, and acute, obtuse and right, as applied to angles, must be clearly impressed on the scholars' minds through many illustrations. The distinction between the words vertical and perpendicular must be defined and illustrated. A vertical line is perpendicular only to the horizon, and can have only one direction, and that is towards the zenith. A perpendicular line may be either vertical, horizontal, or oblique. If it form a right angle with some other line, it is a perpendicular to that line.

It is held by some educators that the mind of a child will understand geometry sooner than it will arithmetic. The teachers of this class will have an opportunity of putting this to the proof.

Numbers.—In teaching the tables, let the general direction, page 16, be carefully observed, that their truth is to be demonstrated to the senses before they are to be imposed as tasks. Let the multiplication and division tables be learned together and at the same time, one being the converse of the other. Let the scholars be exercised on tables that they construct themselves, as in class eleven.

In their drawing lessons, in part, the scholars may have exercises to practice on lines and angles.

GRAMMAR GRADE.

NINTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—Reviews; trades, tools, and materials; articles eaten and worn; plane figures; circle and its parts; abbreviations.

Reading and spelling.—Third reader; frequent exercises in enunciating difficult combinations of consonants; spelling to page 53 of the speller.

Drawing.—The exercises in this branch should be in uniform progression from class to class. Drawing cards should be used as studies, adapted to the stage of advancement, or, what is better, sketches by the teacher on the blackboard, so that the scholars may first see every stroke of the crayon in their formation. Map drawing.

Writing.—Pen and ink will now begin to be used; see general directions under the head of "Writing;" compositions.

Arithmetic.—Written arithmetic begun and carried through division; numeration of decimals to be taught simultaneously with numeration of integers; in teaching the four fundamental rules, decimals to be combined with whole numbers, the instruction to be chiefly oral, and only to embrace the most important particulars; in the text book, what is included between page 150 and page 159, article 238, to be joined with what is included between page 9 and page 56; omit articles 50, 61, 62; omit all examples more than enough to give a clear intelligence of the application of principles; frequent applications and illustrations other than those in the text book; exercises in adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing series of numbers; ready reckoning.

Geography.—Primary geography to South America, with map drawing.

Singing, morals, and manners; vocal gymnastics; physical exercises.

Distribution of time.—The aggregate time per week to be given to each study and exercise should be, in general, as follows: Oral instruction, 2 hours; reading, 5½ hour; spelling, 4 hour; arithmetic, 4½ hours; geography, 3 hours; singing, 1 hour; writing, 1½ hour; drawing, 1½ hour; composition, 2 hours; vocal and physical exercises, three or four minutes at a time, several times a day.

Trades, tools, and materials.—Such trades as are connected with the absolute necessities of life should, for evident reasons, be first considered. Of such are the trades of the printer, the carpenter, the mason, the painter, the shoemaker, the tailor, the milliner, the farmer, the miller, the baker, &c. Inquiries may be made of the children as to the trades which their parents may follow, and immediate interest be thus thrown around the lessons. The names and uses of the most prominent tools employed by each tradesman, and the materials wrought upon, with the articles to be manufactured, should be called for.

Articles eaten and worn.—This theme suggests for itself the appropriate method of treating it. The more common articles are first to be taken up; then the less common and luxurious. Foreign should be carefully distinguished from home products, and the children should have maps before them to find the places whence the articles are brought. By this their knowledge of geography will be increased in an interesting way. The points about the growth and preparation for the table of articles of food, and processes of manufacture of articles of apparel; the different kinds of food and clothing suited to warm and cold climates; the kinds of animals best fitted to our own wants, for supplying food and clothing; the articles raised and manufactured at home, that are sold in exchange for foreign articles: these and kindred topics should be systematically and discriminatingly taught. The limits of the different topics may be as follows: of food, different kinds of breadstuffs, how grown and prepared; butter and cheese; ordinary meats; condiments—salt, pepper, nutmeg, &c.; sugars of different kinds, and how made; tea, coffee, and chocolate; table fruits; of apparel, take up five articles each made of wool, of cotton, and of silk; difference between cotton and linen; between common flannels and dressed woollen goods; between muslin and calico; different modes of coloring fabrics; what articles are made from leather, and how leather is manufactured; what articles are made of hair; what of fur; and how hair and fur are prepared for use.

Plane figures, the circle and its parts.—This is geometry extended from the tenth class. The following figures should be described: equilateral, isosceles, scalene, and right-angled triangles; rectangles; the rhombus and the trapezium; the circle, circumference, arc, diameter, radius, chord, segment, sector, semi-circle, and quadrant.

Drawing.—The attainments already made by the scholars must be ascertained, the course previously pursued with them inquired into, and their lessons taken up at the point which they have reached. Map drawing will be connected with the lessons in geography, but can in part take the place of other subjects.

Arithmetic.—The scholars are now to begin regular lessons from a text book; and a new field of exertion will open before them, that demands some preliminary suggestions. And the first thing to be said is that the definitions that may be encountered are to be committed to memory, after having been clearly explained and understood; but the rules need not be committed to memory. If they are required to be memorized, it must be on the ground, not that they are methods by which to perform operations, but only a concise way of stating those operations. The rule, therefore, is never to be memorized until after the principle has been elucidated and explained; and in all cases, throughout all the classes of every grade, as a general rule, if a scholar is able to elucidate and exemplify a principle that he may be taken up on, it shall not be rated as a defect that he is not also able to repeat the given rule.

Mental arithmetic, as a text book study, is not prescribed for this class. But the philosophy of the subject, viz: the logical statement and analysis orally of questions and problems in accordance with the principles of the science, may be judiciously associated with slate arithmetic, from the beginning. The teacher may allow the scholars to invent formulæ, never forgetting that the chief object is to teach correct reasoning, rather than to get correct answers.

It will be seen by the course of study for this class that the notation and numeration of decimals are to be joined with the same operations upon integers. For the mind of the scholar can just as readily embrace the idea of diminution by tenths and hundredths as of increase by tens and hundreds. And there is economy of time and trouble in such a course.

Geography.—This study is now to be begun. Let the remarks under this head in the "general directions" be carefully read and applied. The subject should be taught by topics, the text book used with great caution, and oral lessons always precede the formal lessons. Nothing should be required to be memorized that is not worth remembering; and details, comparatively insignificant, are not to be emphasized, as if of equal importance with great general truths.

Morals and manners, physical exercises, vocal gymnastics, singing.—Attention is directed to the remarks on these subjects already made in other connections. No one of them is to be neglected in any wise, but all are to be carried progressively and systematically forward.

Distribution of time.—The allotment of time between the various studies prescribed for this class will be found to vary from the practice to which some teachers have been accustomed, and which they may think indispensable. But it has been graduated by a careful comparison of the values of the studies and the corresponding demands on the teacher's time. It has been altogether too customary to measure the demands of a study by the amount of matter contained in the text book, thus putting our scholars under the volition of the bookmakers and making the text books our masters. But every teacher should develop a power to teach independently of the text books, if desirable; and assurance is given that

the range of expectation and examination shall be coincident with the prescribed limits of study.

EIGHTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—Reviews, rectangular and spherical solids, kinds and properties of matter, laws of motion, national and State coat of arms, historical sketches, Columbus, King Philip, Samuel Adams, Patrick Henry, Washington, Franklin.

Reading and spelling.—Intermediate reader, text book of history, with close attention to enunciation, pronunciation, definitions, historic and other allusions, style, imagery; spelling to page 80 in the speller and review; elements of grammar orally, parts of speech, and their uses.

Drawing.—Exercises in connection with oral lessons on geometry, with map drawing, progressive practice in drawing from cards, representing animals, simple scenes, &c., with reference to securing skill in sketching from nature.

Writing.

Arithmetic.—To percentage, page 171; perform addition, subtraction and division of fractions by reducing them to a common denominator before performing the operations; omit articles 79 to 105 inclusive; 118, 119, 123, 124, 146, 147, 190, 191, 192; from page 145 to page 149 inclusive; articles 206, 210, 211, 212, 241, 242, 243, 248, 249, 250, 251; take from page 56 to 123 in connection with what is included between articles 238 and 248; in other words, combine the reduction of compound numbers with that of whole numbers, decimals and common fractions; ready reckoning; exercises in combining series of numbers.

Geography.—Finish primary geography, map drawing.

Compositions, declamations and recitations.

Singing, physical exercises, vocal gymnastics, as before.

Morals and manners.

Division of time much as in previous class.

Oral instruction.—The reviews of oral course in previous classes, while general, should be systematic and thorough, for much of the subsequent teaching throughout the grades depends on principles supposed to have been already mastered. The new geometric lessons may embrace the sphere, the cylinder and the cone, the prism, the pyramid, the cube and parallelopiped, and will conclude the subject in this grade.

The national flag.—Teach its history, design, and significance.

National and State coats of arms.—Confine to the coat of arms of the United States and the State of Massachusetts, and teach their form, design and meaning.

Kinds and properties of matter.—Define and illustrate the three general classes of matter, viz: solids, liquids and gases, with their essential properties, such as extension, impenetrability, gravity, divisibility, elasticity, &c. Inertia should be fully discussed, and its laws understood.

Laws of motion.—Attention should be given mainly to the laws of falling bodies, to the effects produced on the motion of bodies acted on by more than a single force, to the centripetal and centrifugal forces, and to various instances of resultant motion found in such cases as swimming, flying, sailing a boat, flying a kite, rowing, &c.

Historical sketches.—The personal as well as public history of many prominent characters will be brought forward in connection with various studies, such as history, geography, and the reading lessons. But it is desirable to select a few of the most noted representative persons to whom reference is constantly occurring in literature, and familiarize the scholars with the leading events of their lives and causes of their prominence. Of course extended notices are not desirable. Only such points as are likely to inhere in the minds of the scholars and lead them to seek further information, such as when and where born, early advantages, anecdotes of personal history, traits worthy of imitation, &c., should be dwelt upon.

Map drawing.—These letters may be interesting and a high measure of accuracy attained, by a series of preliminary exercises, such as, first, representation of familiar surfaces, with objects on them, such as the school-room and play-ground; second, representation of mountains, representation of rivers, representation of coast lines; third, representation of the sphere, with meridians, parallels, and circles, to lead to ease in drawing curved lines.

These exercises should be repeated until a good degree of accuracy and rapidity has been secured.

Arithmetic.—It is repeated here, because of the great importance of the truth, that the greatest difficulty in the path of a scholar is, to acquire facility in the applications of principles learned to examples varied from those given in the text-book. Examples, therefore, should constantly be given that embrace a great variety of form while involving the principle

that is under consideration. Thus let the scholars be taught to forget formulas and lay fast hold of principles. They should always have credit for correct reasoning even although their answers may be wrong. It is far better to have a wrong answer with correct reasoning, than a right answer with no power to reason at all.

Geography.—Let careful heed be given to the directions and suggestions already set forth on this subject. Better to throw the text-book away than to be slavishly tied down to it. Associate the history of places with their location on the map. Call in the aid of association all throughout, by naming the products and staple commodities of the several States, as well as their history, their remarkable curiosities, high mountains, manufactories, &c.

SEVENTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—Metals and minerals, air, water, respiration, circulation, digestion, national and State governments, historical sketches—Lincoln, Grant, Sherman, Sheridan.

Reading and spelling.—Intermediate reader, text-book of history, spelling to page 90 and review, grammar orally, inflection of nouns and comparison of adjectives.

Arithmetic.—Operations in compound numbers, from page 123 to page 150, in connection with what is included between pages 171 and 187, and there close; review, ready reckoning, exercises in combining series of numbers.

Geography.—Colton's, to Europe, map-drawing, physical geography connected with descriptive, special attention to the commercial relations of one country with another.

History.—To the Revolution.

Drawing.—Progressive practice.

Compositions, declamations and recitations, singing, morals, and manners.

Vocal gymnastics, physical exercises.

Distribution of time.—Oral instruction, 2 hours per week; reading, 5 hours; spelling, 3 hours; arithmetic, 4 hours; geography, 3 hours; singing, 1 hour; compositions, declamations, and recitations, 2 hours; history, 3 hours; drawing, 1 hour; vocal and physical exercises, 1 hour; writing, 1 hour.

Oral instruction.—Let it ever be remembered that if the true end of these lessons be lost sight of, the results will be disappointing in the extreme. If the teacher consume the time in merely lecturing the class, they passively receiving what may be said, they will remember little or nothing. Every point should be so presented as to draw out the scholars' minds. What they have learned already, by observation or inquiry, should first be required. Then the teacher should correct what has been erroneous in their statements, and give such information as they have failed to present. And in all cases, not only in connection with the oral lessons, but with the lessons in every branch, the language of the scholar should be preferred to the formal and studied expression of the scientific treatises. Every effort should be made to improve the language of the child, but it should be his own language, and not the language of another.

Metals and minerals.—The topics treated of may follow this direction: difference between a metal and a mineral, precious metals, useful metals, heaviest, most useful, which a fluid, object lessons on metals and their compounds, and the more common kind of minerals.

Air and water.—Treat of their component elements, proportion of oxygen and nitrogen in the air, relation of oxygen to life, to combustion. Properties of nitrogen and hydrogen.

Perform some simple experiments illustrating the pressure of the air. Treat of the common properties and use of water, the distinction between hard and soft water, ocean water.

In lessons on the above subjects, and in future lessons on similar topics, it will be very important to illustrate the uses of woods, metals, elements, &c., in connection with the common things of every-day life. Then, gradually, the most of the instruments and processes pertaining to household and ordinary business affairs will be passed in review. Thus, in connection with the lesson on air, gases may be spoken of, and the use of carbonic acid in charging soda fountains, raising bread, &c; in treating of heat, combustion may be spoken of, and the nature and ascent of smoke explained; when the uses of water are considered, the steam engine may be described and explained; the difference between a locomotive and stationary engine, between paddle-wheels and propellers, &c.

Respiration, circulation, and digestion.—The chief parts of the body have been already learned, and if reviews of lessons given in previous classes have been properly followed up, the scholars are familiar with the general structure of the body, so as to be ready for further advances in physiology. Special attention will now be given to the organs of respiration, circulation, and digestion; and the teacher will treat specifically of the structure and offices of the lungs; their capacity, exercises for their healthy development; respiration; obstructed action; process of purifying the blood; carbonic acid of the breath, how formed, its amount, composition, weight, and relation to life, with illustrative experiments; speak of burning charcoal in a close room; ventilation. The teacher will treat of the structure and offices of

the heart, together with the arterial and venous systems; and of the structure and offices of the stomach, mastication, the teeth, saliva, digestion, chyme, chyle, nutrition; impurities; waste of the system, how repaired, proper and improper food, eating too much, too fast, too often, late in the evening; irregularity of meals; dyspepsia.

National and State governments.—The national government will be fully considered at a later period, when the Constitution is the subject of study. But it is well at this point to review some of its leading features in connection and comparison with those of the State. Let the latter be clearly presented and understood.

Reading.—This exercise should now begin to rise above the plane of mere practice in elocution, definitions, and the study of language, into that of the simpler elements of rhetoric. The figures of speech that may be found in the reading lessons should sometimes be examined and analyzed, varieties and contrasts of style pointed out, and an attempt made to beget an interest in literature of a pure and elevating kind. Committing to memory choice gems of prose or poetry and reciting them is highly recommended for every class of the grammar grade.

Compositions.—This essential branch of study must be followed up systematically and critically. Nothing so useful can supply its place. The scholar by this time should be able to write a letter in a creditable manner, the date, name of the person written to, name of writer, all properly placed, the chirography even and well formed, the capitalization correct, and the letter folded, enclosed, and superscribed neatly and correctly. They should have acquired much facility, also, in writing impromptu compositions on any given subject. Formal and elaborate compositions of considerable length must not yet be exacted.

SIXTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—Mechanical powers; electricity and magnetism; sound; light; heat; historical sketches—Alfred, Elizabeth, Shakspeare, Milton, Napoleon the Great, Jefferson, Webster, Calhoun, Clay; physiology completed.

Reading and spelling.—Fourth reader concluded; fifth reader to 100th page; text-book of history; finish the speller and review.

Grammar.—To the verb.

Arithmetic.—To exchange, 230th page, and review; omit articles 276, 277, 279, 280, and from 308 to 318; exercises as before; mental arithmetic begun.

Geography.—To Africa; map-drawing from memory.

Writing.—This may be made an exercise in book-keeping with such scholars as desire it.

History.—To the Constitution, and review.

Compositions, recitations, declamations, abstracts and written reviews.

Morals and manners, singing, vocal and physical exercises.

Oral instruction.—The mechanical powers offer a very interesting field for instruction. Let the illustrations be drawn from as familiar sources as possible, and the scholars enticed to exercise their own minds freely; treat of gravity, its relations to force and motion; also of perpetual motion, and why it is impossible.

Electricity and magnetism.—Illustrate the production of electricity, and properties of attraction and repulsion, by simple experiments, with a piece of silk, woollen cloth, &c. Treat of conductors and non-conductors, lightning and lightning conductors, Franklin's kite; properties of the magnet; magnetic needle, mariner's compass, horseshoe magnet, telegraph. Explain the latter fully.

There are numberless simple experiments to illustrate these themes—such as the flying apart of the hair when combed briskly in cold weather, the effects of water in making it smooth; the effects of magnetism as shown in magnetic toys, (swimming fish, &c.) The experiments should be performed generally first, and then the lesson drawn from the phenomena exhibited. What is done, in this stage of advancement, is more important than scientific theories on the subject.

Sound.—Illustrate its production by a stretched cord or other vibrating body. Treat of the following points: action of sound on the ear; high and low sounds, how produced; relation of the air to sound; velocity of sound; thunder; the human voice; varieties of the human voice; name twenty different kinds of sound; echoes; whispering gallery; ear trumpet; musical instruments; bells.

Light.—Treat of luminous bodies; velocity of light; difference between the light of the sun and that of the moon; laws of reflection; mirrors; refraction; (experiment—a piece of money in a bowl of water;) action of the microscope and telescope; solar spectrum; rainbow; structure and action of the eye; dangers to the eye from excessive use, bad light, and fine print; how cats and other animals see in the night; cause of color; twilight.

Heat.—Explain and apply the principles of the following topics and illustrate them as far as practicable: Sources of heat; sensations of heat and cold; burning-glasses; good and poor conductors; clothing; structure of ice-houses; contraction and expansion; putting tire

on wheel; fire bellows; thermometer; glass cracked by hot water; why clocks go faster in cold weather than warm; how to regulate a pendulum clock when it gains or loses time; freezing water; heat absorbed by change from solid to liquid state; freezing mixture of salt and ice; cooling a heated room by sprinkling water on the floor; boiling water; steam and its force; flame, how produced; carbon; wick of candle, why not consumed; use of glass chimney to a lamp; gas for lighting houses; use of blower in kindling a fire; action of a chimney; advantages and disadvantages of stoves, as compared with the old-fashioned fire-places.

Geography.—Let the teachers be careful not to fall into a lifeless routine method of text-book question and answer, but to teach mainly by topics, used in various and interesting ways.

Arithmetic.—Nothing has been expressly said thus far in this manual about the use of the blackboard. But the value set on this instrumentality by the school authorities might have been gathered from the frequent directions involving its use. It is indispensable to a well-ordered school. There are numberless occasions, in connection with various studies, especially with arithmetic, when the inspiration and success of the lesson depend on the class lining the room at work on the blackboard. It is a bad sign as to the methods pursued in a class, when the blackboards are wholly or mainly occupied with drawings and verses, thus indicating that they are not valued and used as helps to recitation. These remarks are applicable to all the classes throughout.

Grammar.—This is now to be taken up as a text-book study for the first time. It is not desirable that the niceties of criticism, which make up the chief part of the text-book, should receive attention; for correctness in speaking and writing is acquired more from practice, and the reading of pure, elegant models, than from the knowledge of rules, and the chief part of the time of grammar schools must be devoted to those studies that will yield practical fruits. The chief principles of construction and syntax are all that are necessary, and it is especially enjoined not to waste time in memorializing the definitions and rules of the text-book when what they attempt to express is really understood.

Compositions.—The scholars are now becoming old enough to extend the range of their exercises in this important branch; and every practicable device must be instituted to test and enlarge their knowledge of language, through its instrumentality.

FIFTH CLASS.

Oral instruction.—Geology, meteorology, astronomy; historical sketches; Demosthenes, Socrates, Julius Cæsar, Cicero, Mohammed, Peter the Great; Babylon, Nineveh, Herculaneum and Pompeii, Rome, Jerusalem, Athens.

Compositions, declamations, abstracts, written reviews.

Reading and spelling.—Fifth reader finished; analysis of derivative and compound words, with meaning and use of the more common prefixes and affixes; reviews and test exercises in spelling.

Grammar completed; parsing from reading book.

Geography completed and reviewed; physical geography specially considered; use of globes.

History.—Text-book completed, and reviewed.

Arithmetic.—To involution, page 264, and review; include from articles 308 to 318 inclusive; ratio, simple and compound proportion, profit and loss, each by analysis only; mental arithmetic; ready reckoning; exercises in combining series of numbers.

Writing.—The elements of book-keeping embraced in this exercise, if desired.

Singing, drawing, vocal and physical exercises, morals and manners.

Oral instruction.—Only the elements of the sciences named under this head are to be treated of; as for instance, a few lessons on the geological formation of the United States, and especially of Massachusetts; coal fields, mineral ores; fossiliferous rocks. A few lessons on the earth and its motions; change of seasons; difference in the length of days and nights at different seasons of the year; length of longest day at the equator; at the tropics; at the polar circles; at the poles; tides; solar system; the sun, its office, distance, magnitude, spots; the moon, its size, distance, different phases; eclipses of sun and moon; planets; their relative size, and satellites; comets; fixed stars. A few lessons on winds, clouds, fogs, dew, frost, rain, snow, hail, ice.

Geography.—The scholars should be instructed in the use of the terrestrial globe so as to be able to solve such problems as these: to find the length of a degree of longitude at any given latitude; to find the hours of sunrise and sunset, and the length of day and night at a given place on a given day; to find how long the sun shines without setting, at any given place in the north frigid zone, and how long it is invisible, &c.

But few explicit directions are given in relation to the fifth class, for most of the work that they are to accomplish is by way of review, and attention to those broader and higher relations of study which cannot be strictly defined and regulated. Much in the control of the studies of this class must be left to the discretion of the teachers. But enough has been already said throughout this manual to impart clear conceptions of what should be the inspirations of the school-room, and what are the grand results to be attained.

This Manual closes at this point for the present, as the school committee are not yet prepared to put their views of the work of the high school into explicit form.

The directions that have been made, it must be understood, are not intended to limit and hamper the teachers. The design is to establish a uniform minimum of attainments, so that one class may be readily compared with any other of the same rank, and the teachers may realize the existence of a well-understood system, that is to organize all their labors. Beyond securing these ends, the teachers may make the course of study as elastic and comprehensive as may be pleasant and practicable.

Every teacher should have posted up in the school-room an established order of exercises for each day in the week, assigning a definite time for the beginning and ending of each exercise, together with the times for and topics of study, as well as recitations.

It is a grave charge against our common school system that its rigid classification and methods tend to repress all genius and special aptitudes, and reduce the scholars to a dead level of effort and culture, destructive of the best offices of the mind. It is believed that the modifications of the prevalent methods introduced by this manual will enable the teachers to develop and foster to some degree marked aptitudes of mind, so that they can indicate to parents what occupations will be the best adapted to their children in after life. This point is seriously urged on the attention of the teachers. Let scholars, moreover, be put forward from class to class as fast as their attainments and capacity will justify it, none who are fit for advancement being kept back because their class, as a whole, do not not keep pace with them.

It may be well to state, that the superintendent of public schools in New Bedford, Rev. Henry F. Harrington, who drew up the preceding course of study for the consideration of the committee, has subjected the subjects and courses of instruction in that class of schools, generally designated grammar schools, to a searching criticism in an address delivered before the State Teacher's Association of Massachusetts in 1867, and since published with the caption "*Our Grammar Schools: Why do they not furnish more and better material to our High Schools?*" The main defects in this class of schools he conceives to be the exclusive attention paid to arithmetic and English grammar, and the memorizing of useless facts in geography and history, to the utter neglect of the ordinary phenomena of nature, and the labors, the duties, and the facts of every-day life.

These are the principles of physiology, the elements of natural sciences, the properties and uses of matter, of air, water, light, heat, minerals, metals, woods, the materials and processes of the mechanic arts, the mechanical powers, the uses of steam, the construction of the steam-engine and the telegraph, the materials and manufacture of textile fabrics, the preparation of food; and moreover, the nature, functions, and departments of government, in this country of ours, in which every boy who lives is, in a few years, to be a free, voting, responsible citizen. All these topics that are unwrought with the very life and soul of every day's thought and action, shall our grammar schools ignore them, or only take them up fitfully and imperfectly, as the mere by-play of the regular studies?

Arithmetic and grammar now engross most of the working hours of our schools, not so much for their intrinsic value as for the vicarious part they are expected to perform in disciplining the mind. The mathematics, being an exact study, has the credit of training the reasoning powers better than any other branch, and grammar is held in special honor, on the ground that the study of the structure of language best disciplines the memory and judgment. Now the first thing to be done in order to a fair estimate of the relative values of grammar school studies, is to dislodge from our minds every lingering prejudice that it is needful to carry forward any vicarious exercises of the kind. We want to settle fairly and squarely down upon the principle that the mind will get discipline enough in view of the various other indispensable demands upon the scholars' time, from any study whatever, which is worthy the name of a study, that it systematically and thoroughly pursues.

SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS. √

The public schools of Springfield, Massachusetts, are classified as follows:

1. The high school (including a new Latin preparatory department) stands at the head of the series of public schools.
2. Four grammar schools, kept in different sections of the city, viz: North Main street, Elm street, Armory Hill, Central street, each with a male teacher as principal. The several sections or classes in the new grammar school buildings are respectively accounted as forming but one school, though of different grades, all being under the charge and direction of one principal.
3. Primary schools, comprising all the schools outside of the grammar school buildings, except the mixed schools, the ungraded school on State street, and the truant school.
4. The mixed schools, comprising the schools in the outside sections or districts of the city, having no immediate connection with the other schools by gradation or transfers.
5. The ungraded school on State street, specially designed for the reception of such scholars as from any cause are irregular in their attendance.
6. The truant school, kept at the city almshouse, for the reception of children sent there as a school of reform, by the police court, for truancy, idleness, vagrancy, and other like misdemeanors.
7. The adult evening school, kept only during the winter season, and exclusively for adults who have not had the advantages of early education.

The schools below the high school are divided into four general groups, with reference to the transfer of pupils and classes from one grade to another. At the head of each group is the highest department of the grammar school of that division, the principal of which has the superintending charge (subject to the superintendent) of all the schools below. All transfers and promotions are made during the two closing weeks of the term next preceding the term when they are to go into effect.

COURSE OF STUDIES.

The course of studies is arranged for a series of twelve consecutive years, beginning with the lowest class in the primary school.

FIRST YEAR.

Sargent's Primer thoroughly read. Questions upon reading lessons. The words in columns, also in reading lessons, to be spelled by letters and sounds. Give particular attention to enunciation, correct bad habits, and insist upon the use of good English. Use tablets or charts. Use the primary school slate No. 1, and blackboard for printing small letters, capitals, and short words. Develop the idea of numbers, and, using real objects, as marbles, beans, or the numeral frame, count by ones and twos to 100. Punctuation marks and their use partly. Object lessons on color, form, and size, with illustrations from real objects. Verses and maxims repeated. Singing for five minutes, also physical exercises for the same time twice each session. Lessons for oral instruction drawn from Hooker's Child Book of Common Things.

SECOND YEAR.

Sargent's First Reader, thoroughly read. Pupils to be questioned about reading lessons, and to be encouraged to ask questions about it. The words in columns, also in the lesson, to be spelled by letters and sounds. Syllabication. Names and uses of punctuation marks. Printing and drawing on slate No. 1, for a part of the year. Writing the Arabic figures and script letters with slate No. 2, commenced. Oral lessons in geography, with the use of the globe. Map drawing commenced. Abbreviations commenced. Addition and subtraction of small numbers, with practical examples. Verses, maxims, singing, physical exercises, and object lessons as first year.

THIRD YEAR.

Sargent's Second Reader. Sargent's Speller to class 6. Words from reading lessons to be spelled by letters and sounds. Reading lessons and the meaning of words to be talked about. Words defined. Abbreviations completed. Addition and multiplication tables learned. Addition, subtraction, multiplication division, and fractions by oral lessons with practical examples. Intellectual arithmetic commenced. General geography taught by the use of the globe, and the geography of Massachusetts by the use of the map. Map drawing,

writing, and drawing on slate No. 2. Counting forwards to 100 and backwards to one. Notation to 1,000. Verses, maxims, physical exercises, singing, oral instruction, and object lessons as previous years.

FOURTH YEAR.

Third Reader.—Words from reading lessons spelled and defined. Reading lessons discussed. Speller (oral spelling) to class 8. Particular attention to enunciation. Writing. Primary geography commenced. Drawing and intellectual arithmetic continued. Frequent drill in adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing to secure facility and accuracy, using Walton's tables, slates, and blackboards. The principles of music and singing taught. Gymnastics for a few minutes each session. Oral instruction in physical geography. Object lessons, and lessons on morals and manners through the year. Geography studied in connection with articles of commerce. Map drawing. Writing simple sentences, narrations, &c., to be continued to seventh year.

FIFTH YEAR.

Intermediate Reader.—Words from reading lessons spelled and defined. Speller (oral spelling) to class 11. Particular attention given to incorrect expressions and wrong pronunciation. Primary geography and intellectual arithmetic completed. Advanced geography commenced. Map drawing. Written arithmetic to fractions. Writing and drawing continued. Drill with Walton's tables. Music and gymnastics as fourth year. General questions asked and investigations encouraged. Morals and manners. Oral instruction on plants, using the Child's Book of Nature, part first, and other kindred works for reference, also real objects.

SIXTH YEAR.

Intermediate Reader.—With discussions of words and phrases, spelling and defining as fifth year. Spelling to class 14. Spelling (vocal and by writing.) Geography and map drawing. Written arithmetic to percentage, with analysis of problems as in mental arithmetic. Gymnastics, writing, music, and drill with Walton's tables. Morals and manners as fifth year. Oral instruction and object lessons upon subjects drawn from natural history. Books of reference, the Child's Book of Nature, natural history, zoölogy, &c.

SEVENTH YEAR.

English course.

Fall term—Arithmetic, with analysis as sixth year, geography, English grammar, by oral instruction.

Winter term.—Arithmetic, geography, completed, English grammar.

Summer term.—Arithmetic, history of the United States, English grammar, declamation during the year.

Preparatory department in Latin.

Fall term.—Arithmetic as in English course, geography, Latin grammar or lessons.

Winter term.—Arithmetic, geography, completed, Latin grammar and reader, or lessons.

Summer term.—Arithmetic, history of the United States, Latin grammar and reader, or lessons.

Reading (Fourth Reader,) composition, writing, music, spelling, gymnastics, drill with Walton's tables, morals and manners, and oral instruction and object lessons upon subjects drawn from natural philosophy and chemistry through the year.

Books of reference, the Child's Book of Nature, Science of Common Things.

EIGHTH YEAR.

English course.

Fall term.—Arithmetic, history of the United States, English grammar.

Winter term.—Arithmetic, history of the United States, English grammar, book-keeping.

Summer term.—Arithmetic, history of the United States, English grammar, geography reviewed, book-keeping.

Latin preparatory.

Fall term.—Arithmetic, history of the United States, Latin grammar and reader.

Winter term.—Arithmetic, history of the United States, Latin grammar and reader, Viri Romæ.

Summer term.—Arithmetic, history of the United States, Latin grammar and Viri Romæ, writing Latin during the year.

Reading (Fourth Reader,) speller, declamation, composition, writing, music, gymnastics,

drill with Walton's tables, morals and manners, and oral instruction with object lessons upon subjects drawn from physiology and astronomy, through the year.

Reference, First Book in Physiology, Child's Book of Nature, &c., &c.

NINTH YEAR.

English cour e.

Fall term.—Arithmetic reviewed, physical geography, English grammar.

Winter term.—Algebra commenced, physical geography completed, English grammar.

Summer term.—Algebra continued, natural philosophy commenced, history of England commenced, spelling through the year.

Classical course.

Fall term.—Arithmetic reviewed, Latin grammar, Nepos or Cæsar commenced, Greek grammar and lessons, Roman history and ancient geography.

Winter term.—Algebra commenced, Latin grammar, Nepos or Cæsar completed, Greek grammar and lessons, Roman history and ancient geography.

Summer term.—Algebra continued, Latin grammar, Cicero's orations, Greek grammar and lessons, Roman history and ancient geography, written translations during the year.

Reading, declamations, and composition every week during the year.

TENTH YEAR.

English course.

Fall term.—Algebra completed, geometry commenced, natural philosophy completed, history of England completed.

Winter term.—Geometry continued, chemistry commenced, rhetoric commenced.

Summer term.—Geometry completed, chemistry completed, rhetoric completed, English classics, spelling and defining during the year.

Classical course.

Fall term.—Algebra completed, geometry commenced, Latin grammar, Cicero's orations, Greek grammar, Anabasis, Grecian and Roman history, ancient geography.

Winter term.—Geometry continued, Latin grammar, Cicero's orations, Greek grammar, Anabasis, Grecian and Roman history.

Summer term.—Natural philosophy, Latin prosody, Virgil (Æneid,) Greek grammar, Anabasis, Grecian and Roman history, Greek and Latin prose composition during the year.

Reading, declamation, and composition during the year.

ELEVENTH YEAR.

English course.

Fall term.—Trigonometry commenced, geology commenced, physiology, book-keeping, English classics, French.

Winter term.—Trigonometry completed, geology completed, science of government, mental philosophy commenced, English classics, French.

Classical course.

Fall term.—Latin prosody, Virgil (Æneid,) Greek grammar, Anabasis, English grammar, Grecian and Roman history.

Winter term.—Virgil (Bucolics and Georgics,) Homer's Iliad, mathematics reviewed.

English course.

Summer term.—Surveying commenced, mental philosophy completed, botany, zoölogy, English classics, French.

Classical course.

Summer term.—Virgil (Georgics) finished, reviews, Greek and Latin prose composition during the year.

Reading, declamation, and English composition during the year.

TWELFTH YEAR.

English course.

Fall term.—Surveying completed, moral science commenced, astronomy, French, arithmetic reviewed.

Winter term.—Algebra reviewed, moral science completed, political economy, French.

Summer term.—Geometry reviewed, political economy completed, reviews.

Reading, composition and declamation during the year.

NEW HAVEN, CONNECTICUT.

The earliest notice of a public school in New Haven is found within the first year of the settlement of the colony, when a committee, consisting of the pastor and the magistrates, was appointed to consider "what yearly allowance is meet to be given to it out of the common stock of the town." The plan of public instruction for the town and colony of New Haven, submitted by Reverend John Davenport, embraced, first, common schools, then grammar schools, and then a college. In the first school, under the famous Ezekiel Cheever, children were taught not only "to read and write and cast up accounts, but to make some entrance into the Latin tongue." The second grade was to have "a schoolmaster to teach the three languages—Latin, Greek, and Hebrew—so far as shall be necessary to prepare them for the college." The college was "for the education of youth in good literature, to fit them for public service in church and commonwealth." According to the historical discourse delivered on the two-hundredth anniversary of the settlement of the town, in 1838, "the introduction of the common school system was a work of time and of unwearied effort. By perseverance, however, the benefits of education were finally perceived and acknowledged by all. A school was brought to every man's door; the poor, and even the slave, were within reach of instruction; and hence, for nearly a century and a half, a native of Connecticut, of mature age, unable to read the English tongue has been looked upon as a prodigy."

Without attempting to trace the successive stages of the development of the system, it may be stated that the public schools of the city of New Haven are under the special charge of nine men, known as the board of education, who have almost absolute authority in all that relates to their management except in the levying of taxes and building of school-houses, which are reserved to the voters in district meeting. They select and examine the teachers, determine the text-books and courses of study, fix the limits of terms and vacations, decide upon salaries, prescribe regulations for teachers and scholars. As these duties and responsibilities are very arduous, and as the members of the board are not paid for their services, two salaried officers are appointed by the board, one of them entitled the superintendent of schools, and charged with the intellectual cares, the examination of teachers and scholars, and the general oversight of the school-rooms; the other, who is actually, but not necessarily, the clerk of the district, having a supervision of the material and financial interests of the district. Three standing committees supervise the work of these officers and prepare the business for the consideration of the board, namely, a committee on schools, a committee on buildings, and a committee on finance.

The schools are organized on the graded system; the pupils are grouped in different rooms and classes, according to their ages and attainments. From 50 to 60 scholars are usually in charge of one instructor, and in the largest buildings there are 12 rooms and about 600 scholars, under the supervision of a principal and his 12 assistants. There are six large houses and several smaller ones, conveniently distributed in different sections of the city. Several of these houses bear the names of distinguished men. One commemorates Theophilus Eaton, the earliest colonial governor; another bears the name of Washington; a third is called Dixwell, in memory of one of three judges of Charles I, who were resident here during part of their exile; a fourth is named in honor of David Wooster, a New Haven general in the Revolutionary army; a fifth bears the name of Noah Webster, the lexicographer; a sixth, that of Timothy Dwight, the distinguished president of Yale College; a seventh—erected as a school for the Africans—is designated the Lincoln school, in honor of the great emancipator; the building occupied by the high school is called after James Hillhouse, one of the chief originators of the Connecticut school fund; and the last is designated the Skinner school, after a public-spirited citizen and mayor.

Besides the regular grades of public schools, there are special schools, viz: two primary schools, one for neglected boys, and one for neglected girls; an evening school for boys engaged in labor through the day; two schools for African children; a training school for young teachers; besides the Hopkins Grammar School, a purely classical school, maintained by endowment and tuition; a German-American school supported by a German society; and the whole system is crowned by the schools of higher instruction which are grouped under the corporation of Yale College.

SUBJECTS AND COURSE OF STUDY.

The course of study in the public schools of New Haven is as follows:

FIRST YEAR.

Average age 6 *to* 7.—Reading and spelling, (First Reader,) read numbers to 100, daily exercises in enunciation, print on slate.

SECOND YEAR.

Average age 7 *to* 8.—Reading and spelling, (Second Reader,) write and read numbers to 1,000, the Roman numerals to 100, addition table, oral instruction in geography, writing script hand on slate, punctuation marks from cards.

THIRD YEAR.

Average age 8 *to* 9.—Reading, (Third Reader,) spelling-book, page 52, primary arithmetic, to page 60, the Roman notation finished, primary geography through the United States, writing on slate.

FOURTH YEAR.

Average age 9 *to* 10.—Reading, (Third and Fourth Reader,) spelling-book, page 75, primary arithmetic finished, primary geography finished, writing.

FIFTH YEAR.

Average age 10 *to* 11.—Reading, (Fourth Reader,) spelling-book, page 102, arithmetic, the ground rules, reduction, definitions and general principles, intermediate geography to South America, writing, composition.

SIXTH YEAR.

Average age 11 *to* 12.—Reading, (Fifth Reader,) spelling-book finished, arithmetic, common and decimal fractions, United States money, compound numbers, intermediate geography finished, grammar to syntax, writing, composition.

SEVENTH YEAR.

Average age 12 *to* 13.—Reading, (Fifth Reader,) spelling-book reviewed, arithmetic, percentage, ratio, proportion, alligation, geography reviewed, grammar finished, history, writing or book-keeping, composition.

The course of study marked out for the High School is as follows:

FIRST YEAR.

Summer term.—Algebra and arithmetic, physical geography, English grammar with analysis, derivation of words, and construction of sentences.

Fall term.—Algebra and arithmetic, physical geography, grammar, with analysis, &c.

Winter term.—Algebra and arithmetic, modern history, English language, rhetoric and written exercises.

Optional studies.—Latin, ancient history, chronology, and geography.

Collateral studies.—During each term of the year, at stated times, all the pupils will have exercises in elocution, in the form of reading, declamation, or recitation, also in orthography, penmanship, drawing, and composition, physiology taught by lectures.

SECOND YEAR.

Summer term.—Geometry, modern history, English literature, rhetoric and written exercises.

Fall term.—Geometry, modern history, book-keeping, business forms, &c.

Winter term.—Geometry, American history, book-keeping, commercial arithmetic, &c.

Optional studies.—Latin, Greek, French, and German.

Collateral studies.—As in first year.

THIRD YEAR.

Summer term.—Trigonometry, natural philosophy.

Fall term.—Trigonometry, natural philosophy, astronomy.

Winter term.—Household science, natural history, Constitution of the U. S. and of Conn.

Optional studies.—Latin, Greek, French, German.

Collateral studies.—As in first and second years.

NORWICH, CONNECTICUT.

The Free Academy, which originated in the repeated failure of efforts to establish a Public High School, supported by tax on the property of the whole community, is supported by the income from a fund contributed by several public-spirited citizens of Norwich. The fund, in addition to the amount expended in grounds, buildings, and equipment, now amounts to $90,000. The building and grounds are unsurpassed by those of any similar institution in the country. Pupils of both sexes are admitted, and tuition is free to those whose parents or guardians reside in the town of Norwich. All others pay a tuition fee of $30 a year. Each pupil is charged $2 a term for incidental expenses.

Candidates for admission must pass an examination in spelling and defining, English grammar, arithmetic, geography, and the history of the United States. The examination is conducted in writing, and the candidates, to be successful, must get an average mark of seven, ten being the maximum. Examinations are held at the beginning and close of the summer vacation.

COURSE OF STUDY PREPARATORY FOR COLLEGE

JUNIOR CLASS.

Fall term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Harkness's Latin Reader, Loomis's Algebra, Hooker's Physiology.

Winter term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Harkness's Latin Reader, Loomis's Algebra, Palmer's History of England.

Summer term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Harkness's Latin Reader, Loomis's Algebra, Palmer's History of England.

SECOND MIDDLE CLASS.

Fall term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Bullion's Cæsar, Loomis's Geometry, Hadley's Greek Grammar, Whiton's Greek Lessons.

Winter term.—Harkness' Latin Grammar, Bullion's Cæsar, Loomis's Geometry, Hadley's Greek Grammar, Whiton's Greek Lessons.

Summer term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Bullion's Cæsar, Loomis's Geometry, Hadley's Greek Grammar, Whiton's Greek Lessons.

FIRST MIDDLE CLASS.

Fall term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Hanson's Latin Poetry, (Ovid,) Hadley's Greek Grammar, Boise's Xenophon's Anabasis, Dr. Smith's Smaller History of Rome, Arnold's Latin Prose Composition.

Winter term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Hanson's Latin Poetry, (Ovid,) Hadley's Greek Grammar, Boise's Xenophon's Anabasis, Dr. Smith's Smaller History of Rome, Arnold's Latin Prose Composition.

Summer term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Hanson's Latin Poetry, (Virgil,) Boise's Xenophon's Anabasis, Dr. Smith's Smaller History of Greece.

SENIOR CLASS.

Fall term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Hanson's Latin Poetry, (Virgil,) Hadley's Greek Grammar, Owen's Homer's Iliad, Greek Prose Composition.

Winter term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Hanson's Cicero, Hadley's Greek Grammar, Owen's Homer's Iliad, Greek Prose Composition.

Summer term.—Latin reviewed, Greek reviewed, mathematics reviewed.

GENERAL COURSE OF STUDY.

JUNIOR CLASS.

Fall term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Harkness's Latin Reader, Loomis's Algebra, Hooker's Physiology,

Winter term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Harkness's Latin Reader, Loomis's Algebra, Palmer's History of England.

Summer term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Harkness's Latin Reader, Loomis's Algebra, Palmer's History of England.

SECOND MIDDLE CLASS.

Fall term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Bullion's Cæsar, Loomis's Geometry, Fasquelle's French Course.

Winter term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Bullion's Cæsar, Loomis's Geometry, Fasquelle's French Course.

Summer term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Bullion's Cæsar, Loomis's Geometry, Fasquelle's French Course, DeFivas's Elementary French Reader.

FIRST MIDDLE CLASS.

Fall term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Hanson's Latin Poetry, Loomis's Trigonometry. History of Rome, Noel and Chapsal's French Grammar, DeFivas's Classic French Reader.

Winter term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Hanson's Latin Poetry, Loomis's Mensuration, &c., History of Rome, Noel and Chapsal's French Grammar, Charles the Twelfth.

Summer term.—Harkness's Latin Grammar, Hanson's Latin Poetry, Quackenbos's Natural Philosophy, History of Greece, Noel and Chapsal's French Grammar, Picciola.

SENIOR CLASS.

Fall term.—Alden's Mental Philosophy, Quackenbos's Natural Philosophy, Selections from the French Drama, Conversations in French, Business Arithmetic, Book-keeping by Single Entry.

Winter term.—Wayland's Moral Philosophy, Hooker's Chemistry, Dumas's Vie de Napoleon, Conversations in French, Book-keeping by Double Entry, Practice in various kinds of Business.

Summer term.—Alden's Science of Government, Guyot's Earth and Man, Gray's Botany, Selections from French Literature, Conversations in French, Book-keeping by Double Entry, Lecture on Commercial Law, &c.

OTHER STUDIES.

The studies mentioned in the foregoing scheme occupy four days of each week. Besides these branches, the following are pursued:

Spelling.—Each class has an exercise in spelling once a week.

Rhetoric.—In this department the classes recite for the first two years once a week from a text-book, and have short exercises in composition, applying the principles as they learn them. During the last two years, more formal compositions are required once in two weeks, and a teacher spends an hour each day in personal instruction in this branch, meeting each pupil as often as possible and making such suggestions as each case seems to demand.

Elocution.—Each class has an exercise in reading once a week throughout the course. The young ladies of the last two classes also read selections once in two weeks before the whole school. The boys of the first two classes are brought together every week for declamation, and each one speaks once in two weeks before the whole body; the boys of the last two classes declaim once in two weeks before the whole school. They are trained privately for these exercises by a teacher who devotes an hour each day to this branch.

Penmanship.—The junior class has a drill in penmanship once a day during the first term, and attention is paid to the subject throughout the course.

Fine arts.—We have an able instructor in this department who gives lessons once a week.

English literature.—There is a course of reading extending through the last two years, the object of which is to give the pupils a familiar acquaintance with the various English authors. Cleveland's Compendium is the text-book used at present. The recitations are accompanied by familiar talks on various topics suggested by the readings.

DIPLOMAS AND CERTIFICATES.

No one will receive a diploma as a graduate of the institution without completing satisfactorily one of the regular courses of study.

Certificates will be issued to others, according to their attainments, when they leave the school. The entire course requires four years for its completion, but pupils may commence at any stage for which they are prepared. A course of English studies for one or two years will be selected for those who cannot attend longer, and a course of three years, including French or Latin, for such as desire it.

NEW YORK CITY.

The first school of the character now known as a public school, distinct from schools supported by denominations for the exclusive education of their poor, was established in 1802 by the "Female Association for the Relief of the Poor."

In 1805 the "Free School Society" was incorporated, of which De Witt Clinton was president, and in May, 1806, its first school was organized on the plan then recently originated by Joseph Lancaster.

In 1808 the institution was enlarged under the name of the "Free School Society of the City of the New York," and was presented by the corporators with a free school-house, and had intrusted to it the education of the children of the almshouse.

In 1809 the first school edifice for public schools was completed and dedicated in an address by De Witt Clinton.

In 1815 the society received the first apportionment from the State fund for the support of common schools.

In 1821 a committee of the society was instructed to correspond with distinguished educators in Europe and the United States for the purpose of procuring information on the subject of schools, and especially of the education of the poor. In May Mr. Samuel S. Seaton was employed as an agent to visit the families of the poor, and make known the advantages of the schools and secure the punctual attendance of delinquent scholars. Through his agency unity was given to all the operations of the several committees of the society.

In 1825 application was made to the legislature, and an act was passed in compliance therewith changing the name of the institution to that of "The Public School Society of New York," and extending its powers so as to embrace children of every description, whether the objects of gratuitous education or not, and requiring the appointment of fifty trustees, making the mayor and recorder *ex officio* trustees.

According to the by-laws of these trustees the prices for tuition were fixed as follows: "For the alphabet, spelling, and writing on slates, as far as the third class inclusive, 25 cents per quarter; continuance of the above, with reading and arithmetical tables, or the fourth, fifth, and sixth classes, 50 cents per quarter; continuance of the last, with writing on paper, arithmetic and definitions, or the seventh, eighth, and ninth classes, 100 cents per quarter; the preceding, with grammar, geography, the use of maps and globes, book-keeping, history, composition, mensuration, astronomy, &c., 200 cents per quarter. No additional charge for instruction in needle-work, or for fuel, books, or stationery."

In 1828 the schools were placed upon the basis of "common schools," no longer as a matter of charity, but of right, and were supported as a matter of public interest by a general tax. This tax was one-eighth of one per cent., and was the first tax raised by the city of New York for the support of common schools. The memorial by which the attention of the common council principally was called to the subject was signed mainly by the wealthiest citizens.

The subjects of instruction were, originally, spelling, reading, writing, and the simplest rudiments of arithmetic. As late as 1815, but 500 children were attending to arithmetic; and of these 208 were in addition and subtraction, 110 in multiplication and division, 15 in the compound rules of the four last, 10 in reduction and rule of three.

In 1832 a committee of the society was appointed to examine into the condition of the schools and propose modifications and improvements. To aid the committee with the experience of other cities, two or three of their number were deputed to visit Boston and examine the school system and schools of that city.

In the report for 1833, signed by Peter Augustus Jay, we find there were 900 children reported as studying geography, 207 grammar, and 143 astronomy and history. Up to this date the schools had been conducted on the monitorial system. As the result of the investigations of this committee, it was decided that the primary schools established in all parts of the city should be kept by female teachers; girls to be admitted of any age over four years, and boys over four and under ten. The course of instruction in these schools was to embrace spelling, easy reading, punctuation, definitions, writing on slates, the elements of arithmetic, geography, and conversations on "common things." The girls were to be taught, in addition, plain sewing. These primary schools were to be taught in suitable "hired rooms." In addition to the primary schools, primary departments for young children of both sexes were to be established in the basement rooms of the public school buildings, and these departments were to be assimilated more and more to the primary schools.

The course of instruction embraced a continuation of the branches commenced in the primary, conducting the pupils to a competent knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, and, in addition, the following branches, viz: English grammar, composition, declamation, book-keeping, and the elements of history, astronomy, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. The committee close their report as follows:

Further changes will doubtless be demanded before the entire system of public instruction is completed. As part of a perfect system the committee look towards the establishment of a high school or seminary for the higher branches of an English education. This must, however, in their opinion, be deferred until the schools provided for in the plan now submitted shall be in successful operation, or till the public schools shall contain a sufficient number of scholars whose parents may desire their transfer to such an institution.

In 1836, owing to a want of one or more high schools in the system, a number of scholarships in Columbia College and the University of New York, with their preparatory schools, were opened by those having the management of those institutions, for such scholars of the public schools as were advanced to the limit of the instruction there provided.

In 1841 and 1842 similar privileges were granted to the Rutgers Female Institute for girls. In 1842 provision was made for a Board of Education, composed of the school commissioners in the several wards, and under their auspices a number of schools were organized, known as the "Ward Public Schools."

In 1844 a plan of oral instruction in the natural sciences and a system of scientific exchanges between the schools was organized under the auspices of Josiah Holbrook.

In 1847, after a protracted discussion and an expression in its favor by a direct vote of the people, a Free Academy was established, with a range of instruction equal to that of the first academies of the State, and admission to the same confined to those who had been pupils of the public schools. In 1866 the designation of this institution was changed to that of the College of the City of New York.

In 1848 evening schools were established for such pupils as could not attend the public or ward schools, schools of the character to a limited degree having been established for apprentices and such as were obliged to leave the day schools at an early age in 1833.

In 1853 the schools and property of the Public School Society were transferred to the board of education, and the society, after years of faithful, useful, and disinterested service in building up an improved system of public instruction, was abolished, and the great interest of public education has since rested with the Board of Education, constituted in the manner elsewhere described.

The Board of Education of the city of New York, on the 18th of December, 1867, adopted the following course of studies for the primary and grammar

schools, which was drawn up by the superintendents and recommended by the special committee on studies and school books:

§ 76.—COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The pupils of the primary schools are classified in six grades:

SIXTH GRADE.

Reading and spelling familiar words from blackboard and charts; also, spelling the same words from dictation. The printed words to be associated with their meaning by conversations with the children about them.

Simple elementary sounds of letters for training the organs of hearing and of speech.

Number.—Counting and adding balls on numeral frame by ones to 100, and by twos and threes to 60; also, counting other objects.

Arabic figures, from 1 to 100, to be read at sight.

Object lessons.—Simple forms, as square, oblong, ring, ball, cylinder; also, the terms straight, crooked, square corner, sharp corner, blunt corner, round corner.

Color.—The six principal colors by means of cards.

Common objects to be shown, and their most obvious parts and qualities to be observed by the children.

Parts of the human body and of familiar animals.

Each exercise to be conducted with a view to forming habits of attention and careful observation through the use of the senses.

Manners and morals.—Instruction to be given in manners and morals, and illustrated by means of the incidents of school and home.

N. B.—The exercises of this grade should not be continued upon the same subject longer than 15 minutes at one time.

FIFTH GRADE.

Reading from the blackboard, charts, and primer. The meaning of words read to be made plain by use in short, familiar sentences or phrases.

Punctuation.—Names and uses of the period and question mark.

Elementary sounds continued; the children to recognize and make the principal vowel sounds in monosyllables.

Spelling words from the reading lessons; also, other words familiar to children.

Number.—Counting and adding, with and without a numeral frame, by threes, fours, and fives to 100; also, subtracting twos, threes, fours, and fives from numbers below 10.

Arabic figures.—Numbers of three figures (to 999) to be read at sight without numeration; also, to be written on slates.

Roman numbers.—I, V, and X, with their combinations to XXXIX.

Object lessons.—Add to the sixth grade, in form, the triangle, rhomb, cube, and the term curved; also, the shapes learned to be recognized in common objects.

Color.—The children to point out the six principal colors in color cards, articles of dress, flowers, &c.

Animals.—The uses of familiar animals and of the principal parts of the human body.

Common objects.—Exercises to be continued as in the fifth grade.

Manners and morals.—Instructions of the same character as for the sixth grade.

N. B.—The exercises of this grade should not be continued upon the same subject longer than 20 minutes at one time.

FOURTH GRADE.

Reading in a first reader. The children to tell what they have been reading about in their lessons.

Punctuation.—Names and common uses of the comma, semicolon, period, question mark and wonder mark.

The meaning of words to be shown chiefly by their use in short sentences or phrases.

Elementary sounds, with exercises in making the sounds of letters in words of one syllable, to give flexibility to the vocal organs.

Spelling words from the reading lessons, and other words familiar to children.

Arithmetic.—Numeration commenced, reading and writing of numbers to be continued through six places, (100,000.)

Mental arithmetic.—Adding, with and without a numeral frame, by sixes, sevens, eights, nines, and tens to 100; also, substracting twos, threes, fours, and fives from numbers below 20, and simple practical questions in addition.

Oral drills for rapid combinations of two numbers, one of which should be less than 10, the other less than 100.

Roman numbers, through I, V, X, L, and C, and their combinations below 100.

Object lessons.—Review the fifth grade, and, in form, add circle, semi-circle, crescent, oval, rhomboid, sphere, hemisphere, cone, spiral and wave lines; also, position of lines, as slanting, horizontal, vertical.

Color.—Add distinction of primary and secondary, also designate shades and tints as dark or light colors.

Animals.—Coverings of familiar animals, how they move, name sounds they make, their food.

Objects and qualities.—The terms sticky, slippery, brittle, tough, porous, transparent, opaque to be illustrated.

Manners and morals.—Instruction for cultivating love to parents, kindness, obedience, neatness, truthfulness, and politeness, to be illustrated by examples, incidents, anecdotes, &c.

N. B.—The exercises of this grade should not be continued upon the same subject longer than 25 minutes at one time.

THIRD GRADE.

Reading in the last half of a first reader or the first half of a second reader; the children to tell, in their own language, what they have been reading about.

Punctuation.—Add to the instruction of the fourth grade the hyphen, apostrophe, quotation marks, and their uses.

The meaning of words to be given chiefly by their use in phrases or short sentences.

Elementary sounds in words of one syllable to be given, and silent letters mentioned.

Spelling words from the reading lessons and other familiar words.

Arithmetic.—Numeration through nine places, also writing numbers through 100,000,000.

Addition on slates by short examples.

Mental arithmetic.—Simple practical questions in addition and subtraction.

Oral drills for the rapid combinations of numbers.

Multiplication table, commenced and continued through 6 times 12.

Roman numbers.—Their combination extended to 200.

Object lessons.—Review the fourth grade, and, in form, add parallel lines, perpendicular, angles, prisms, pyramids, spheroid, circumference, and diameter; also, simple forms, to be described by the teacher and named by the pupils from the description.

Comparative size, with the terms large and small, long and short, thick and thin, wide and narrow, deep and shallow, tall and short.

Color.—Add the common names of the prominent shades and tints.

Animals.—Review lessons of the fourth grade, and add animals used for food, what their flesh is called, what their young are called, wild and tame animals.

Qualities.—Illustrate the qualities: elastic, flexible, liquid, solid, combustible, absorbent.

Plants.—Names of common plants, trees, and flowers; also, of common fruits and grains.

Manners and morals.—Continue the instructions of the fourth grade.

N. B.—The exercises of this grade upon a single subject should not exceed 30 minutes at one time.

SECOND GRADE.

Reading in a second reader; the children to tell, in their own language, the substance of the lesson.

Punctuation.—Its uses in the reading lessons.

The meaning of words in the lesson to be given chiefly by their use in short sentences.

Elementary sounds of words in common use, with exercises to correct indistinct enunciation.

Spelling words of the reading lesson, also other common words.

Slate-writing and drawing, from copies on the blackboard or cards; the small letters, and writing simple words to be taught.

Arithmetic.—Addition and subtraction, with practical examples; multiplication, with multipliers of one figure, from two to nine inclusive.

Mental arithmetic, in addition, subtraction, and multiplication, with practical questions.

Oral drills, for rapid combinations of numbers.

Multiplication table, completed through 12 times 12.

Common tables.—United States money, time, liquid, and dry measures, and weight, (avoirdupois,) taught by illustrations from the pupil's experiences in their use.

Roman numbers completed.

Object lessons.—Review the topics of the third grade, and, in form, add pentagon, hexagon, heptagon, octagon, arc, radius; also descriptions of forms and objects by their shapes, to be given by the pupils.

Size.—Measures from one inch to one yard, with exercises in judging of these lengths.

Color.—Exercises for harmony.

Animals.—Their habits, and the adaptation of their structure to their habits.

Plants.—Parts of, and their uses, kinds used for food, fruits, grains, and nuts used for food.

Qualities.—Illustrate the qualities: soluble, fusible, fibrous, pungent, astringent, odorous, fragrant.

Occupations.—Trades, tools, productions, &c.

Manners and morals.—Improve opportunities in the daily exercises of the school, by conversations upon the subjects of the reading lessons and all appropriate incidents, to inculcate respectfulness, obedience to parents, honesty, and truthfulness.

FIRST GRADE.

Reading in lessons of the grade of the last half of a second reader; the pupils to state, in their own language, the substance of the lesson.

Punctuation reviewed.

The meaning of words to be given chiefly by their use in short sentences, oral or written.

Elementary sounds, their names, and application to faults of pronunciation.

Spelling, from dictation, words and short familiar sentences, orally and by writing on slates.

Slate-writing and drawing to be continued as in the second grade; also familiar sentences, to be written from dictation, with capitals, period, and question mark used.

Arithmetic.—Addition and subtraction reviewed; multiplication, with multipliers of four figures; division, with divisors from 1 to 25; with practical examples in each of the rules.

Mental arithmetic through division, with practical questions in each of the rules.

Oral drills for rapid combinations of numbers.

Multiplication table reviewed, and the

Division table taught in connection with the review.

Tables.—Those of the second grade reviewed, with long, cloth, and surface measures added; also, a miscellaneous table.

Roman numbers reviewed.

Object lessons.—Review the topics of the second grade, and add

Descriptions of objects by their shape, color, and most obvious qualities.

Properties of objects, as mineral, vegetable, animal, to be taught.

Occupations.—Exercises to give the pupils habits of observing and describing the common productions and affairs of life.

Place and direction.—The location and direction of the most prominent objects, and of the principal places in the city and its vicinity; the points of the compass and the use of maps.

Geography.—The definitions relating to the forms of land and water, from cards and outline maps; the location of the principal countries of the world, by means of a globe and hemisphere maps, and by associations with their most familiar animals, productions, and inhabitants.

Manners and morals,—Instruction by means of school incidents and anecdotes, so conducted as to aid in the discipline of the school.

Vocal music.—Exercises and instruction in vocal music to be given for all the classes in school.

§ 77. In the primary schools no lessons shall be given the pupils to be studied after school hours, nor shall any text-book be taken from the schools.

§ 78. Promotions shall be made from the primary to the grammar schools semi-annually, and not oftener, except by permission of the city superintendent; and no pupil shall be promoted from any primary school, unless examined in the highest grade of studies prescribed for primary schools, and found to be qualified, by the city superintendent, or such of his assistants as he may designate for that purpose; and, when so found qualified, such promotion shall be immediately made by the principal of the primary school. Promotions from a lower to a higher class shall in all cases be made when, on examination, the city superintendent or his assistants shall find the whole or any portion of such lower class qualified for such promotion, or when it is deemed necessary by the principal of the school.



§ 79.—REGULAR COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

The regularly organized grammar schools embrace seven grades, for each of which the following course of studies is prescribed:

SEVENTH GRADE.

Reading, of the grade of a third reader, (first half,) with a review of punc-

tuation, Roman numbers, and elementary sounds; and with exercises on the subject matter of the lessons.

Spelling, from the reading lessons, with miscellaneous words and words derived therefrom; also, exercises in writing words and short sentences from dictation.

Definitions, from the reading lessons, to teach the meaning of the words, with illustrations by forming sentences—in no case to be committed to memory and mechanically recited.

Mental arithmetic, as far as in written arithmetic, to include exercises in the analysis of operations and examples, and in rapid calculation without analysis.

Written arithmetic, through the simple rules and federal money, with practical examples.

Tables of weights, measures, &c., reviewed, with practical illustrations and simple applications.

Geography; primary geography, including the general outlines, with definitions, and illustrations, by means of the globe, of the form, magnitude, and motions of the earth, zones, &c.

Oral instruction in the qualities and uses of familiar objects, such as articles of clothing, food, materials for building, &c.

SIXTH GRADE.

Reading, of the grade of a third reader, (latter half,) with exercises as in the seventh grade.

Spelling and definitions, from the reading lessons, with exercises in miscellaneous words and sentences, as in the previous grade.

Mental arithmetic, as far as in written arithmetic, with exercises in analysis calculation.

Written arithmetic; a review of federal money, and the simple operations of common fractions, with practical applications.

Tables of weights and measures, reviewed and applied.

Geography—outlines of North America, including the United States and the West Indies, with the descriptive geography of those countries; elementary definitions and illustrations continued, with the addition of latitude and longitude.

Oral instruction—the qualities and uses of familiar objects continued; also an outline knowledge of animals.

FIFTH GRADE.

Reading, of the grade of a third reader, with the exercises of the preceding grades, particular attention to be given to clearness of articulation and naturalness of intonations and general style.

Spelling, oral and written, as in the preceding grades.

Definitions, as in the preceding grades, with easy exercises on the prefixes and suffixes and their applications.

Mental arithmetic, as far as in written arithmetic, with exercises as in the preceding grades; also practice in the application of the arithmetical tables.

Written arithmetic through common fractions, with their simple practical applications, including, also, a review of federal money, and practice in the simple rules, to secure rapidity and accuracy.

Geography—outlines of South America and Europe, to include the general description of the countries.

English grammar commenced and taught orally; to include the analysis and construction of very simple sentences and a distinction of the parts of speech found in the same, but without formal definitions; also exercises to correct common errors in speech.

Oral instruction in the uses and qualities of familiar objects continued; also an outline knowledge of plants, with their general structure and common uses.

FOURTH GRADE.

Reading, of the grade of a fourth reader, (first half,) with the exercises of the preceding grades.

Spelling and definitions, from the reading lessons, as in the preceding grades.

Mental arithmetic as far as in written arithmetic, with exercises as in the fifth grade.

Written arithmetic through decimals, with practical applications in both common and decimal fractions.

Geography—outlines of Asia, Africa, and America, to include a brief description of the general features of the countries; the topics of the preceding grades to be occasionally reviewed in outline.

English grammar, to be taught orally and to include the analysis and construction of simple sentences, with parsing and correction as in the preceding grade.

Oral instruction in the uses and qualities of familiar objects; also an outline knowledge of common minerals.

THIRD GRADE.

Reading, of the grade of a fourth reader (latter half,) with particular attention to emphasis, intonations, and naturalness of expression.

Spelling and definitions, as in the preceding grades.

Mental arithmetic, a review of the preceding grades, with exercises in calculation and analysis.

Written arithmetic, through denominate numbers and fractions, with practical applications; also the metric system and tables.

Geography, a full knowledge of North America and its divisions, including the United States in detail, with descriptive geography.

English grammar, commenced with the use of text-books, to include the analysis, parsing, and construction of simple sentences, and with such definitions only as pertain to the parts of the subject studied.

History: the early discoveries, and the outlines of colonial history to 1753.

Oral instruction, the topics of the preceding grades continued and reviewed; and, in addition, the simple facts pertaining to agricultural productions.

SECOND GRADE.

Reading, of the grade of the fourth reader, continued, with exercises, as in the preceding grades.

Spelling from the reading lessons, with exercises in writing, miscellaneous words and sentences; and in the analysis and construction of words according to the rules of spelling.

Definitions, from the reading lessons.

Etymology: prefixes, suffixes, and easy Latin roots.

Mental and written arithmetic, through percentage, interest, and profit and loss; with a review of the metric tables.

Geography, both local and descriptive, through South America and Europe.

English grammar continued, with the analysis, parsing, and construction of easy complex and compound sentences; also writing short compositions on the slate, under the inspection of the teacher.

History of the United States, from 1753 to 1789; the outlines only of the revolutionary war to be taught.

Oral instruction continued as in the preceding grades, with the simple facts pertaining to manufactures.

FIRST GRADE.

Reading, spelling and definitions, as in the second grade.

Etymology continued, with the analysis of words and their formation from given roots.

Mental and written arithmetic, through square root and its simple applications.

Geography, oral and descriptive, through Asia, Africa, and Oceanica, with a general review, and the outlines of physical geography.

English grammar continued, with analysis, parsing, and construction, and the correction of false syntax.

Composition, with practice in writing letters, and instruction as to their folding, superscription, &c.

History of the United States, outlines completed.

Astronomy, elementary; the solar system, with an explanation of the ordinary phenomena.

Oral instruction continued, with the simple facts pertaining to commerce; also with current events of general interest and importance, as recorded in the periodicals of the day.

Penmanship shall be taught in each grade of the above course. Instruction in sewing may be given to the pupils of the female schools.

§ 80. The first grade of the regular grammar school course shall occupy a period of one school year, or more, as may be necessary; the lower grades shall each occupy at least one-half of that period; but pupils may be transferred from class to class, without change of grade, whenever it is deemed necessary, by the principal of the school.

SEC. 81. Every pupil passing a thorough examination in the studies of the regular grammar school course shall receive a certificate of graduation for that course which shall entitle to promotion to the supplementary course.

SUPPLEMENTARY COURSE OF STUDIES FOR FEMALE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

§ 82. In addition to the regular course of studies above prescribed, the following supplementary course may be pursued in the female grammar schools, each grade to occupy one year, or more, as may be necessary:

SECOND GRADE.

English grammar, with analysis and composition.

Ancient history: Grecian and Roman, with a brief outline of the history of other countires.

Arithmetic, completed and reviewed.

Algebra, (elementary,) through simple equations.

Geometry, elementary definitions and principles, with the most important theorems pertaining to lines, angles, and the equality of polygons.

Natural philosophy, through mechanics.

Astronomy, outlines of descriptive completed.

Physiology and hygiene, simple essential outlines.

FIRST GRADE.

English grammar and composition.

Rhetoric, with exercises in analysis and criticism.

English literature, the leading outlines in the departments of poetry and the drama, philosophy, history, and fiction.

Modern history: a brief general outline of European history; English and French more in detail.

Elementary algebra, through quadratic equations, with simple problems.

Elementary geometry, definitions and the leading theorems and problems relating to plane figures demonstrated; the definitions and important facts pertaining to planes and solids with demonstration.

Natural philosophy, outlines completed.

Astronomy, with simple calculations and explanations of the physical facts.

SUPPLEMENTARY COURSE FOR MALE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

§ 83. The following course of studies may be pursued in the male grammar schools, each grade to occupy one year, or more, as may be necessary:

SECOND GRADE.

Reading, spelling, definitions, and etymology, continued as in the regular course.

English grammar, with analysis, parsing, and composition.

Geography reviewed.

History and Constitution of the United States.

Astronomy continued.

Arithmetic completed and reviewed.

Algebra, (elementary,) through quadratic equations.

Bookkeeping.

FIRST GRADE.

English grammar and composition.

Algebra, through quadratic equations.

Geometry, outlines of plane and solid, with applications to mensuration and practical plane trigonometry; also, the use of the logarithmic tables.

Elements of natural philosophy, astronomy, and chemistry.

Science of government, including a knowledge of the Constitution of the United States and of the State of New York, with the outlines of municipal and international law.

Bookkeeping.

Mechanical and architectural drawing.

§ 84. The city superintendent of schools, or one of the assistant superintendents, shall select, at every examination of a grammar school, such of the pupils—not less than thirteen years of age—as may be found qualified to pursue the supplementary course; and additional pupils, who have not attended any grammar school during the year next previous, may also be admitted to the supplementary course by the principal of the school. But no class shall be formed in the supplementary course with less than 25 pupils, nor shall any class or pupils be continued in the studies of this course if the actual average attendance of said class or pupils for a period of three months be less than 20.

§ 85. Every pupil passing a thorough examination in the studies prescribed for the supplementary course shall be entitled to a full certificate of graduation.

REGULATIONS APPLICABLE TO ALL GRADES.

§ 86. The studies of the several grades of each course, shall be pursued in the order herein prescribed, and without the addition of any study or studies belonging to a higher grade, or to the supplementary course. Nor shall any of the studies prescribed for the grade be omitted without the permission of the superintendent.

§ 87. Every examination for promotion to a higher grade shall be preceded by a thorough review of all the studies pursued in the grade from which said promotion is to be made.

§ 88. No lesson shall be given to a pupil to be learned out of school until it shall have been sufficiently explained and illustrated by the teacher to the class, nor shall the lessons be such as to require a period of study each day, in the case of a child of average capacity, longer than two hours. Exercises in grammatical analysis and parsing, and written and mental arithmetic shall *not* be assigned for home study except to pupils in the first grade or the supplementary course.

§ 89. On the last Friday of each month there shall be, in every class of each course, a review, in outline, of all the studies of the previous month, at which review all text-books shall be laid aside by teachers and pupils.

§ 90. Exercises in vocal music and instruction in musical notation and drawing may be given in each primary and grammar school. Drawing, with exercises in perspective and the delineation of objects, shall be taught in the grammar schools in the third, second, and first grades, and in the supplementary course. The city superintendent may also authorize the Latin language to be taught in any grammar school in which the supplementary course is pursued; but the same shall be taught only by teachers employed in the schools to give instruction in other branches of study. The French or German language may be pursued in grammar schools in connection with the studies of the second and first grades and the supplementary course.

COURSE OF STUDY IN THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

The college of the city of New York, instituted in 1838, and known as the Free Academy till 1866, is the highest grade of the system of public instruction. To understand the relations of this institution to the schools below, and to the education of the city, it will be necessary to introduce several sections of the manual of the board of education, the members of which are trustees, adopted May, 1867. The board are authorized to make a requisition not exceeding $125,000 in one year on the board of supervisors for the support and general expenses of the college, and to appoint annually an executive committee of seven members through the chairman of the board.

TEACHERS—COLLEGIATE OFFICERS.

§ 16. All subjects taught in the college shall be taught by the following collegiate officers:

The president, who shall be professor of moral, intellectual, and political philosophy.

A professor of the English language and literature.

A professor of the Latin and Greek languages and literatures.

A professor of the French language and literature.

A professor of the German language and literature.

A professor of the Spanish language and literature.

A professor of history and belles-lettres.

A professor of pure mathematics.

A professor of mixed mathematics.

A professor of chemistry and physics.

A professor of natural history and physiology.

A professor of drawing.

An adjunct professor of philosophy.

And as many tutors as may be from time to time required. (Eleven in 1868.)

CONDITIONS AND MODE OF ADMISSION.

§ 22. No student shall be admitted to the college unless at the commencement of the next term he shall be fourteen years of age, and have attended the

common schools for twelve months, and shall have passed a good examination in reading, spelling, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, elementary book-keeping, history of the United States, and algebra through quadratic equations.

§ 23. No candidate shall be examined for admission unless he shall present to the president of the college a certificate in the form prepared by the executive committee, signed by the principal of the school or schools of which he has been a member, and specifying the age of the candidate, the common schools of this city which he has attended, the length of time in each, and when. If the number qualified for admission shall be more than can be admitted, the preference shall be given to those who have attended the common schools the greater period.

§ 24. At either of the regular examinations students may be admitted to one or all the classes, to pursue the studies of any one or more departments, provided they shall have attended the common schools the requisite period—shall be of the proper age—shall pass the proper examination in the requisites for admission, and an examination satisfactory to the faculty, in the previous studies of the class or departments to which they are to be admitted.

§ 25. The examination of candidates for admission shall take place immediately after the general examination in July, and at such time or times as shall be fixed by the executive committee, and shall continue at the same hours until concluded. No person shall be present at the examination except the instructors of the college and members of the board of trustees and other school officers. Neither the names of the candidates, nor the schools from which they come, shall be made known to the instructors conducting the examinations, but each candidate shall be designated during the examination by a number given him on a card by the president.

§ 26. The instructors conducting the examination shall make full returns of the same on a scale of ten to the faculty, who, from such returns, shall certify the names of the candidates who have passed the requisite good examination, and also the result of the examination of each candidate, which shall, in all cases, be recorded in a book to be kept for that purpose. The examination papers of each student shall be preserved and filed.

§ 27. The studies pursued in the college shall be classified in the following courses, which shall be at the option of the students, viz:

A full course with ancient languages.

A full course with modern languages.

A partial course, embracing any studies less than either of the full courses.

The full course of ancient languages shall comprise Latin, Greek, and, in the senior class, any one of the three modern languages taught, at the option of the student.

The full course of modern languages shall comprise French, German and Spanish, the order in which they shall be pursued to be according to the order prescribed by the board.

The partial course shall embrace any studies less than either of the full courses.

§ 28. The studies of the classes shall be pursued under the following arrangements as to the studies and text-books, subject, however, to such modifications as in the opinion of the faculty and the executive committee may be required. Whenever the faculty shall deem any change of the studies or text-books necessary, they shall recommend the same in writing to the executive committee.

COURSE.

INTRODUCTORY CLASS.

First year—first term.

	Lessons per week.
Latin, Harkness's Grammar, Silber's Reader	5
Or.	
French, Vannier and Robertson	5
English language, principles of general grammar	1
Elements of physics	2
Algebra and geometry, Docharty	5
Anatomy, Draper	2
Linear drawing	2

First year—second term.

Latin, Cæsar	5
Or,	
French, Robertson, Roemer's Polyglot and Elementary Readers	5
Algebra and geometry, Docharty	5
Elements of chemistry	2
Physiology and hygiene, Draper	2
Linear drawing	3
Composition.	

FRESHMAN CLASS.

Second year—first term.

Latin, Virgil	3
Greek, Sophocles's Grammar and Silber's Progressive Lessons	2
Or,	
French, Otto, Roemer's Polyglot and Second Readers	3
Spanish, Ollendorf, Morales's Reader, and Butler's Phrases	2
English etymology and philology, Fowler's Grammar	1
Rhetoric, Day	2
Ancient history, Willson	2
Plane and spherical trigonometry and surveying, Docharty	5
Descriptive geometry	5
Oratory and composition.	

Second year—second term.

Latin, Virgil	2
Greek, as before, and Owen's Reader	3
Or,	
French, as before	2
Spanish, as before, and Iriarte's Fables	3
Rhetoric, Day	3
Mediæval history, Wilson	2
Analytical geometry, mensuration, navigation, Docharty	5
Natural science, Draper	1
Perspective, shades and shadows	4
Oratory and composition.	

SOPHOMORE CLASS.

Third year—first term.

Latin, Cicero	2
Greek, Owen's Xenophon's Anabasis	3
Or,	
French, as before, and Noel and Chapsal	2
Spanish, Ollendorf, Quintana's Lives, and Pizarro's Ph	3
English synonyms, Graham	3
Modern history, Wilson	5
Political economy, Wayland	1
Differential calculus, Docharty	2
Free-hand drawing, course of ornament	4
Physics	2
Oratory and composition.	

Third year—second term.

	Lessons per week.
Latin, Sallust	2
Greek, Owen's Cyropedia	3
Or,	
French, Moliere and Racine	2
Spanish, Ollendorff, Sale's Gr., Moratin Com., and Ascargorta	3
English literature, Shaw's Outlines	3
Logic, Coppee	2
Intellectual philosophy, Mahan	3
Integral calculus, Docharty	3
Natural science	1
Architecture and study of the antique and figure	4
Oratory and composition.	

JUNIOR CLASS.

Fourth year—first term.

Latin, Livy	2
Greek, Iliad	3
Or,	
Spanish, Sale's Gr., Don Quixote, and Moratin's Com	3
German, Glaubensklee's Reader and Grammar	2
English language, Fowler	2
Moral philosophy, Hickok	3
Analytical mechanics, Bartlett	5
Physics	2
Natural science	1
Original declamations.	

Fourth year—second term.

Latin, Horace	1
Greek, Odyssey	1
Or,	
German, as before	2
English literature, Shaw	2
Logic, Mahan's Logic	4
Physics, Bird's Elements	2
Acoustics and optics, Bartlett	3
Spherical astronomy, Bartlett	2
Lecture on rhetoric	1
Original declamations.	

SENIOR CLASS.

Fifth year—first term.

Latin or Greek, Horace, Thucydides	1
French, German, or Spanish	4
Or,	
German, Otto, Drama	5
Chemistry, Fownes	4
Civil engineering and astronomy, Mahan, Bartlett	4
Metaphysics, Hamilton	2
Original declamations.	

Fifth year—second term.

Latin or Greek, Œdipus Tyrannus	1
The same modern language as before	4
Or,	
German, Oltrogge's Reader, comedy	5
Chemistry, Fownes	4
Civil engineering and field fortification, Mahan	4
Law and politics, nat. and rev. religion, Butler, Kent	2
Natural science	2
Original declamations.	

CHOICE OF STUDIES TO BE MADE IN WRITING.

§ 29. The option of each student as to the course of studies shall be made in writing, and registered and filed at the college. It shall be made by the

parent or guardian, or shall be by the parent or guardian submitted, in writing, to the discretion of the faculty. Students pursuing a partial course will be expected to come to the college for recitations and lectures.

RECITATIONS AND LECTURES.

§ 30. At the beginning of the academic year the students of the introductory class shall be divided, as nearly as may be practicable, into sections of thirty-five—and of the college classes, of twenty-five students—for the purpose of recitation; but no class shall be organized with less than twenty students. Each student shall have three recitations or lectures each day, besides drawing, and also an exercise in declamation and composition about once a month. The recitations and lectures shall be so arranged that the professors, while not occupied with giving instruction, may visit the recitation rooms of the tutors in their respective departments, (which it shall be their duty to do,) to observe the manner in which instruction is given, and to become acquainted with the students, their progress, and attainments. The professor of moral, intellectual, and political philosophy, shall give at least one lecture, or hear one recitation, each day; the professor of chemistry, three; and all the other members of the faculty, whose whole time is devoted to the institution, and the tutors, four. The studies of cognate departments shall be so distributed among the professors and tutors therein as to give each full employment. If any instructor shall be absent from his post the president shall direct another to take his place for the time being.

TIME AND MANNER OF EXAMINATIONS.

§ 46. There shall be two several examinations in each year of all the students in all the studies pursued by them since the last examination. The first shall commence on the first Monday in February, and shall continue eight days, from 9 a. m. to 12 m., and from 1 to 4 p. m. each day. The second shall commence on the second and third Monday of June, and shall continue eight days, from 9 a. m. to 12 m., and from 2 to 5 p. m. each day. The introductory class to be then examined for advancement to the freshman class; but no one shall be admitted to the freshman class who will not be 15 years of age at the commencement of the then next term and is not in other respects qualified according to the by-laws. The examination shall be public, and the executive committee shall, by advertisement and invitation, give notice of the same, and the president of the college shall furnish to the executive committee, at least 10 days before such examination, a statement of the order of examination.

All the members of each class shall be examined at the same time in the same study, by oral and written questions. It shall be the duty of all the instructors to attend the examinations from day to day.

DEGREES.

§ 50. Two degrees shall be conferred on the students graduating from the college: that of bachelor of arts on those who have pursued a full course with ancient languages, and that of bachelor of sciences on those who have pursued a full course with modern languages. The second collegiate degrees, to wit: master of arts and master of sciences, may also be conferred on the recommendation of the faculty.

CITY NORMAL SCHOOL.

Of the course of instruction in the normal school for female teachers no details are given.

CINCINNATI, OHIO.

The first effective school law of Ohio was passed in 1825, mainly through the efforts of Nathan Guilford. In 1829 an independent organization was given to the public schools of Cincinnati by a special law by which the city council was directed to divide the city into ten districts, and was authorized to levy a special tax for building school-houses in each, and $7,000 annually in addition to support schools. The law also provided for the election annually by the people of a board of trustees whose main function was to appoint a board of examiners, the latter to examine teachers and to inspect the schools and report on their condition. Owing to apathy on one side and ill-advised steps on the other, the first house was not erected till 1833, and in 1836 the whole number of ten were completed at an expense of $96,159 44. The schools at that date were organized under ten male principals at a salary of $500 each, and ten male assistants at a salary of $300. There were also ten female principals of the girls' schools at $250 each, with a female assistant in each school at $200 per annum.

In 1836 the trustees of the Woodward High School (an incorporated academic institution) voted to receive the boys from the common schools on the recommendation of the school board. In the same year the teachers of the public schools formed a "faculty association" to compare views and improve the schools. In 1837 the school board was made to consist of two members for each ward, and in 1839 provision was made for instructing orphan children in their institutions.

In 1840, after much agitation of the subject, a German department was established in the public school of a certain district, where pupils of German parentage were taught the German language in addition to the other studies; and thus that class of the population was drawn into the public schools, instead of schools restricted to their own nationality. Gradually the system has been perfected until this department is now divided into two grades. The junior grade comprises all who are in the primary grades in English, and are under the joint charge of an English and German teacher who usually occupy adjoining rooms and exchange places each day. In the senior grade are classed all pupils belonging to the higher grades in English, and these attend each day in the German teacher's room, and for the rest of the time are in the English department.

In 1840 a report prepared by that veteran teacher Albert Picket, and James H. Perkins set forth a graduated course of studies, but it was not reduced to practice till many years afterward.

In 1842 night schools were opened and were sustained for many years for four months in the year until 1857, but the irregularity of attendance greatly impaired their usefulness.

In 1844 vocal music was made part of the instruction of pupils of the highest grade, and two teachers were employed in this service, which has been since extended to all the schools.

In 1845 a central high school was proposed; and in 1846 the school board was authorized to establish additional grades of schools and to contract with any persons or institutions "in relation to any funds for school purposes that might be at their disposal." In 1847 a central high school was established; and in 1851 a union with the trustees of the Hughes and Woodward funds (amounting to $300,000) was effected by which two high schools, bearing respectively the names of their liberal benefactors, were established under a "union board of high schools" in different parts of the city, the Central High School being merged in the Hughes High School.

In 1849 the legislature authorized the establishment of separate schools for

colored pupils, which, by subsequent acts, are placed under the exclusive management of the colored population.

In 1850 the election by the people of a superintendent was authorized, and Nathan Guilford was elected to the office. In 1853 the appointment was given to the school board, and the two members of the board for each ward were elected alternately each year.

In 1854 a new class of schools, called intermediate, were instituted, composed of the pupils of the two upper grades of the district schools, (these schools being divided into six grades,) thus relieving the grades below and securing for all the pupils more attention. Pupils pass from these intermediate schools to the high schools.

In 1857 a regular normal school was instituted, and the expectations of its friends were fully realized, but for reasons not assigned it was discontinued in 1860. The necessity of some special means of training teachers, even of those who had already received appointments, led in 1866 to the establishment of a Teachers' Normal Institute, to be held during the first half of the school year on Saturdays, at which the teachers are required to attend and receive instruction in methods of teaching and school management.

In 1854 a city library in connection with the public schools was begun under the general school library law of the State, which, after a suspension of several years was revived in respect to certain cities, the rate of taxation being limited to one-tenth of a mill. In 1867 there were 20,000 volumes in the library; and with a yearly income of at least $13,500 this library will soon become an important addition to the means of popular education in the city.

COURSE OF STUDY IN INTERMEDIATE AND DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

The classification and course of study shall be equal and uniform throughout the schools, and for that purpose every district school shall be divided into six grades, to be designated by the letters A, B, C, D, E, and F; and the intermediate schools into two grades, to be designated by the letters A and B.

The grades are arranged to correspond to the first seven years of school attendance.

Each grade, male and female, may be divided into as many sections as the number of pupils in the grade shall warrant. The sections in each, from the highest to the lowest, shall be divided and numbered according to the proficiency of the pupils of the grade. No teacher in any of the regularly organized schools shall have more than two sections under his or her charge to instruct in all their studies, unless the school is so small it cannot be otherwise arranged.

It shall be the duty of the superintendent, with the co-operation of the principals of the schools, to enforce the following classification uniformly. The grading, course of study, and text-books prescribed shall be strictly adhered to, and no other studies or text-books shall be introduced, nor shall any pupil be required to provide or be permitted to use any other books than those herein specified.

The course of instruction in those subjects, the outline of which is not fixed by authorized text-books, shall be defined by a syllabus, to be prescribed by the superintendent, with the advice of the committee on course of study.

The opening exercises in every department shall commence by reading a portion of the Bible, by or under direction of the teacher, and appropriate singing by the pupils.

The pupils of the common schools may read such portion of the sacred Scriptures as their parents or guardians may prefer, provided that such preference of any version, except the one now in use, be communicated by the parents or guardians to the principal teachers, and that no notes or marginal readings be read in the schools or comments made by the teachers on the text of any version that is or may be introduced.

The several grades above named shall pursue the course of study and use the text-books prescribed, as follows:

COURSE OF STUDY IN THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

Pupils are admitted into the common schools of the district within which their parents or guardians reside, at the age of six years; and to the grade for which they are found qualified by attainments.

GRADE F.

Studies.—Elements of reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, object lessons, German, when desired by parents.

Books.—Syllabus of Object Lessons, (for teachers only,) Mason's Music Charts, uniform slates.

This is a grade for oral and blackboard instruction, and the teacher is expected to use the blackboard and such cards for instruction in the elements of reading and such charts for teaching object lessons as are provided by the board.

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Spelling and reading.—Pupils in this grade shall be taught to call at sight, and spell by letter or by sound, at the discretion of the principal, 200 selected words, and read such sentences as may be formed from them.

Writing.—They shall be taught to write, in a plain, legible hand, on their slates, any of the words which they are required to read in sentences.

Arithmetic.—They shall be taught, by means of objects, to perform mental and slate exercises in the four fundamental rules to amounts not exceeding 10.

GRADE E.

Studies.—Spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, drawing, singing, object lessons, composition, and German, when desired by parents.

Books.—Syllabus of Object Lessons, and Young Singer, Part I, (for teachers only;) Mason's Music Charts; McGuffey's First Reader; uniform slates.

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Spelling.—Pupils in this grade shall be taught to spell at dictation, by letter or by sound, at the discretion of the principal, any words in the reading lessons or spelling columns of their reader, and 200 selected words, one-half to be words of two syllables and the remainder words of one syllable of not more than five letters each.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently and distinctly any lesson in their reader and number each page by its figures.

Writing.—They shall be taught to write on their slates, at dictation, all the words they are required to spell.

Drawing.—They shall be taught to draw vertical, horizontal, and oblique lines, the square, the rectangle, and figures composed of squares and rectangles. A few examples are to be given and then the pupils are to be encouraged to build up designs of their own, as they would with blocks.

Arithmetic.—They shall review the F grade course, and perform mental exercises in the four fundamental rules to amounts not exceeding 20; shall count, with and without objects, as high as 100; shall learn to understand, read, and write the fractions $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, and $\frac{1}{4}$; add the twos and threes as high as 100 and subtract them from 100; perform slate exercises in the four fundamental rules to amounts not exceeding 100, the divisors and multipliers being 2 and 3, and be taught, objectively, the value of the different coins, and the use of the dollar and the cent marks.

Model examples in mental arithmetic.—Section II, Lesson I; Section III, Lesson I; Section V, Lesson I; Ray's second part.

Composition.—See Syllabus of Composition.

Music.—They shall be taught to name the music characters, and write, at dictation, the exercises on page 8 of the Young Singer.

GRADE D.

Studies.—Spelling, reading, punctuation, penmanship, drawing, arithmetic, singing, object lessons, composition, German, when desired by parents.

Books.—Syllabus of Object Lessons, (for teachers only;) McGuffey's Second Reader; uniform slates; Young Singer, Part I; Mason's Music Charts.

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Spelling.—Pupils in this grade shall be taught to give the elementary sounds of the language, and spell, orally or in writing, all the words in common use in their reading lessons, the names of the days of the week, the names of the months, the names of one hundred things selected from their object lessons, the name of their school, of the street on which it is located, and of the principal streets of Cincinnati.

Definitions.—They shall be taught to place in proper sentences the words in the spelling columns at the head of their reading lessons.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently and distinctly any lesson in their reader, to repeat, in their own language, the substance of each lesson, and to number the pages by the figures and the lessons by the numerals.

Punctuation.—They shall be taught to name all the punctuation marks in their reading lessons.

Penmanship.—They shall be taught to write the capitals and small letters in words or sentences, on slates or paper.

Drawing.—They shall practice on vertical, horizontal and oblique lines, and be taught to draw figures composed of squares, rectangles, parallelograms, and triangles.

Arithmetic.—They shall review the E grade course; shall be taught to perform mental examples in the four fundamental rules to amounts not exceeding 50; shall add fours and fives to 100 and subtract them from 100: shall understand, read, and write the fractions $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{2}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{2}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{4}{4}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{2}{5}$, $\frac{3}{5}$, $\frac{4}{5}$, $\frac{5}{5}$; shall read and write numbers as high as 10,000, and perform slate exercises in the four rules to amounts not exceeding 10,000, the multipliers and divisors not exceeding five.

Object lessons shall also be given in this grade in the weights, ounce and pound; the measures, bushel, peck, small measures; quart, pint; yard, foot, inch; year, month, week, day, hour, minute, second. Pupils shall learn to use the different marks pertaining to each.

Model examples in mental arithmetic.—Section II, lesson I; section III, lesson I; section V, lesson I; section VI, lesson I.

Composition.—See Syllabus of Composition.

Music.—They shall be taught to write at dictation, and sing the first twenty-one exercises in the second division of the singer, and answer questions based upon them.

GRADE C.

Studies.—Spelling; reading; punctuation; definitions; penmanship; drawing; arithmetic; geography; music; object lessons; composition; German, when desired by parents.

Books.—Syllabus of Object Lessons, Syllabus of Geography, (for teachers only); McGuffey's Third Reader; Young Singer, Part I.

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Spelling.—Pupils in this grade shall be taught to give the elementary sounds, and spell, orally or in writing, all the words in common use in their reading lessons, and one hundred words used in object lessons.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently and distinctly any lesson in their reader, and repeat, orally or in writing, the substance of each lesson.

Punctuation.—They shall be taught to name and give the use of all punctuation marks in their reading lessons.

Definitions.—They shall be taught to place in proper sentences the words in the spelling columns at the heads of their reading lessons.

Penmanship.—They shall be taught to write with a pen all the small letters and capitals, in words and sentences.

Drawing.—They shall be taught to draw Bartholomew's number 1 cards. (Cards to be used by the teacher only.)

Arithmetic.—They shall review the D grade course, and be taught to perform mental examples in the four fundamental rules to amounts not exceeding 100; add the 7s, 8s, 9s and 10s to 100, and subtract them from 100; shall reduce mixed numbers to improper fractions, and perform slate exercises in the four rules, to amounts not exceeding 100,000; in short division, the divisor shall not exceed 9.

Model examples in mental arithmetic.—Section IV, lesson I; section V, lesson II; section VI, lesson III.

Geography.—See Syllabus of Geography for grade C.

Composition.—See syllabus of composition.

Music.—They shall be taught to write at dictation and sing the fifty-three exercises in the second division of the singer; to answer all questions based upon them; and read by letters and syllables exercises similar to them.

GRADE B.

Studies.—Spelling; reading; punctuation; definitions; penmanship; drawing; arithmetic; geography; composition; music; German, when desired by parents.

Books.—McGuffey's Fourth Reader; Ray's Second and Third Part Arithmetics; Mitchell's New Primary Geography; Syllabus of Geography, (for teachers only); Young Singer, Part I; Lilienthal's Manual, chapters III, IV, V.

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Spelling.—Pupils in this grade shall be taught to spell all the words at the head of the pieces, and the marked words in their reading lessons, and two hundred selected words; and to spell correctly all words in every written exercise.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently, distinctly and intelligently the lessons in their reader, and answer questions based upon them.

Punctuation.—They shall be taught to name and explain the punctuation marks in their reading lessons.

Definitions.—They shall be taught to place in proper sentences the words defined at the heads of their reading lessons.

Penmanship.—They shall be taught to write with a pen, neatly and legibly, words and sentences, from copy and at dictation.

Drawing.—They shall practice as directed by the teachers of drawing.

Arithmetic.—They shall review the C grade course; shall solve, mentally, problems similar to those in sections VII, VIII, and IX; shall write numbers as high as 1,000,000; shall complete long division and federal money; reduce improper fractions to mixed numbers, and add and subtract fractions having a common denominator.

Geography.—See syllabus of geography for grade B.

Composition.—See syllabus of composition.

Music.—They shall be taught to write at dictation and sing the first eighty exercises in the second division of the Singer; to answer questions based upon them; to sing Hullah's songs of the intervals; also to read by letters and syllables the songs in the key of C in the Singer.

GRADE A.

Studies.—Spelling; reading; punctuation; definitions; penmanship; drawing; arithmetic; geography; composition; grammar; music; German, when desired by parents.

Books.—McGuffey's Fifth Reader; Pinneo's Primary Grammar; Ray's Second and Third Part Arithmetics; Mitchell's New Primary Geography; syllabus of geography, (for teachers only;) Lilienthal's Manual, chapter VII; Young Singer, part I.

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Spelling.—Pupils in this grade shall be taught to spell all the words at the head of the pieces, and all the marked words in their reading lessons, and two hundred selected words, and to spell all the words correctly in every written exercise.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently, distinctly, and intelligently, forty-five lessons in their reader, and answer questions based upon them.

Punctuation.—They shall be taught to name and explain the marks of punctuation and rhetorical marks which occur in their reading lessons.

Definitions.—They shall be taught to place in proper sentences the words defined at the heads of their reading lessons.

Penmanship.—They shall be taught to write with a pen, neatly and legibly, words and sentences, from copy and at dictation.

Drawing.—They shall practice as directed by the teachers of drawing.

Arithmetic.—They shall solve, mentally, problems similar to those in the first 21 sections of Ray's arithmetic, part II; and in written arithmetic shall learn common fractions of simple numbers, and be taught reduction (ascending and descending) of dry and long measure and avoirdupois weight, and commit to memory the miscellaneous table of things.

Geography.—See syllabus of geography for grade A.

Composition.—See syllabus of composition.

Music.—They shall be taught to write the scale on the G and F clefs, in each of the keys used in the Singer; to read by letters and syllables the songs therein, and answer questions based upon them.

Moral instruction must be given in all the grades by their respective teachers, in such a manner as may be prescribed by the principals.

Grammar shall be taught practically in all the grades, in connection with composition; and pupils of grade A shall be familiar with their text book in grammar as far as mode.

The boys of grade A shall have exercises in declamation once in each month.

SUBJECTS AND COURSE OF STUDY IN INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

Intermediate schools shall be composed of pupils received, upon examination, from grade A of the district schools, and no pupil shall be admitted or transferred into such school unless he or she be proficient in the course of studies prescribed for the district schools. The principal of each school shall keep a record of all the pupils examined by him, in each study, with the results of the examination in a separate book, provided for that purpose by the board.

Principals of the intermediate schools have discretionary power to omit one branch from the course of study prescribed for said schools, or so to modify the same as to adapt it to the lower class of pupils in grade B.

GRADE B.

Studies.—Reading, embracing spelling, defining, vocal culture, declamation, and analysis of words; object lessons; mental and written arithmetic; geography; English grammar, with exercises in the use of language; United States history; drawing; penmanship and

composition; music and penmanship under the teachers of these branches; German, if desired by parents or guardians.

Books.—McGuffey's Sixth Reader and Spelling Book; Ray's Second and Third Arithmetics; Lilienthal's Manual;* Young Singer, Part II; Young Singer's Manual; Pinneo's Analytical Grammar;† Guyot's Common School Geography and wall maps; Goodrich's Pictorial History of the United States; and Wurst's German Grammar.

Conditions of transfer.—Pupils passing to grade A must pass an examination in spelling, in orthography and etymology, in grammar, on the history of the United States to the opening of the Revolutionary war, on geography completed, on mental arithmetic to section 25, and to percentage in written arithmetic.

GRADE A.

Studies.—Reading, including spelling, definitions, analysis of words, vocal culture, and declamation; object lessons; mental arithmetic, completed and reviewed; written arithmetic, completed and reviewed; geography reviewed in weekly exercises; United States history; drawing; penmanship; music and composition; German, if desired by parents or guardians.

Books.—McGuffey's Sixth Reader and Spelling Book; Ray's Second and Third Arithmetics; Metrical System of Weights and Measures; Young Singer, Part II; Young Singer's Manual; Lilienthal's Manual; Pinneo's Analytical Grammar; Guyot's Common School Geography and wall maps; Goodrich's Pictorial History of the United States; Quackenbos's Aid to English Composition.

DRAWING.

DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

Grade B.—First book and cards of the second book.
Grade A.—Third book and cards of the fourth book.

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

Grade B.—Fifth book and cards of the sixth book.
Grade A.—Sixth book and perspective. [Adopted June 26, 1865.]

ABSTRACT OF REPORTS ON DRAWING.

Bartholomew's Drawing Books and twelve cards of human figures and animals to be used in the schools.

Instruction in drawing is to be given twice each week in the A and B grades of the district and intermediate schools. Bartholomew's book to be used as the text-book for the pupils of the intermediate schools and the A grade of the district schools, and as a text-book for teachers only in the B grade of the latter schools.

Teachers of drawing to teach one-half day at each of the schools—the teachers in said schools to superintend the alternate lesson, which shall be a practice lesson only. [Adopted October 10, 1865.]

Authority was given to use Bartholomew's Cards in connection with the drawing books—the books and cards to be used under the direction of the committee on drawing. [Adopted April 10, 1865.]

MUSIC.

DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

Daily instruction in vocal music shall be given to the pupils in grades C, D, E, and F by such teachers as the principal and music teacher of the several schools may select, said instruction to be given under the supervision of the music teacher of the district, and to occupy 20 minutes.

Music shall be taught by four music masters, in connection with the regular teachers of the schools, under the direction of the music masters; and for the proper preparation of the regular teachers to impart instruction in the subject of music, it shall be the duty of the music masters to call said teachers together for at least 15 minutes each week, during the session of the schools, at such times and in such numbers as they may deem advisable, subject to the approval of the music committee, for the purpose of giving them the necessary instruction; provided, however, that teachers shall not be called together to receive instruction in music during recitation hours.

Resolved, That Mason's Music Charts be used in connection with the present text-book in music in the grades of the district schools in which they are not already prescribed. [Adopted December 6, 1864.]

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* Chapters V, VI, and VII of Lilienthal's Manual are prescribed for the intermediate schools.
† Teachers in intermediate schools are allowed the use of "Murray's Exercises," to accompany the authorized text-books on the subject of grammar.

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

Pupils in grade B shall be taught rhythm, including syncopation; also to sing by modulation, from any given key to those nearest related. They shall also carefully review the course of study in music of the district schools.

Pupils in grade A shall be taught to compare the major and minor scales in the various keys, and to sing the same. They shall also be taught the usual classification of voices and to read, at sight, common church music.

The proper training of the voice and the practice of music adapted to the course of study shall be maintained from the commencement to the completion of the course.

COURSE OF STUDY IN GERMAN DEPARTMENT.

DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

Grade F.—Object lessons and exercises in language, reading by sound, spelling, writing, singing, and drawing.

Grade E.—Object lessons and exercises in language, reading, spelling, writing, grammar, singing, and drawing.

Grades D and C.—Object lessons, reading and declamation, spelling, writing, grammar, translations, composition, singing, and drawing.

Grades B and A.—Reading and declamation, spelling, writing, grammar, translation, and composition.

BOOKS.—The board to furnish movable letters for grade F, pictures of animals, of tools, &c., for instruction in object lessons, and Mason's music charts. The teachers shall use Lilienthal's manual, Ahn's method for translations, and the exercises in Plate's German grammar, parts first and second, or similar ones. The pupils shall have uniform writing books in each grade, and the following readers, viz:

Grade E.—Lesebuch für amerikanische Volksschulen, part first.

Grade D.—The same, part second.

Grades C and B.—Germanus's third reader.

Grade A.—Pagenstecher's fourth reader.

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS.

OBJECT LESSONS.

Grade F.—Pupils in this grade shall be taught to speak in correct language about things in and around the school-house, dwelling house, street and garden, and about the domestic animals, with proper regard to the different topics in the first two chapters in Lilienthal's manual: they shall be told a number of short and pleasing stories about persons and animals, such as have an instructive and moral tendency, and shall repeat and memorize the substance thereof.

Grades E and D.—They shall be taught to answer in correct language any question in the first two chapters of Lilienthal's manual that can be based upon any subject in the first and third part of their reader. They shall be told a number of stories and shall memorize six small songs or other poems.

Grade C.—In the same way as the preceding grades they shall be instructed about the professions of men, the city and country, and the features of both, a number of the principal animals, plants, and minerals of the United States, their classification, qualities, and use, intermixed with stories about some of these objects. Frequent written exercises shall be made, and six songs or other poems memorized.

Grades A and B.—In these grades object lessons are connected with composition writing, and will be found under that head.

READING.

Grade F.—Reading by sound, with movable letters.

Grade E.—Through the first reader.

Grade D.—Through the second reader.

Grade C.—Thirty-six of the easiest lessons in the third reader.

Grade B.—Twenty-four of the most difficult lessons in the third reader.

Grade A.—Twenty-four lessons in the fourth reader.

SPELLING.

Grade F.—They shall be taught by sound, by letter, and at dictation, easy words and sentences, excluding words with silent letters.

Grades E and D.—They shall be taught to spell any word, and to write at dictation any sentence in their reader, and to use correctly the capitals, the period and interrogation points. A gradual progress from easy to more difficult words shall be observed, and the most important rules about the use of silent letters in long and short syllables shall be given.

Grades C, B, and A.—They shall review the rules about the use of silent letters, and they shall be taught to spell any word, and to write at dictation any sentence in their reading and

object lessons, compositions, and translations, and to spell such words as are alike or similar in sound, but different in orthography and signification.

PENMANSHIP.

Grades E and F.—They shall be taught to write in a neat and legible hand, on their slates, the letters and any of the words which they are required to spell. The four higher grades shall be taught to write, with pen and ink, all the small letters and capitals, and to combine them into words and sentences. The teachers shall rule the slates, and teach to write the letters according to the adopted system.

GRAMMAR.

Grade E.—They shall be taught to distinguish the nouns and their gender, the adjectives and verbs in their reading and speaking exercises; to use correctly, in speaking and writing, the nominative, dative, and accusative cases of the noun in connection with the articles or pronominal adjectives, and the verb in the third person singular and plural of the present tense.

Grade D.—They shall be taught to use correctly, in speaking and writing, the four cases of the noun in connection with the articles, the pronominal and numeral adjectives; to name and distinguish the personal pronouns in the nominative case, and to use them in connection with verbs in the first three tenses, indicative mode.

Grade C.—They shall be taught to distinguish the subject, predicate, and object in simple sentences; to decline nouns in connection with one or more adjectives and pronouns; to form the different degrees of comparison with qualifying adjectives; to conjugate verbs in the four principal tenses, indicative mode, and to use the object of verbs, adjectives, or prepositions in the correct case, those excepted which govern the genitive.

Grade B.—They shall review the previous course, and shall be taught to distinguish the elements of simple sentences; to conjugate any verb in the active and passive voice, indicative mode; to use the object of any verb, adjective, or preposition in the correct case, and to distinguish and use the adverbs. They shall also be taught the derivation of words, and make written exercises about the same.

Grade A.—They shall review the previous course, and shall be taught to analyze simple, compound, and complex sentences, and to parse the words therein. In their translations they shall be instructed about the similarities and differences of the English and German grammar.

TRANSLATIONS.

Grade E.—Easy sentences from the object lessons.
Grade D.—The first sixty lessons in Ahn's Method.
Grade C.—Sixty lessons from Ahn's Method.
Grades B and A.—Thirty-six lessons each from Ahn's Method.

COMPOSITION.

Grade D.—During the second half of the year they shall be taught to write, in short and easy sentences, descriptions about objects spoken of in their object lessons, and a number of short and pleasing stories told by the teacher.

Grade C.—They shall be taught to write descriptions about things and animals spoken of in their object lessons, and a number of stories told by the teacher.

Grades A and B.—They shall be taught to write a number of descriptions, stories and letters, and to transform poems into prose, as directed in chapters III, IV, V, in Lilienthal's Manual.

INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

GRADE B.

Studies.—Reading; declamation; orthography; penmanship; grammar; composition; translation.

Books.—Reader, Lebensbilder, part III; grammar, Becker's Leitfaden (for teachers;) Plato's Praktische Deutsche Sprachlehre, part II, (for pupils.)

GRADE A.

Studies.—The same as in grade B, except penmanship; an abstract of the history of German literature.

DIRECTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Translations shall be made in part from the exercises in Plate's Grammar. After the compositions have been corrected, the model compositions prepared by the teachers are to be translated into English. In the same manner, the English compositions, after being corrected, shall be translated into German from the model compositions furnished by the English teachers.

COURSE OF STUDY IN HIGH SCHOOLS, ADOPTED JULY, 1867.

Studies.	Regular course. Lessons per week.		Classical course. Lessons per week.		Normal course. Lessons per week.	
	1st ses.	2d ses.	1st ses.	2d ses.	1st ses.	2d ses.
FIRST YEAR.						
Latin	5	5	5	5	5	5
English language	4	4	4	4	4	4
Algebra	5	5	5	5	5	5
Anatomy and physiology	2	2	2	2	2	2
Outlines of history	2	2	2	2	2	2
SECOND YEAR.						
Latin	5	5	5	5	5	5
English language	3	3	3	3	3	3
German or French	5	5	5	5	5	5
Geometry	4	4	4	....	4	4
History	2	2	2	2	2	2
Greek	....	....	....	4	....	....
THIRD YEAR.						
Latin	5	5	5	5	5	5
German or French	3	3	3	3	3	3
Mathematics, { plane trigonometry. higher algebra }	5	5	2	....	5	....
Natural philosophy	4	4	4	4	4	4
Greek	....	....	5	5	....	....
Pedagogics and drawing	....	....	....	....	....	5
History	2	....	....	....	2	....
Mental science and composition	....	2	....	....	....	2
FOURTH YEAR.						
Astronomy	4	....	....	....	4	....
Chemistry	4	4	4	4	4	4
Surveying	....	4	....	....	....	....
Botany, (for girls)	....	....	....	....	....	2
Geology	....	2	....	....	....	....
Pedagogics	....	....	....	....	5	5
Mental science, with composition	2	....	....	....	2	....
Moral science	....	2	....	2	....	2
Constitution United States	1	....	1	....	1	....
English language and literature	3	3	3	3	....	3
German or French	4	4	....	....	4	4
Bookkeeping	2	....	....	....	....	....
Greek	....	....	5	5	....	....
Latin	....	....	5	5	....	....

SYLLABUS OF OBJECT LESSONS, COMPOSITION, AND GEOGRAPHY.

In addition to the course of instruction in the subjects and text-books prescribed, the superintendent, with the assistance of the committee of the board, draws up a scheme of topics in oral instruction for each grade, embracing the objects and phenomena of the locality and of daily life, rising from the most obvious and simple to those which are complex. The oral lessons on objects are made to furnish the subjects and methods of written exercises in thought and expression, and to illustrate practically the principles of composition. The method of oral and object teaching is applied to geography, and the leading items to be gathered from books are arranged under the following heads: 1, location; 2, boundaries; 3, surface; 4, climate; 5, soil; 6, productions; 7, industries; 8, cities; 9, government; 10, religion.

ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

The present system of public schools in St. Louis originated in an act of Congress approved June 13, 1812, by which "all town or village lots, out-lots, or common field lots not rightfully owned or claimed by individuals, or held as commons," &c., were reserved for the support of schools. The total value of the lands thus reserved is now estimated at over $2,000,000. In 1817 a board of school trustees was established by the territorial legislature. This board did little else than assert their claim to the land. In 1833 a new board of directors of public schools—two for each ward—was constituted, which busied itself mainly with looking after the school lands, selecting sites for schools, and erecting two buildings, at an expense of $3,670 each. In one of these, April, 1838, the first public school was opened. In 1849 a proposition to levy a mill tax for the support of education was sustained by a majority of five to one of the legal voters of the city. In 1850 a superintendent was appointed; in 1853 a high-school class was established; and soon after a building commenced, which was completed in 1855 and dedicated to its exclusive use—a step which at once popularized and strengthened the whole system. In 1857 a normal school was opened, under Professor Edwards, of the State normal school at Salem, in Massachusetts; and, in 1858, after a visit of the superintendent to the principal cities in which public education was organized and maintained in an efficient and liberal manner, a more thorough system of classification by attainment was introduced, a gradual course of instruction was adopted, and the policy of erecting and owning school edifices of the first class instead of leasing school rooms was settled. In 1859–'60, an evening school was opened, and in 1866 there were eight schools, with an average attendance for four months of 861 pupils, at an expense of $5,450 40. In 1864 German classes, for instruction in the German and English languages were opened, of which nine, with 1,446 pupils, were in operation in 1866. In 1867 the public schools occupied 35 buildings, of which 27 were owned by the city, at the estimated value—sites, buildings, and furniture—of $684,124 92. Of the 15,291 pupils enrolled, (10,029 in average daily attendance,) 437 are in 3 colored schools, with 7 teachers; 14,857 in 31 district schools, under 208 teachers; 281 (116 boys and 165 girls) in 1 high school, under 9 teachers; and 65 girls, in 1 normal school, under 3 teachers.

COURSE OF STUDY IN THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

The course of study exhibited in the accompanying scheme receives slight modification from year to year, to adapt it to the actual average results attained. The following remarks and cautions are to be borne in mind while consulting it:

1. It is not intended as a fixed standard which all schools and classes are to be forced to follow. It does, however, represent the fair average labor of classes in the district schools.

2. Schools in the centre of the city can perhaps do a little more than the amount laid down in the quarter, while those in the suburbs, where classification is imperfect and attendance irregular, may not be able to do so much.

3. If a teacher is not able to take her class over so much work as is laid down in the tabular view for a quarter and do this thoroughly in ten weeks, it should be sufficient reason for an investigation on her part into the reasons therefor. So if the contrary occurs, and more work is done than is laid down for the time. Classes are not of uniform capacity; neither do all teachers possess the experience and judgment requisite to assign lessons of proper length. The tabular view will assist such in regulating the daily tasks.

4. Teachers in the same grade should make frequent comparison of their results with those obtained by the others. The two visiting days allowed by the board, if used by teachers in examining departments of the same grade, will furnish exceedingly valuable information respecting methods of attaining to the requisite thoroughness.

5. This comparison of results, and the securing of uniformity in the set of text-books used by pupils who are transferred from one school to the same grade in another, are the chief advantages expected to be derived from grading and fixing the course of study. It furnishes a convenient scale of 28 degrees upon which are classified the pupils of our schools. Any grade may begin at any time in the year if a class is ready to enter it; no class need wait till the end of the quarter to commence another quarter's work when they are prepared for it.

That there should be uniformity in respect to the degree of progress required in other branches at the period of taking up any given study, is too obvious to need discussion.

TABULAR VIEW OF STUDIES IN THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

Studies and text books.	SEVENTH GRADE.				SIXTH GRADE.				FIFTH GRADE.				FOURTH GRADE.				THIRD GRADE.				SECOND GRADE.				FIRST GRADE.			
	Quarters.				Quarters.				Quarters.				Quarters.				Quarters.				Quarters.				Quarters.			
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Primer	card	30	72																									
First Reader				41	81	120																						
Second Reader							50	108	162	216																		
Third Reader											60	120	180	216	R*													
Intermediate Reader																65	130	195	260	R*								
Fourth Reader																					56	112	168	224	280	336	R*	
Fifth Reader																												
Speller											24	44	64	82	100	115	133	148	162	180								
First Lessons in Arithmetic				20	40	60	80	95																				
Primary Arithmetic									26	52	78	104	130	156														
Intermediate Arithmetic															52	104	156	208	260	312								
Commercial Arithmetic																					50	100	150	200	250	300	350	394
Intellectual Arithmetic												29	42	56	65	78	R*	91	107	118	128	141	156	168				
Primary Geography									20	40	R*	60	83	R*														
Advanced Geography															19	38	51	64	76	R*	34	76	100	R*				
Grammar																					27	46	58	75	100	122	164	R*
History and Constitution																										114		378
Writing books																												
Singing																												
Calisthenics																												

NOTE.—The horizontal lines denote the continuance of the different studies and text-books in the course, while the numbers denote the pages to which the scholars are expected to advance during the quarter indicated at the head of the vertical column.

* Review.

COURSE OF STUDY IN NORMAL SCHOOL.

JUNIOR YEAR.

First and second quarters.—Arithmetic, including mental and written, and modes of teaching.

Geography, topographical and political, with the construction of maps, practice in drawing them, and modes of teaching.

Physical geography, with modes of teaching.

English grammar, and modes of teaching.

Composition, with modes of teaching.

Vocal music, and modes of teaching.

Drawing and penmanship, with mode of teaching.

Spelling, oral and written.

Reading, including elocution, drilling upon the elementary sounds of the language, critical examination of the selections read, both in respect to the thought and the expression, with modes of teaching.

Latin.

Third and fourth quarters.—Same as first and second, with the addition of human anatomy and physiology.

SENIOR YEAR.

First and second quarters.—Algebra, with modes of teaching.

Constitution of the United States.

History.

Theory and art of teaching by recitations, discussions, conversational lectures, with practice in teaching.

Composition, and modes of teaching.

Vocal music, and modes of teaching.

Drawing and penmanship, with modes of teaching.

Spelling, oral and written.

Teaching exercises, before the whole school, on topics selected by pupil.

Third and fourth quarters.—Algebra, with modes of teaching.

Geometry or mental philosophy.

Natural philosophy.

History of English literature, with some practice in critical reading.

Theory and art of teaching, same as first and second quarters, with study of and practice in object lessons, with model class.

Composition, and modes of teaching.

Vocal music, and modes of teaching.

Drawing and penmanship, with modes of teaching.

Spelling, oral and written.

Teaching exercises, before the whole school, on assigned subjects.

Calisthenic exercises form a part of each day's work through the whole course.

Diplomas will be awarded by the authority of the board of directors to those who complete, in a satisfactory manner, the course of study here indicated, and who shall exhibit sufficient energy to warrant a reasonable expectation that they will make successful teachers.

COURSE OF STUDY IN HIGH SCHOOL.

GENERAL COURSE.

FIRST YEAR.

First quarter.—Algebra, German or Latin, English analysis, drawing.
Second quarter.—Algebra, German or Latin, English analysis, drawing.
Third quarter.—Algebra, German or Latin, physical geography, drawing.
Fourth quarter.—Algebra, German or Latin, physical geography, drawing.

SECOND YEAR.

First quarter.—Geometry, German or Latin, natural philosophy, drawing, bookkeeping.
Second quarter.—Geometry, German or Latin, natural philosophy, drawing, bookkeeping.
Third quarter.—Geometry, ancient geography, chemistry, German or Latin, drawing.
Fourth quarter.—Geometry or ancient geography, chemistry, German or Latin, drawing.

THIRD YEAR.

First quarter.—Plane trigonometry or botany, physiology, Latin or French and German, ancient history.

Second quarter.—Mensuration and surveying or zoology, physiology, Latin or French and German, history of the Roman Empire, Manual of Art.

Third quarter.—Spherical trigonometry and navigation or zoology, astronomy, Latin or French and German, history of the Middle Ages, Manual of Art.

Fourth quarter.—Civil engineering or botany, astronomy, Latin or French and German, history of modern Europe.

FOURTH YEAR.

First quarter.—Analytical geometry, Shakspeare, Latin or German and French, intellectual philosophy, English language and literature.

Second quarter.—Analytical geometry, Shakspeare, Latin or German and French, intellectual philosophy, English language and literature.

Third quarter.—Calculus, Geology, Latin or German and French, moral philosophy, Constitution of the United States, Shakspeare.

Fourth quarter.—Calculus, Latin or German and French, moral philosophy, English language and literature.

CLASSICAL COURSE.

FIRST YEAR.

First quarter.—Harkness's Arnold's First Latin Book or Smith's Principia, algebra, English parsing and analysis, drawing.

Second quarter.—First Latin Book or Smith's Principia, Latin grammar, algebra, English parsing and analysis, drawing.

Third quarter.—First Latin Book or Smith's Principia, Latin grammar, Hanson, algebra, physical geography, drawing.

Fourth quarter.—First Latin Book or Smith's Principia, Latin grammar, Hanson, algebra, physical geography, drawing.

SECOND YEAR.

First quarter.—First Latin Book or Smith's Principia, Cæsar, First Greek Book, geometry, drawing.

Second quarter.—First Latin Book or Smith's Principia, Cæsar, First Greek Book, geometry, drawing.

Third quarter.—First Latin Book or Smith's Principia, Cæsar, Greek lessons, ancient geography, drawing.

Fourth quarter.—First Latin Book or Smith's Principia, Latin grammar and Sallust, Greek lessons, ancient geography, drawing.

THIRD YEAR.

First quarter.—Latin prose composition, Cicero, Greek reader, ancient history.

Second quarter.—Latin and Greek prose composition, Cicero, Greek reader, history of the Roman Empire.

Third quarter.—Latin and Greek grammar and prose composition, Cicero, Greek reader, history Middle Ages.

Fourth quarter.—Latin and Greek grammar and prose composition, Cicero, Greek reader, history modern Europe.

FOURTH YEAR.

First quarter.—Æneid, Anabasis, Greek and Latin grammar and prose composition, Shakspeare, English language and literature.

Second quarter.—Æneid, Anabasis, Greek and Latin grammar and prose composition, Shakspeare, English language and literature.

Third quarter.—Æneid, Homer, Greek and Latin grammar and prose composition, Shakspeare, Constitution of the United States.

Fourth quarter.—Æneid, Homer, Greek and Latin grammar and prose composition, English language and literature.

PUBLIC SCHOOL LIBRARY.

In 1857 and 1860 Mr. Divoll proposed a city library as part of the system of public instruction, "an institution to open to all the means of self-culture through books for which these schools have been specially qualifying them." In 1865 a society was organized and incorporated, active membership in which is confined to persons who have attained the age of 18 years. In August 1, 1867, there were 2,227 members and 10,515 volumes, procured by donation and an expenditure of $20,837 96. The trustees of the public schools can appropriate $5,000 a year for the purchase of books, and in addition provide rooms

LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY.

The present comprehensive and liberally-sustained system of public schools in Louisville originated in an ordinance of the city council, adopted August, 1829, by which a board of trustees was appointed with authority to establish and regulate schools, and provision was made to erect one building for a central city school. This school was opened in 1830 with about 200 pupils, under two teachers, who were assisted by the more advanced scholars as monitors. For the first two years the school was free, but the appropriations by the city being inadequate to meet the expense, (the entire expense in 1832-'33 being $2,550,) a fee of $4 in the primary department and $6 in the grammar school was collected, by which an income of $1,227 was derived. In 1833 a public high school was established in a building given by the State to the city in trust for this purpose. In 1834 an agent was appointed, with a salary of $400, to visit the schools and to establish one or more night schools for the benefit of apprentices. In 1840 the system embraced five primary schools and six grammar schools, each with two departments, one for boys and the other for girls. In 1866-'67 there were 14 ward schools and 2 high schools, maintained at an expense of $142,149 81. In all the schools 12,271 pupils were enrolled, with an average number of 7,071 belonging to the same. Of these, 4,269 were in the primary department; 1,387 in the intermediate department; 618 in the grammar department; 108 in the girls' high school, and 89 in the boys' high school—all under 177 teachers.

SUBJECTS AND COURSE OF STUDY FOR WARD SCHOOLS.

NOTE 1.—In all examinations for transfer, exercises requiring the practical application of principles shall not be selected from the text-books used in the schools, nor shall they be beyond the comprehension of ordinary children who have been well taught.

NOTE 2.—All grades studying grammar shall be taught the practical application of its priciples in composition.

NOTE 3.—All pupils in the grammar department shall give exercises in English composition at least once a week.

PRIMARY DEPARTMENT.

INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHERS.

"All knowledge begins with experience."

The development of ideas.—Pupils shall be instructed and exercised in the inspection of such objects as shall afford sufficient occasion for the due exercise of all the mental faculties in accordance with the natural law of development, aiming at the acquisition of such a degree of moral and mental power as will form a sufficient basis for self-culture and self-improvement. And, as most of the rudimentary facts of science are connected with the common occurrences of every-day life, and are passing under the notice of children, they become fit subjects for primary instruction. It is therefore made the duty of teachers to give oral or extemporaneous instruction in the elements of science, in such form and in such manner as will reach their understanding and serve to make their experience as extensive as possible; but, as ideas are never well formed till they are properly expressed in words, pupils shall be taught to narrate correctly the result of their observations.

Language.—The full use of the human faculties can only be attained by a comprehensive acquaintance with the correct use of language. It is the indispensable means by which the natural powers are to be cultivated. It is the medium of communication, and is essential in recording the transactions of life. The great value of language as a disciplinary force cannot well be over-estimated.

It is therefore enjoined on teachers to cultivate the perceptive faculties to the greatest possible extent, so that the mind may be supplied with the greatest possible number of clearly conceived ideas, for these are the materials of knowledge and the soul of language. But the better to determine the point at which instruction in language should begin, the teacher should in some measure ascertain what ideas are fully developed in the minds of his pupils and those that are only partially so. This may be accomplished by exercises consisting of conversation on things with which they are somewhat familiar and in which they take an interest. Children should be afforded opportunity and induced to take part in these conversations.

Reading.—It is proper that only one thing at a time should be attempted. It is equally proper, and, for the sake of variety, necessary, that small portions of many branches of knowledge should be taught in the course of the day, for the special reason that the different branches of knowledge have a relation and afford mutual aid to each other. Spoken language gives great assistance in acquiring the use of printed language; and printed language, in its turn, brings the pupil acquainted with new words and new forms of expression. For these reasons it is expected that teachers will bring this subject before their respective classes as early as possible, carefully and assiduously following the natural order of "ideas before words," "whole things before the parts of which they are composed," &c. Teachers shall exhibit to their pupils such printed words as have corresponding ideas in their minds, in the full belief that they will perceive and recognize them precisely as they perceive and recognize other objects, and thus the printed name will become associated with its corresponding idea in the same manner as the spoken word becomes so. In this way a few simple words and sentences can be learned without the dull, meaningless talk of first learning the alphabet. By this method something of practical utility can be brought before the children and an interest awakened.

There are many things that can be done by the skilful teacher, in carrying out and filling up this outline, unnecessary to be given in detail; but as soon as the children have acquired the ability to call words at sight and read sentences formed by them, it will be necessary for teachers to give examples of the best style of reading as models for imitation, carefully guarding against and correcting all bad habits, taking care that the tones of the voice are of good quality, smooth, musical, and within the proper compass. Teachers should never be satisfied with anything short of the children's understanding the full sense and meaning of what is read and having that sense brought out and expressed by the reading.

Spelling.—When the idea or ideas are well developed and the printed words representing these ideas become associated with them, and when the pupils pronounce them readily and fluently, it will then be proper for teachers to call their attention to the parts or letters of which these words are composed. In this there are three things that require special attention: first, the form of the letter; second, the name; and third, the sound of the letters. Here it will be necessary to guard against the error into which many have fallen by supposing that the pronunciation of the word is the sum of the names of the letters combined. Letters have names, which in spelling must be enunciated, but they are representations of sounds, and the pronunciation is the proper combination of these sounds. In no part of the curriculum of studies is the fidelity of the teacher more necessary than in this. Teachers should be very explicit, and dwell on this point, showing the difference between the name of the letter and the sound which it represents. They should give oral illustrations by exploding the vowel, then selecting some of the less difficult consonants, and combining them with a vowel, explaining why a vowel is so called, because expressed by an impulse of the voice, without any change in the organs, and that a consonant cannot be well sounded without being combined with the sound of a vowel.

The better to insure success in spelling, the pupils shall be taught to form the printed words and letters on slates.

Writing.—The names and power of the printed and the manuscript letter exactly coincide; the only difference is in the form. The pupils shall be trained and guided in tracing or delineating these forms on slates. They shall be exercised in the execution of the capitals and small letters, giving attention to shape, size, slope, top and bottom turns, and their combination into words. It is made imperative on teachers not to leave children to themselves to form bad habits of sitting at the desk and holding the pencil, &c., but to exercise due vigilance in securing the proper position in their seats, and the most approved methods of holding the pencil, aiming at the attainment of freedom and ease in the arm, hand, and finger movements.

Numbers.—The pupils shall be guided to the clear and full perception of the idea of numbers, beginning with the concrete unit, and, by presenting an object or collection of objects proceed to show that each consecutive number, from unit upward, is formed by adding one to the number preceding, and so continue the process with the concrete till the abstract idea of number is attained. This being gained, the pupils may be taught to count by twos, threes, &c., objectively. At this stage of the study of calculation, mere rapidity or mechanical dexterity is of far less value than the clear apprehension of the comparative value or amount of numbers by increase and diminution. The addition, multiplication, and other arithmetical tables, together with their use in calculation, should be taught by the use of concrete objects or the numerical frame. The pupils shall be taught to recognize and form the characters used to represent numbers, and have such exercises given them as will lead to the correct knowledge of the Arabic and the Roman notation and their proper application. Correct expression of what they have learned is an indispensable part of this exercise.

Morals and manners.—The sacred writers, the historian and the poets, all unite in bearing testimony to the importance of the principle indicated in the heading of this section. They have given us "line upon line" and "precept upon precept," such as the following: "Train up the child in the way he should go;" "Those traits of character that distinguish a child in early life are likely to distinguish him in after years;" "Just as the twig is bent the tree is inclined;" "Scratch the green rind of the sapling or wantonly twist it in the soil, and the

scarred and crooked oak will tell of it for centuries to come." These quotations show the fitness and necessity of moral training. This culture of the moral powers aims at something of a higher order than mere deportment. It is not intended as a separate, special discourse, composed or committed to memory by the teacher and repeated at stated intervals before the children, but rather that instantaneous seizing of fit opportunities and proper occasions when the heart is tender and susceptible of good impressions and of right impulses, but by the recital of some biographical incident, anecdote, or stories of real life. By such indirect approaches they may be led to the appreciation of right and of duty. Though the abstract moral precept may be very proper in its place, still it is the concrete example of good acts done by the children themselves, or done in their presence, that they gain an experimental appreciation of the value of right doing. In teaching manners it is not proposed that the teacher shall give instruction and exercises in that fashionable etiquette or conventional round of drawing-room proprieties that are as superficial as they are artificial. But it is expected that they will aim at that refinement that comes from sincerity and gentleness, and the attainment of those virtues that are the ornament of human society, or the manners to be acquired may be considered the outward expression of that inward life that moulds the character and impresses the hearts of all who practice and those that witness them.

GRADE NO. X.

Spelling.—Pupils in this grade shall be taught to call at sight, and spell by letter, selected words, and read such sentences as may be formed by them.

Arithmetic.—They shall be taught to count backward and forward, with and without objects, to 100, and combine the 2's singly and collectively.

Penmanship.—They shall be taught to write plainly and legibly on their slates the words they are required to spell or read in sentences.

Repeating verses and maxims.

Singing at least ten minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

Oral instruction.—Lessons on common things, on form, color, flowers, animals, morals and manners. One lesson each half day.

GRADE NO. IX.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently and correctly the lessons in Goodrich's First Reader.

Spelling.—Pupils shall be taught to spell orally or in writing the words in their reading lessons.

Arithmetic.—Felter's First Lessons in Numbers.

Penmanship.—They shall be taught to write on their slates the words they are required to spell.

Numerals.—They shall be taught the Roman numerals in and out of course to 100.

Punctuation.—They shall be taught the name and use of all the points and marks found in their reading lessons.

Verses and maxims.

Physical exercises once each half day.

Singing at least ten minutes each half day.

Oral instruction.—Lessons on parts, form, and color, illustrated by common objects—on plants, on animals, those with which children are familiar—morals and manners. One lesson each half day.

Geography.—Introductory lessons in geography.

GRADE NO. VIII.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently and understandingly the lessons in Goodrich's Second Reader, and to repeat in their own language the substance of each lesson.

Spelling.—Sanders's Union.

Arithmetic.—They shall be taught to answer the questions and solve the problems in Felter's Introduction to Mental and Written Arithmetic to section four, page 60.

Penmanship.—They shall be taught to write on their slates the words they are required to spell.

Numerals.—They shall be taught the Roman numerals in and out of course to M, (1,000.)

Punctuation.—They shall be taught the name and use of the points and marks found in their reading lessons.

Repeating verses and maxims.

Singing at least ten minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

Oral instruction—Lessons on parts, size, general qualities, color, animals, plants, professions, morals, and manners. One lesson each half day.

Geography.—Introductory lessons in geography.

GRADE NO. VII.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently the lessons in Goodrich's Third Reader, and repeat orally or in writing the substance of each lesson.

Spelling.—Sanders's Union.

Arithmetic.—They shall be taught to answer the questions and solve the problems in Felter's Introduction to Mental and Written Arithmetic.

Penmanship.—They shall be taught to write on their slates the small and capital letters, and the words they are required to spell.

Numerals.—They shall be taught the Roman numerals in and out of course.

Punctuation.—They shall be taught the name and use of the points and marks on Philbrick's card.

Repeating verses and maxims.

Singing at least ten minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

Oral instruction.—Lessons on form, size, general qualities, weight, color, animals, the five senses, common things, morals, and manners. One lesson each half day.

Geography.—Introductory lessons in geography.

INTERMEDIATE DEPARTMENT.

GRADE NO. VI.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently and correctly 100 lessons in Goodrich's Fourth Reader, and repeat orally and in writing, on alternate days, in their own language, the substance of each lesson.

Penmanship.—Payson, Dunton & Scribner's Spencerian, and Potter & Hammond's copy-books. The series, and number of series, to be selected by the principal.

Geography.—They shall be taught to answer the questions in Monteith's Manual of Geography No. 3 to page 36.

Written arithmetic.—They shall be taught to answer the questions and solve the problems in Felter's Arithmetical Analysis No. 1 to paragraph 60, page 167.

Mental arithmetic.—They shall be taught to solve the problems in Stoddard's Intellectual Arithmetic to chapter five, page 47.

Spelling.—Sanders's Union, to section six.

Singing at least ten minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

GRADE NO. V.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently and correctly all the lessons in Goodrich's Fourth Reader, and repeat orally and in writing, on alternate days, in their own language, the substance of each lesson.

Penmanship.—Payson, Dunton & Scribner's Spencerian, and Potter & Hammond's copy-books. The series, and number of series, to be selected by the principal.

Written arithmetic.—They shall be taught to answer the questions and solve the problems in Felter's Arithmetical Analysis No. 1 to paragraph 80, page 229.

Mental arithmetic.—They shall be taught to solve mentally the problems in Stoddard's Intellectual Arithmetic to lesson VIII, page 76.

Geography.—They shall be taught to answer the questions in Monteith's Manual of Geography No. 3 to the map of Asia, page 80.

Spelling.—Sanders's Union, to section 9.

Singing at least 10 minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

GRADE NO. IV.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read fluently and correctly the first 125 lessons in Goodrich's Fifth Reader, and repeat orally and in writing, alternately, in their own language, the substance of each lesson.

Penmanship.—Payson, Dunton & Scribner's Spencerian, and Potter & Hammond's copy books; the series and number of series to be selected by the principal.

Written arithmetic.—They shall be taught to answer the questions and solve the problems in Felter's Analysis No. 1 to page 293.

Mental arithmetic.—They shall be taught to solve mentally the problems in Stoddard's Intellectual Arithmetic to lesson XVIII, page 104.

Geography.—Pupils shall be taught to answer the questions in Monteith's Manual of Geography No. 3.

Spelling.—Sanders's Union, to section 10.

Singing at least 10 minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

GRAMMAR DEPARTMENT.

GRADE NO. III.

Reading.—They shall be taught to read well the last 120 lessons in Goodrich's Fifth Reader, and repeat orally or in writing, in their own language, the substance of each lesson.

Geography.—They shall be taught to answer the questions in Part I of Monteith's New Intermediate Geography No. 4.

Grammar.—They shall be taught all the lessons and exercises in Butler's Large Grammar to syntax. They shall also be taught to parse words in simple sentences not found in the grammar.

Written arithmetic.—They shall be taught to answer the questions and solve the problems in Felter's Analysis No. 2 to paragraph 166, page 163.

Penmanship.—Payson, Dunton & Scribner's Spencerian, and Potter & Hammond's copy books; the series and number of series to be selected by the principal.

Mental arithmetic.—They shall be taught to solve the problems in Stoddard's Intellectual Arithmetic to page 121.

Spelling.—Sanders's Union, to section 11.

Singing at least 10 minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

GRADE NO. II.

Reading.—Pupils shall be taught to read well 250 pages of Goodrich's Sixth Reader; to commit to memory and learn to apply lessons in elocution to chapter V, in which they shall be examined to pass to grade I; to spell and define the words at the end of each lesson, and to give, in their own language, the substance of the lessons read.

Grammar.—They shall be taught all the lessons and exercises in Butler's large grammar to prosody; to compare adjectives and adverbs, to decline nouns and pronouns, and to conjugate verbs, in writing. They shall also be taught to parse all the parsing exercises in said lessons, and to parse words in simple sentences not found in the grammar.

Written arithmetic.—They shall be taught to answer the questions and solve the problems in Felter's Analysis No. 2 to paragraph 238, page 255.

Penmanship.—Payson, Dunton & Scribner's Spencerian, and Potter & Hammond's copy books; the series and number of series to be selected by the principal.

Mental arithmetic.—They shall be taught to solve mentally the problems in Stoddard's Mental Arithmetic to page 147.

Geography.—Monteith's No. 4 (complete.)

History.—They shall be taught to answer the questions in Anderson's History of the United States to section IV, page 110.

Spelling.—Sanders's Union, to section 13.

Singing at least 10 minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

GRADE NO. I.

Grammar.—Butler's, (complete.)

Written arithmetic.—Felter's Analysis No. 2, (complete.)

Mental arithmetic.—Stoddard's, (complete.)

Reading.—Goodrich's Sixth Reader, (complete.)

History United States.—Anderson's, (complete.)

Penmanship.—Payson, Dunton & Scribner's Spencerian, and Potter & Hammond's copy books; the series and number of series to be selected by the principal.

Spelling.—Sanders's Union, to section 17.

Geography.—McNally's No. 5, (complete.)

Singing at least 10 minutes each half day.

Physical exercises once each half day.

GERMAN.

In all schools in which instruction in the German language is given the following arrangement and course of study shall be adopted:

Grades Nos. I, II, III.—Reading, definitions, and explanation, writing, composition, and declamation, grammar, translating, and orthography.

Grades Nos. IV, V, VI.—Reading, spelling and defining, writing.

Grades Nos. VII, VIII, IX.—Exercises in reading and in language, and writing on slates.

TEXT BOOKS.

A. For the grammar department.

Grade I.—Knoefel's Fourth German Reader, Ahn's New Practical Method of Learning the German Language by J. C. Oehlschlager, Benziger's Penmanship, Nos. 5, 6, and 7.

Grade II.—Knoefel's Third (formerly Second) Reader, Ahn's Grammar to 62, Benziger's Penmanship, Nos. 4 and 5.

Grade III.—Knoefel's Third (formerly Second) Reader, the first 5 parts, Grammar, by Thomas Plate, Part 1, penmanship, Nos. 3 and 4.

B. For the intermediate department

Grade IV.—Knoefel's Second Reader, (by J. C. Knapp,) penmanship Nos. 1 and 2.

Grade V.—First Reader, J. C. Knapp, (complete.)
Grade VI.—First Reader, by J. C. Knapp, Part 1.

C. For the primary department.

Grade VII.—Charles Hebel's Primer, (complete.)
Grade VIII.—Charles Hebel's Primer, to page 25.
Grade IX.—Schubert's Reading Tablets, (complete.)

FEMALE HIGH SCHOOL.

FIRST-YEAR CLASS.

First session.—Mental and practical arithmetic, English grammar and composition, Hooker's natural history, general history, with geography, vocal music.

Second session.—Intellectual and written algebra, Latin grammar, botany, history, (continued,) vocal music.

SECOND-YEAR CLASS.

First session.—Algebra, Latin grammar and reader, natural philosophy, rhetoric, vocal music.

Second session.—Algebra, Latin grammar and reader, natural philosophy, rhetoric, vocal music.

JUNIOR CLASS.

First session.—Geometry, Latin, (Hanson's Prose,) French or German, chemistry, rhetoric, vocal music.

Second session.—Geometry, Latin, (continued,) French or German, chemistry, rhetoric, vocal music.

SENIOR CLASS.

First session.—Astronomy, physical geography, mental philosophy, French or German, English and Latin etymology, vocal music.

Second session—Astronomy, geology, French or German, English and Latin etymology, mental philosophy, with theory and practice of teaching, vocal music.

Exercises in elocution, composition, and light gymnastics shall be required of the pupils throughout the entire course of study; and lectures on physiology and topics connected with history and general literature may be delivered by the principal or persons invited by him.

MALE HIGH SCHOOL.

FRESHMAN YEAR.

First term.—A B. Universal History, (Willard's.) A. Anthon's Latin Lessons. A B. Robinson's University Algebra, (begun.) A B. Science of Common Things, (Wells's.) B. Commercial arithmetic.

Second term.—A B. Parker's Aids to English Composition. A. Arnold's First Latin Prose Composition and Anthon's Greek Lessons. A B. Algebra, (completed,) geometry, (begun.) A B. Physiology, physical geography. B. Bookkeeping. Weekly exercises in composition and declamation throughout the year.

SOPHOMORE YEAR.

First term.—A B. Shaw's English Literature. A. Latin Prose Composition, Ovid's Metamorphoses, Anthon's Greek Lessons, (continued.) A B. Geometry, (completed.) A. B. Ware's Smellie's Natural History. B. German grammar.

Second term.—A B. Governmental Instructor and Elements of the Laws. A. Ovid—Virgil, and Greek Reader. A B. Robinson's Trigonometry and Surveying. A B. Physics, (begun.) B. German Reader. Weekly exercises in composition and declamation throughout the year.

JUNIOR YEAR.

First term.—A B. History of Greece and Rome. A. Virgil, Horace, (Odes,) Cyropedia, and Grammar Exercises. A B. Robinson's Analytical Geometry, (new edition.) A B. Physics—Inorganic Chemistry, (Stockhardt.) B. German Reader.

Second term.—Elements of Criticism. A. Horace, Sallust, Memorabilia, and Illiad, with Greek Exercises. A B. Robinson's Differential and Integral Calculus. A B. Physics, (completed,) Inorganic Chemistry, (completed.) B. French. Composition and declamation throughout the year.

SENIOR YEAR.

First term.—A B. Rhetoric and Logic, (Coppee.) A. Cicero, (Orations,) Horace, (Satires,) Illiad. A B. Mechanics, (Peck's.) Organic Chemistry, (Stockhardt.) B. French.

Second term.—A B. Mental and Moral Science. A. Ars Poetica, Livy, Selections from Sophocles and Euripides, with Greek exercises. A B. Robinson's Astronomy. A B. Geology, (Dana.) B. German and French, (alternate.) Weekly exercises in composition and declamation throughout the year.

Adam's Latin Grammar and Valpy's Greek Grammar are used continually in all the classes during the entire course.

PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA. ✓

Prior to 1818 a system of charity schools was maintained by a society of benevolent persons which had been aided by a small appropriation from the city from 1808. In these schools 2,000 poor children were educated in 1817, at a cost of $11 per scholar.

In 1818, against violent and interested opposition from various quarters, the present system was commenced, and the first school opened in a hired room on the Lancastrian method of instruction, under the direction of Joseph Lancaster himself.

In 1819 there were six schools established, one school-house built, ten teachers employed, and 2,845 children instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic, at an aggregate expense of $23,049 45, of which nearly $19,000 was invested in land, buildings, and furniture.

In 1823 the first school for colored children was established.

In 1826 there were 4,144 children in nine schools, at an aggregate expense of $22,444.

In 1833 a model infant school was organized. There were at this date 5,768 children in 13 schools, under 23 teachers, instructed at an aggregate expense of $53,042, of which $23,000 was for school buildings and fixtures.

In 1836 26 primary schools were established. A committee of the board of controllers visited the public schools of Boston and New York, and at their suggestion the system of instruction was modified, and additional teachers, at a higher compensation, were employed, and the services of juvenile monitors dispensed with. At this date 11,127 children were instructed in 48 schools of different grades, at the aggregate expense of $75,017, of which $23,000 was for land and buildings. Thirteen school-houses had been erected up to this date.

In 1837 60 primary schools were in operation, with nearly 6,000 scholars. These schools were eminently successful in gathering up the young children who would not otherwise be at school, and in relieving the higher schools of a class of pupils who only embarrassed the teachers and retarded the more advanced learners. During this year the corner-stone of the Central High School building was laid, with an astronomical observatory attached. The monitorial system was still further dispensed with or modified. At this date 17,000 children were in all the schools, and the expenditure amounted to $191,830, of which $112,000 was for land, buildings, and furniture. Of this last amount $89,000 was received from an appropriation by the State of $500,000 for school-houses.

In 1839 the Central High School was opened with professors in various branches of classical, English, belles lettres, mathematical, astronomical, and physical sciences, and before the close of the year reorganized on a plan submitted by President Bache, of the Girard College for Orphans. More than 18,000 children were in attendance at school, and the expenditure of the year amounted to $188,741, of which $82,000 was for land, buildings, and furniture. The ordinary expense of the system was about $6 for each pupil.

In 1848 a normal school was opened under the charge of A. T. W. Wright, "for the thorough training of female teachers in such practical exercises as will discipline and develop the mind, adorn and elevate the character, insure the best modes of imparting knowledge, and prevent fruitless experiments, manifold mistakes, and irreparable loss of time."

In 1850 evening or night schools were opened by the controllers in different parts of the city to accommodate those to whom circumstances may have denied the advantages of education in early life, as well as to enable those whose necessities will not permit to attend the day school to share the benefits of that mental training so necessary to fit them to become useful citizens.

In 1865 the city councils authorized a loan of $1,000,000 for the erection of new school-houses, which has been expended by the controllers on plans formed after a visit to the principal cities where great attention had been given to the subject.

In 1867 there were 187 primary schools, with 40,358 pupils; 69 secondary schools, with 14,484 pupils; 60 grammar schools, with 19,107 pupils; 1 high school for boys, with 743 pupils; and 1 high school for girls—with a normal department for female teachers—with 513 pupils. To these grades should now be added a senior class in each grammar school, and 56 unclassified schools in the outer districts, with 6,477 pupils.

GRADED COURSE OF INSTRUCTION FOR PRIMARY, SECONDARY, AND GRAMMAR SCHOOLS, ADOPTED MARCH 10, 1868.

The studies of the primary, secondary, and grammar schools shall be pursued in the following order, and no omission therein or addition thereto shall be permitted.

The period of six months shall be devoted to the instruction of each division in the studies allotted to it.

PRIMARY DEPARTMENT.

FOURTH AND LOWER DIVISIONS.

Alphabet and spelling from cards.—Lessons 1 to 8.

Willson's or Worcester's Primary Spelling-book.—First 20 lessons.

Dictation.—Exercises from Willson's School Charts, Nos. 4, 5, 6.

Reading from Willson's School Charts from No. 1 to 6.

Reading from Hillard's or Willson's Primer.

Writing on slate.—Alphabet, numerals, spelling.

Drawing.—Simple forms sketched by the teacher on the blackboard to be copied on slate by pupil.

Arithmetic.—Counting from 1 to 100, and Roman notation from 1 to 12. Addition of simple numbers, and multiplication table as far as 6 times 12.

Morals and manners.

Oral instruction and object lessons.—Common objects to be shown, and their most obvious parts and qualities to be pointed out by the teacher and observed by the child. Charts 1 and 2.

Color.—The principal and familiar colors, by means of chart No. 13.

Elementary sounds.

Physical exercises.

THIRD DIVISION.

Spelling.—First 50 lessons Worcester's or Willson's Primary Speller.

Reading.—First 30 lessons Hillard's Second Reader.

Dictation.—Exercises containing words embraced in spelling and reading books.

Writing on slate from blackboard copies, and Potter and Hammond's or Spencerian Charts.

Drawing.—Simple figures sketched by teacher on blackboard.

Arithmetic.—Counting from 1 to 1,000; notation to millions; Roman notation to 100; multiplication table completed; federal money and the weights; addition and substraction of simple numbers on slate, and oral or mental exercises in the same with numbers less than 12.

Singing and rudiments of music.

Morals and manners.

Oral instruction.—Embracing conversations upon the reading lesson, so as to assist the child to understand what he reads; upon household objects, as furniture, food, clothing, &c., and upon parts of the human body and of familiar animals, &c.

Elementary sounds.

Physical exercises.

SECOND DIVISION.

Spelling.—First 90 lessons of Worcester's or Willson's Primary Speller.

Reading of Hillard's Second Reader completed.

Dictation.—Exercises containing words embraced in spelling and reading lessons.

Writing on slate from copies on blackboard and from the Spencerian or Potter and Hammond's Charts.

Drawing of figures bounded by straight and curved lines.

Arithmetic.—Notation to trillions; Roman notation to 2,000; division tables to 144÷12; addition and subtraction, multiplication and short division of simple numbers on slate and blackboard; mental exercises on the same with numbers less than 12; tables of weights and measures.

Singing and rudiments of music.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction.—Rain, hail, snow, mist, light, heat, wind, clouds, night, day, and such conversations upon reading lessons as will assist the pupil in understanding what he reads.
Elementary sounds.
Physical exercises.

FIRST DIVISION.

Spelling.—Worcester's or Willson's Primary Speller completed.
Reading.—Willson's Second Reader, to page 75.
Dictation exercises.—Embracing words in spelling and reading lessons.
Writing on slate from blackboard copies and from Potter and Hammond's or the Spencerian Charts.
Drawings of simple, regular, solid bodies, and those figures assigned to the lower divisions, and such other figures as the teacher may sketch on blackboard.
Arithmetic.—Notation to trillions; Roman notation to 2,000; arithmetical tables and weights and measures on cards; the fundamental rules, with their simple applications, long division, with divisors not exceeding three figures; mental exercises upon the above with numbers less than 12.
Singing and rudiments of music.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction and lessons.—Plants, kind used for food; fruits, grains, &c., and such useful topics as may suggest themselves to the teacher.
Oral instruction must embrace in each division at least 30 minutes daily.
Elementary sounds.
Physical exercises.

SECONDARY DEPARTMENT.

FIFTH AND LOWER DIVISIONS.

General review of primary school studies.
Spelling from Willson's Larger or Worcester's Pronouncing Speller, to page 40.
Reading.—First 40 lessons Hillard's Third Reader.
Dictation exercises, embracing words in the spelling and reading lessons.
Drawing.—Capital letters and other simple forms, at discretion of teacher, using cuts from books, &c.
Writing on slate from blackboard copies and Potter and Hammond's or Spencerian Charts.
Arithmetic reviewed and continued through long division and federal money, with rules and definitions of terms, as embraced in Greenleaf's or Vodges's Primary Arithmetic.
Mental exercises on the above.
Geography.—Definitions as given in Mitchell's New or Warren's New Primary.
Singing and rudiments of music.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction.—Varieties of the human race, their difference in form, feature, color, habits and degree of improvement. Conversations on reading lessons.
Physical exercises.

FOURTH DIVISION.

General review of studies of preceding division.
Spelling.—Worcester's Pronouncing or Willson's Larger Speller to page 80.
Reading.—Hillard's Third Reader, completed.
Dictation exercises, embracing words contained in reading and spelling lessons.
Writing on slates from blackboard copies, and from Potter and Hammond's or the Spencerian Charts.
Drawing.—Simple forms from blackboard, at discretion of teacher.
Geography.—Warren's New or Mitchell's New Primary, through the maps of the eastern and western hemispheres.
Arithmetic.—Vodges's or Greenleaf's Primary, embracing a review of what has been previously taught, with reduction ascending and descending. The rules and definitions of terms, and oral exercises on the above.
Singing and rudiments of music.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction.—Embracing conversations on reading lessons and definitions of words not familiar to the pupil. Household duties, as sweeping, washing, warming, providing, lighting, ventilating, making and mending, &c., &c.
Physical exercises.

THIRD DIVISION.

General review of studies in preceding divisions.
Spelling from Worcester's Pronouncing, or Willson's Larger Speller, to page 98.

Reading from Willson's Third Reader, intermediate series, to page 107.
Dictation exercises, embracing words in the spelling and reading lessons.
Writing on slates from blackboard copies, and from Spencerian or Potter and Hammond's Charts.
Drawing of figures sketched on blackboard.
Geography.—Review with map questions of Warren's New or Mitchell's New Primary, on North America, United States, British Provinces, Mexico, Central America and West Indies.
Arithmetic reviewed, with compound addition and subtraction, oral exercises and rules, and definitions of terms.
Singing and rudiments of music.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction.—Domestic animals. Conversations on reading lessons and oral definitions of words not familiar to the pupil.
Physical exercises.

SECOND DIVISION.

General review of studies in preceding divisions.
Spelling from Willson's Larger or Worcester's Pronouncing Speller, to page 115.
Reading from Willson's Third Reader, intermediate series, until completed.
Dictation exercises, embracing words in spelling and reading lessons.
Writing.—Potter and Hammond's or Spencerian Copy-books.
Drawing of simple solids and figures, bounded by curved and straight lines, or other figures sketched on blackboard.
Geography reviewed, with questions on maps of South America and Europe—Mitchell's New or Warren's New Primary.
Arithmetic.—Greenleaf's or Vodges' Primary, reviewed as far as previously taught, and continued through compound multiplication and compound short division, with oral exercises and rules and definitions.
Singing and rudiments of music.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction.—Materials used in clothing and building. Trades, tools, oral definitions of words not familiar to the pupil in reading lesson.
Physical exercises.

FIRST DIVISION.

General review of studies in lower divisions.
Spelling.—Worcester's Pronouncing or Willson's Larger Speller, to page 133.
Reading.—Hillard's Intermediate.
Dictation exercises, embracing words in spelling and reading lessons.
Writing.—Potter and Hammond's or Spencerian Copy-book.
Drawing of outline maps of the eastern, western, middle and southern States.
Geography reviewed, with map questions on Asia, Africa and Oceanica, from Mitchell's or Warren's New Primary.
Arithmetic.—General review of Vodge's or Greenleaf's Primary, as far as long division and miscellaneous examples and exercises, embracing the applications of all the principles taught, and oral exercises.
Singing and rudiments of music.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction.—The Heavenly bodies, &c.
Physical exercises.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

FOURTH AND FIFTH, OR TWO LOWER DIVISIONS.

General review of studies pursued in the secondary department.
Spelling.—Worcester's Pronouncing or Willson's Larger Speller, to page 137.
Reading.—Hillard's Intermediate.
Dictation.—Exercises embracing words in reading and spelling lessons.
Writing.—Potter and Hammond's or Spencerian Copy-books.
Geography.—Warren's New or Mitchell's New Primary Geography reviewed; with descriptive matter under grand divisions.
Arithmetic.—Vodges' or Greenleaf's reviewed and vulgar fractions taught, with oral exercises, rules and definition of terms.
Grammar.—Hart's Introduction, or Parker's—through the nine parts of speech—including the simple rules of syntax, and excluding the subdivisions of adjective and relative pronouns, numeral adjectives, participles, and voice of verbs.
Parsing.—Exercises within same limits.
Defining words contained in the reading lesson.
Etymology.—Controllers' Edition Scholar's Companion, or Webb's Etymology; first 200 words.

"Familiar Science," to item No. 622.
Singing.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction.—National flag, national and State coats of arms, historical sketches, King Philip, Columbus, Cortez, Pocahontas, Washington, Franklin, &c., &c.
Physical exercises.

THIRD DIVISION.

General Review.
Spelling.—Worcester's Pronouncing or Willson's.
Reading.—Willson's Fourth Intermediate Series.
Dictation.—Exercises embracing words found in the spelling and reading lessons.
Writing.—Potter and Hammond's or Spencerian Copy-books.
Drawing.—Outline maps of the countries of South America.
Geography.—Mitchell's Intermediate or Warren's Common School through introductory lessons, map questions on the hemispheres, grand divisions, United States, British Provinces, Mexico, Central America, and West Indies.
Arithmetic.—Vogdes' or Greenleaf's Reviewed and Decimal Fractions taught, with oral exercises, rules, and definitions of terms.
Grammar.—Hart's or Parker's introductory work completed.
Parsing and construction of simple sentences within the same limits.
Defining.—Words contained in reading lesson.
Etymology.—Reviewed, with four hundred additional words.
Familiar Science.—From item No. 622 to item No. 1211.
History of the United States.—Early discoveries and outlines of colonial history as contained in Goodrich's American Youth's History.
Morals and manners.
Singing.
Oral instruction.—National and State governments, illustrious characters, Alexander the Great, Cæsar, Peter the Great, Alfred the Great, Frederick of Prussia, &c., &c.
Physical exercises.

SECOND DIVISION.

General review.
Spelling.—Worcester's Pronouncing or Willson's Speller.
Reading.—Willson's Fifth Reader.
Dictation.—Words embraced in spelling and reading lesson.
Writing.—Potter and Hammond's or Spencerian Copy-books.
Geography.—Mitchell's Intermediate or Warren's Common School, reviewed with the remaining map questions.
History of the United States.—Goodrich's American Youth's reviewed, and continued through the Revolution.
Grammar.—Hart's or Parker's English Grammar, commenced and continued to rules of syntax.
Parsing and construction of sentences, and correction of false syntax.
Defining.—Words contained in reading lessons.
Etymology.—Reviewed, with four hundred additional words.
Drawing—Outline maps of the countries of Europe.
Arithmetic.—Reviewed and continued, Vogdes's or Greenleaf's through simple and compound proportion, interest, discount and banking business. Mental exercises on above.
Familiar Science.—From item No. 1168 to the end.
Morals and manners.
Singing.
Oral instruction.—Historical sketches, Babylon, Nineveh, Herculaneum, Pompeii, Athens, Rome, Carthage, &c., &c.
Physical exercises.

FIRST DIVISION

General review.
Spelling.—Worcester's or Wilson's Speller.
Reading.—Hillard's Sixth Reader.
Dictation exercises, containing words in spelling lessons and extracts from reading lessons.
Geography.—The Common School or Mitchell's Intermediate reviewed and completed, using the descriptive portions as a reading lesson.
Drawing maps of the various countries of the world.
History.—Goodrich's American Youth's completed, using in connection therewith Goodrich's Pictorial as a reading exercise on the same subject.
Grammar.—Hart's or Parker's reviewed and completed.
Parsing.—Hart's Class Book of Poetry.
Singing.

Composition once a week, with practice in writing letters.
Defining of words in reading lesson.
Etymology reviewed, with 500 additional words.
Arithmetic.—Vogdes's or Greenleaf's reviewed and continued through equation of payments, commission, brokerage, insurance, loss and gain, company business, involution, and the extraction of roots, with mental exercises on above.
Singing.
Morals and manners.
Oral instruction.—Facts pertaining to agricultural productions.
Physical exercises.

DIRECTIONS FOR TEACHERS OF GRAMMAR, SECONDARY, AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Every teacher engaged in the grammar, secondary, and primary schools must observe and carry out the following directions and suggestions in the instruction of all pupils confided to their care and tuition:

SPELLING.

Too much attention cannot be given to spelling. Those who do not become correct spellers early never become so. This is the most important exercise of the primary and secondary school. Both oral and written spelling must be a daily exercise.

READING.

Next in importance is reading. The child must be taught to pronounce words at sight, and trained to do it quickly. Correct pronunciation, distinct articulation, and a proper observance of the inflections are points which call for and must receive the especial attention of the teacher. A pupil should never be interrupted while reading. Let the errors be pointed out after a certain portion is read, and then let it be read over again. When words above the capacity of the child occur in the reading lesson the teacher should give correct oral definitions of the same, and encourage the pupil to give meanings of his own. The teacher should frequently read during the progress of the exercise.

WRITING.

One system should be taught throughout the primary, the secondary, and the grammar schools, so that as the pupils pass from one grade to another they will not be obliged to unlearn what they have already acquired in regard to the distinctive features of that system. Thus the pupil will the more readily perfect and carry out the principles they have already partially become acquainted with—such as the movements of the hand and arm; analysis and rules for the formation of the letters; the position of sitting; the manner of holding the pen; the correct slope and shading of the letters; uniformity in spacing; neatness and elegance of style; legibility, ease, and rapidity of writing.

The constant use of the blackboard or charts, in contrasting the proper forms of the letters with the erroneous forms made by the pupil, is indispensable in teaching writing.

The copy written upon the board by the teacher must always conform to the system used. The pupil must not be allowed to write rapidly before he is able to write a legible hand.

The great aim of the teacher must be to impart a plain, neat handwriting, devoid of flourish or ornament, for no other style is suitable for business purposes.

DEFINING.

In this exercise, explanations of words must be given rather than mere synonyms and the meanings illustrated by combining them in sentences containing important and interesting facts.

COMPOSITION.

In assigning this exercise, teachers must select subjects familiar to the pupils, the object being to promote accuracy in the use of language, and to insure a habit of properly expressing thought. It will be found useful for the teacher to read, once or twice, slowly and aloud, passages from standard authors, which the pupil shall copy on the slate. This will improve memory, style, and choice of language, by enabling him to detect the difference between the copy and the original.

GEOGRAPHY.

In conducting this exercise, the pupil's interest and attention should be excited by oral instruction of whatever may be of an interesting character connected with the places mentioned, as natural curiosities, memorable events, peculiar productions, soil, and climate. Matters contained in statistical tables should be regarded more as subjects for reference than memory. The drawing of maps on the slate, paper, or blackboard must be a co-ordinate exercise.'

GRAMMAR.

The disputed points or matters far above the pupil's capacity should never be dwelt upon. The teacher's object must be, rather, to impart such a knowledge of the construction of the language as will enable the pupil to speak and write with a reasonable degree of correctness.

ARITHMETIC

Must be taught inductively, and, when practicable, an explanation and analysis of every operation should be given by the teacher on the blackboard. All tables and terms employed must be thoroughly explained, and never learned by mere rote. Oral or mental arithmetic should be restricted to operations with small numbers, and the examples of a character not too complicated.

Practical examples must take precedence of mere arithmetical puzzles or curiosities. The object in teaching arithmetic should be to make accurate calculations with facility.

HISTORY.

In this branch of study, care should be taken that the memory of the pupil be not burdened with trifling and unimportant facts. Let the teacher seize upon the leading points and impress them upon the pupil's attention. The most prominent points only should be associated with dates. In regard to others, it matters but little whether the exact date be remembered.

ORAL INSTRUCTION

Must be a daily exercise in all the schools. Teachers must prepare themselves thoroughly upon the topics in the oral course, and be sure that their instructions are simple, concise, and accurate. "The teacher should never tell a pupil what he can make the pupil tell him, and should never give the child any information without calling for it again."

Let oral instruction be given at intervals so as to relieve the monotony of the ordinary routine of school exercises. Oral lessons may and ought to be of such a character as to afford amusement as well as instruction.

MORALS AND MANNERS.

Remarks upon morals and manners should follow the reading of the Bible by the principal. These remarks should be made in the presence of the whole school, and as frequently as the incidents of the school-room may suggest.

Respectfulness to superiors, obedience to parents and teachers, honesty and truthfulness, thus enforced and impressed upon the mind of the pupil, will be found a powerful auxiliary in the discipline of the school. The careful attention of teachers is directed to the remarks upon this subject, found in the appendix.

PHYSICAL EXERCISES.

The teacher shall be required to devote the period of 10 minutes, during the course of each school session, to such physical exercises as the size of the room and other circumstances may permit. The character of the exercises is left to the discretion of the teacher. During the course of these exercises the windows shall be opened, if found prudent to do so. The windows shall be opened in the interval between the sessions.

VOCAL MUSIC.

The rudiments of music shall be taught, with the aid of a text-book and the blackboard, in the first and second divisions of the primary schools, in the secondary schools, and in the lower two divisions of the grammar schools. If a professional teacher is employed, it may be taught through all the divisions as well as in the senior class. Singing may be used as opening exercises in all the departments, at the discretion of the teacher. No teacher shall, however, be expected to teach the melody if she does not feel competent to do so. The utterance of elementary sounds shall be done in concert and individually.

In 1868, practically, an additional grade of public schools was instituted under the name of the senior class of the grammar school, to which pupils who have completed the course of studies prescribed for the first division of the grammar school can be promoted and admitted on producing satisfactory evidence of proficiency after a written examination in these studies. The following course of studies ispursued in the senior class of the grammar schools, each grade occupying one year:

SPECIAL COURSE FOR SENIOR CLASS OF GRAMMAR SCHOOL.

FIRST YEAR.

Arithmetic, as applied to bookkeeping and mechanics.
Crittenden's Bookkeeping; commercial calculations and business forms.

Science of government, including a knowledge of the Constitution of the United States and of the State of Pennsylvania, with the outlines of municipal and international law.
Goodrich's History of the United States.
Physical geography, (Warren or Mitchell.)
Cutter's Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene.
English grammar, composition, declamation, analysis of language and etymology.
Algebra, (Alsop's,) through quadratic equations.

SECOND YEAR.

Geometry, outlines of plane and solid, with applications to mensuration and practical plane trigonometry; also the use of the logarithmic tables.
Mensuration of superficies and solids, (Rodgers's or Vodges's.)
Natural philosophy, (Hooker's Outlines.)
Chemistry, (Hooker's Outlines.)
Goodrich's History of the World.
Physical geography reviewed.
English and American literature.
Composition, declamation, and original orations.

THE HIGH SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS AND FEMALE NORMAL SCHOOL.

Pupils admitted must have attended the public school at least one year, and have passed a satisfactory examination in penmanship, reading, orthography, etymology, and definition of words, English grammar, history and Constitution of the United States, arithmetic, and mensuration.

The course of instruction and training includes, 1st, a general review of the studies required for admission; 2d, geometry, algebra, natural philosophy, chemistry, English history and literature, grammar, analysis and composition, physical geography and geology, reading, elocution and music, history, (ancient and modern,) penmanship and drawing, physiology; 3d, moral and mental science, with reference to teaching, school organization, and discipline; 4th, observation of school management in the different classes and practice in teaching.

This school, by a late (1868) vote of the board of control, has been designated the Normal School for female teachers.

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

The Central High School, as organized by Prof. A. D. Bache, provided for instruction in the following subjects, viz: 1, English belles-lettres; 2, French; 3, Latin and Greek; 4, mental, moral, and political science; 5, mathematics; 6, natural philosophy; 7, natural history; 8, drawing and writing. These subjects were grouped into three courses: I, a course of four years; II, a course of two years, with the ancient and modern languages omitted; and III, a classical course. Soon the Greek language was omitted. Various modifications have been introduced until 1866, when the department of commercial calculations and business forms was instituted; and in 1867 the French language was omitted, and physical geography and civil engineering substituted in its place. Bookkeeping is now taught in the first two years, and phrenography is substituted for penmanship. Drawing from copies in the first year is followed by a three-years course in perspective and mechanical drawing. German occupies nearly three years. Natural history is begun in the first year. These studies are still grouped into three courses—the first, occupying two years, prepares for mercantile life; the second occupies four years, and prepares for the highest walks of manufacturing and mechanical labor; and the third, for professional and literary study.

We have not received an extended programme of the courses of study as modified, or we should insert it in this place.

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

The first public school in Chicago was opened in 1834 in the basement of the first Presbyterian church. In 1839 a special act was passed by which the schools of the city were placed under the supervision of a board of school inspectors. In 1844 the first school-house was erected, and in 1854 the office of superintendent was created and filled by the appointment of John C. Dore, then principal of a public school in Boston. He was succeeded by that veteran teacher, William H. Wells, in 1856, and on his resignation, J. L. Pickard, at the time State superintendent of public schools in Wisconsin, was appointed to the place. On the 8th of October, 1856, a public high school was organized in a spacious and elegant building, in three distinct departments, classical, English high, and normal, all of them open to pupils properly qualified of both sexes. A Monthly Teachers' Institute for all the teachers of the city was inaugurated in 1857, and a training department was attached to the normal school in 1864. The system, in all its parts—building, teachers, studies, and supervision—has been liberally sustained by the people, and in practical efficiency is inferior to no other in the country, embracing in 1867 26,851 pupils under 319 teachers, or at an aggregate expense of $432,027 63.

The schools are classified into primary, district, and high, and for purposes of instruction the pupils of the primary and district schools are divided into ten grades.

The board of education of Chicago was one of the earliest, under the lead of the superintendent, Mr. W. H. Wells, to prescribe not simply the subjects of study but a graded course of instruction for the public schools of the city. This course was printed in 1861 with general directions drawn up by Mr. Wells for all the grades, as well as special directions for the subjects taught in each grade. After the manual had been used for five years, with a few modifications from time to time, the whole course was subjected to a thorough revision by Mr. Wells's successor, Mr. J. L. Pickard, in which the suggestions of the most experienced teachers of the city on various points were carefully considered, and a new edition was adopted by the board May 29, 1866, and printed in a manuel of 75 pages. From this manual we introduce the course for the ten grades, (numbered from 10 to 1,) commencing with the tenth grade and with section 16 of the appended directions, the previous sections, from 1 to 15, being devoted to general directions applicable to all the grades. From those general directions we have introduced extracts wherever they are referred to by their numbers, although they are specially applicable to pupils of a more advanced grade.

GRADED COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

TENTH GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Different parts of the human body; five senses; common objects, their size, color, and more observable properties.

Morals and manners.

Reading from blackboard and from cards, with exercises in spelling, both by letters and sounds, until the child can call at sight and spell correctly at least one hundred of the words found in the first half of the primer. Two or more lessons each day.

Counting from one to sixty. Simple exercises in adding, with use of numeral frame.

Drawing on the slate; imitating simple forms, letters, figures, and other objects sketched by the teacher.

Printing or writing the reading and spelling lessons, and the Arabic numbers as far as twenty. Two or more exercises a day.

Singing.

Physical exercises as often as once every half hour; each exercise from three to five minutes.

The recitations in this grade should never exceed fifteen minutes each, and in some lessons ten minutes will be time enough.

§ 16. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

The oral course for the primary grades has been arranged with reference to the natural order of development of the child's faculties: 1st, perceptive; 2d, conceptive; 3d, comparing or reasoning.

Common objects.—Since the tenth grade should be regarded as a bridge from the freedom of home life to the more regular discipline of the school-room, the first lessons should be simple conversational exercises upon home objects, with which the children are already familiar, and in which they feel the greatest interest; their toys, their pets, their plays, their friends, &c., &c. They should be encouraged to give the teacher all the knowledge they possess, and should be stimulated to learn by careful observation more than they already know. Habits of observation and of accuracy in the use of language are of the first importance. Pupils should be encouraged to bring to the teacher objects for examination, so far as it may be done conveniently and with propriety. There need be no limit as to the character of these familiar objects. All observable properties should be noted, without any very rigid attempt at classification. Short and pertinent anecdotes may enforce the lesson, which should always cease the moment the interest of the class flags. If the child in this grade can be induced to pass along with all his senses in active exercise, very much good will be accomplished. As to size, color and parts of these common objects, the aim should be to secure the child's own ideas and to correct such as are erroneous, in all cases avoiding the use of difficult words, and making the instruction as simple and as comprehensive as possible.

The five senses.—As the child comes in contact with objects in his daily life, he will see, hear, smell, touch or taste them. Upon some objects a single sense may be employed; upon others, several or even all. It is important at the outset that he learn something about the organs of seeing, hearing, smelling, feeling and tasting, and their proper uses. Much may be said of the blind, and the acuteness of their other senses, and so of the deaf, and of the reasons why persons born deaf do not learn to speak. The proper care of each of the organs should be enforced. The duty of sympathy for the unfortunate should be impressed upon the minds of all. The methods of instruction of the blind and of the deaf mutes will interest and profit those who have not already some knowledge of them. The comparison of these methods with theirs, and the occasion those in full possession of their senses have for gratitude, will serve as the basis for important lessons.

The human body.—This topic should embrace only the more general divisions of the body, as, the head and its parts, skull, face, ears, eyes, nose, mouth, chin and their relative position and uses; body, chest, neck, throat, lungs, heart, stomach; limbs, arms, legs, elbows, wrists, hands, fingers, knees, ankles, feet, toes. Something may be said about the bones and the flesh, but only such things as a child may comprehend.

§ 7. MORALS AND MANNERS.

Love to parents and others, friendship, kindness, gentleness, obedience, honesty, truthfulness, generosity, self-denial, neatness, diligence, &c., are cultivated in children, not so much by direct exhortation and formal precept, as by resorting to expedients that will call these affections and qualities into active exercise. Lead a child to do a kind act, and you will increase his kindness of heart; and this is the best of all lessons on kindness. Let teachers ever remember that the exercise of virtuous principles, confirmed into habit, is the true means of establishing a virtuous character.

Little anecdotes and familiar examples, illustrating the love of brothers and sisters, the respect due to the aged, kindness to animals, mutual love of companions and associates, benevolence, &c., are among the best means of cultivating these virtues. Teaching mainly by examples will accomplish far more than any formal catechism of moral instruction.

Teachers should frequently read to their divisions short, entertaining narratives, and make them the subject of familiar and instructive conversations with their pupils. So also in lessons on animals, trees, and all the works of nature, opportunities should be constantly improved to show the wisdom, power, and goodness of the Creator, and to inculcate the reverence that is due to Him, and a sense of dependence upon Him.

Every case of quarrelling, cruelty, fraud, profanity, and vulgarity, should be made to appear in its true light. The selfishness of children is the greatest obstacle to moral training. To moderate this strong instinct, to teach self-denial and self-control, must be the constant care of the teacher.

There is no time when the watchfulness of the teacher is more necessary than during the recesses and other hours of relaxation at school. This is the time when little differences are most likely to spring up, and bad passions to gain the ascendency. No parent's eye is upon children, and they should constantly feel that some kind guardian is near—not to check their cheerful sports, but to encourage every kind and noble act, and to rebuke every departure from the path of virtue and honor.

Good manners are intimately connected with good morals, and teachers should improve every opportunity to inculcate lessons of civility and courtesy. In the primary divisions, especially, the teachers should give frequent and somewhat minute directions respecting the ordinary rules of politeness. Let the pupils be taught that when a question is asked them, it shows a lack of good breeding to remain silent or shake the head, even if they are not able to answer it. They should receive some general directions respecting the manners of younger persons in the presence of those who are older. They should be taught that well-bred persons seldom laugh at mistakes, &c. The manners of the children in their intercourse with each other before and after school, and at the recesses, and in going to and from school, should receive the constant and watchful care of the teacher.

The position of the pupil in his seat; his movements in passing to and from the class; his position in class or at his seat when called upon to recite, should receive the teacher's most careful scrutiny. Bad manners open the door for the entrance of bad morals, and all listless and lounging habits in the school-room are but the sure indication of a loaferish spirit which unchecked will lead to vicious associates and practices. The teacher should respect himself too much to receive any answer from a pupil who is not in a manly posture, and who does not in his tone and manner express sincere respect both for his teacher and the place he holds among his fellows. Nor can the teacher keep too constantly in mind the truth uttered by Marcel—"Nature, reason and experience proclaim this order, example before precept."

No teacher can expect to make his pupils more civil, more courteous, or more truthful and virtuous than he shows himself to be. In dress, in movement, in speech, in thought even, he must be what he would have his pupils become.

§ 17. READING.

If any single method of teaching this branch must be pursued to the exclusion of all others, it should be the word-method. But no such necessity exists, nor would such a course be at all desirable or profitable. Prominence should be given to the word-method. The cards furnish words, and the child should be made so familiar with them that he can call them at sight, without the necessity of allowing him time to examine the component parts of the word. He should learn the names of words as he learns his schoolmates, from their general form and peculiarities. That he may distinguish John from Harry, he does not necessarily notice each feature of each boy, but the general impression made upon his mind enables him to distinguish the one from the other. When close resemblances exist, it is necessary that his attention be called to some one distinguishing feature. Were the pupil called upon only to learn words that are quite or entirely dissimilar to each other, no other than the word-method would be needed, but to every word he learns to-day, he will find ere long some other word quite similar in form. He should therefore be taught the separate features of each word, that where he finds one generally similar he may be able to fasten upon some point of difference that may serve as his guide in naming his acquaintances.

Hence, the word-method should be followed or accompanied by the analytic and synthetic, or spelling method. In using the cards a large number of exercises may be introduced besides those found thereon. The words may be combined into an almost infinite variety of sentences. The teacher may give short and simple sentences, containing words found upon the cards, and require the pupils in turn to find the words upon the cards, or she may require some one pupil to point out the words while the class reads the sentence after his pointing. Sentences may be printed upon the board and the pupils be required to find the words upon the cards.

In introducing the words from the primer, the pupils should not have the book, but should learn the words as printed by the teacher. These words should be framed into sentences unlike those found in the primer, so that when the ninth grade is reached and the pupil takes the primer into his hands, he will meet familiar words but in new relations, and from the same words with which he has become acquainted he will gain new ideas. The oral exercises should be made subservient to this reading exercise. The child should be taught the names of objects about which he is learning, unless they be too difficult, so that he may recognize the word-picture of the object as he recognizes any other picture. Nearly all monosyllabic names of common objects, he may learn in connection with his object lessons without much extra effort on the part of his teacher. Indeed, each reading lesson should be made, in part at least, an object lesson.

No exercise in reading or in any other branch of this grade should be continued when the class shows signs of weariness, or of uncontrollable inattention.

§ 18. SPELLING.

Spelling by letters may properly be extended to all words learned, but spelling by sounds should be confined at first to such words as contain only the simplest elemental sounds; and in all cases in this grade to single letters, excluding diphthongs and double consonants, also excluding words having silent letters. There are words enough to occupy all the time that can be given to this subject in the grade, without introducing any excepted as above.

Let the teacher take special pains to secure accurate and distinct articulation of each vowel

and single consonant. Connected with these vocal exercises should be associated exercises in breathing—such as silent and prolonged inhalation and exhalation, silent and rapid breathing, quick and full inhalation followed by prolonged and silent exhalation, prolonged and silent inhalation, followed by rapid exhalation; rapid inhalation with explosive exhalation. All these exercises in breathing should be very short.

Vocal exercises may also be combined with physical exercises, especially in the utterance of the vowel sounds, each being connected with some movement of hands or feet.

The exercises may be varied also as to time, pitch, and volume. Sounds may be prolonged or shortened, may be made high or low, may be given in a whisper or with full tone.

§ 19. COUNTING.

In this exercise, at first, pebbles, beans, or better still, small blocks an inch square should be used. Children may also make marks upon their slates and count them, or they may be required to make a certain number of marks not exceeding sixty. In counting, they should be required to commence at any point and count either forward or backward. They should be able to call at sight and to write the Arabic numbers as far as twenty.

§ 20. PHYSICAL EXERCISES.

The object of these exercises is physical culture. By the position of the body in study, there comes weariness, which may but be relieved by change of position. By inactivity of the body in study there comes sluggishness in the flow of all the vital fluids, and an unhealthy state of all the muscles.

Change of posture and activity are essential in these physical exercises. All the pupils, except such as may be excused on account of ill health, should be required to participate, and to enter into them with energy and promptness. No good comes from any other than a lively and spirited exercise. The teacher should lead the pupil, inasmuch as she needs the exercise nearly as much as they, and still farther because her own interest will awaken interest on the part of the pupils. As to kinds of exercise, there is variety enough in the schools, and any teacher who is not acquainted with the best forms, can readily learn them from more experienced teachers. In teaching the different series of movements, the initial letters may be used: as, "U." for Upward, "D." for Downward, "F." for Forward, "B." for Backward, &c., &c. "R. U." would indicate Right hand up, "L. D." Left hand down, &c., &c., or the full words may be given until the class is familiar with the order. Music or counting should accompany the exercises.

§ 22. DRAWING.

It is designed that the simplest forms shall be used in the drawing exercise: straight lines, triangles of different kinds, the square, and the rectangle. The names need not be given, the object being skill in the use of the pencil. The teacher should sketch objects of different kinds, embracing the figures given above, and draw upon the board, giving the pupils opportunity to follow her line by line. After the first attempt with the model before them upon the board, they should be encouraged to make many copies. Occasionally they may be allowed to put their various forms together to suit their own tastes.

§ 23. WRITING.

The children of this grade may, in connection with their drawing lesson, be taught the use of the pencil in making small letters in script form. They should be taught how to hold the pencil in forming such letters. The exercise should be a simultaneous exercise, and should be conducted by the teacher carefully and systematically.

NINTH GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Domestic animals; trees; primary colors; the three kingdoms of nature. Morals and manners.

Reading and Spelling.—Exercises upon blackboard and cards continued; tenth grade lessons reviewed; primer completed and reviewed; spelling both by letters and sounds; the exercises in both reading and spelling at least twice each day; the names and forms of the different pauses, with the proper use of the period.

Counting from one to one hundred; reading and writing Arabic numbers to one hundred; addition tables from blackboards to 4 plus 10 forward, backward, and irregularly, with use of numeral frame; Roman numerals to L, both in course and out of course; exercises in adding series of small numbers.

Drawing.—Exercises at least twice each day with slate and pencil, using elementary cards when they can be obtained; printing or writing lessons in spelling numerals, &c., &c.

Singing.

Physical exercises from two to five minutes at a time, not less than five times a day.

§ 24. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Classification of natural productions.—Many objects may have been discussed in the presence of the tenth grade classes that will come properly before them in the remaining grades of the primary department, but thus far there has been no attempt at classification. The object has been to awaken curiosity in any direction pleasing to the child. With this grade commences a system to be followed through succeeding grades. The classification of all objects under three general heads—animal, vegetable, and mineral—according to the three great kingdoms of nature. It will be sufficient for the purposes of classification to give the following definitions: Animals are living beings, having the power of seeing, hearing, smelling, feeling and tasting, and also having the power of voluntary motion. Vegetables are living things, but do not have the powers of sensation or of voluntary motion. All other objects are minerals. These distinctions are correct, though the limits between animals and vegetables, and between vegetables and minerals, are not easily determined, so that in a very few instances not often brought to the notice of children, it is difficult to place objects in their proper class. The course to be pursued may be briefly sketched thus. An object is presented. The following series of questions may be asked: Has it life? Can it move of itself? Can it see? Can it hear? Can it smell? Can it feel? Can it taste? If all these questions can be answered in the affirmative there is no doubt that it is an animal. If all must be answered in the negative, it must be a mineral. If the first question can be answered by yes, and all the others must be answered by no, then it is a vegetable. This exhaustive process may be carried out in full or in part, in all cases, until the child classifies readily. Difficulties will arise when dead animals are presented, and especially when ripened and perfected fruits and esculent vegetables are considered, but in such cases the difficulty may be solved, if instead of asking the questions propounded above, the form be varied so as to read—Has it ever had life? Has it ever seen? &c., &c. Has it ever had the power of voluntary motion? Let the questions be asked either in the one form or the other whenever a new object is presented, and there will be little danger of improper classifications.

Animal productions may also be discussed. Such things as have at any time formed part of any animal, are animal productions, as feathers, hair, bristles, &c., &c.; hides, skins, furs, leather, &c , &c.; bone, ivory, horn, shells, &c., &c. In the same manner vegetable and mineral productions may be discussed.

Domestic animals.—The cat, the dog, the horse, the cow, the sheep, the hog, the hen, the duck, the goose, the turkey, &c., may serve as illustrations. Their general structure, their relative size, and their clothing or covering may be considered. The head, eyes, ears, nose, and feet of each should be quite fully discussed. The varieties of tone in their utterances; their modes of defence when attacked; their methods in lying down and in rising, or their positions while resting, and their varied movements in walking, running, flying, &c., their kinds of food, and their teeth (where any are observable,) should be made prominent topics of conversation. Anecdotes showing their intelligence, sagacity and cunning, should be drawn from the children, or given to them to be called for again. Instances of affection for one another or for man, and of treachery, will be found interesting and profitable.

Trees.—Such trees as children have the opportunity of seeing and of studying should be selected. Their general structure, their bark and their leaves, may be discussed in such a way as to teach a child the difference between an oak, a hickory, a maple, a cottonwood, an elm, a pine, and a cedar, &c. Their method of growth, the uses of their roots, and of their leaves should be understood.

Primary colors.—These are red, blue and yellow. Pieces of paper or of cloth having any one of these colors may be constantly before the child as book-marks. Flowers may be compared with some one, or all, of these patterns and their colors approximately determined. Nothing should be said of other colors, until these are made familiar to the child. The following distinctions may be properly observed: light red, red, and dark red; light blue, blue, and dark blue; light yellow, yellow, and dark yellow. All objects that have any one of these colors may be talked about with reference to their color, and may be compared with other objects similar in color.

§ 25. READING AND SPELLING.

In this grade pupils are introduced to the use of a book. Much care should be taken to teach the child how to hold his book and to turn the leaves properly. The book should always be held in the left hand, having the thumb and little finger upon the face of the book when opened, and the other fingers upon the back. The index finger of the right hand may then be used to aid the child in keeping his place, or to turn the leaf when needed.

The pupils should be able to point out and explain the title-page, table of contents, leaves, pages, margins, frontispiece, and the headings or the titles of the lessons.

While the pupil reads the first part of the primer, it is well that a portion of each exercise be devoted to teaching the new words that will be found in the last part of the book and extending the exercise as the pupil advances, even to the new words found in the first part of the First Reader. In doing this, care should be taken to construct sentences unlike those found in the book. The words and sentences should be taught from the board unless the words are found upon the card used.

In preparing an exercise in spelling, it is highly important that young pupils should hear the words pronounced by the teacher. A very useful method is, for the teacher first to pronounce all the words of the lesson distinctly, while the pupils listen attentively and point to the words in the books, as they are pronounced. Next, the teacher pronounces one word, which is repeated by the first scholar in the class; then another word, which is repeated by the second scholar, and so on. After this, if time permits, the teacher and class may pronounce in concert, and then the class pronounce in concert without the teacher.

All the spelling lessons should be neatly written or printed by the pupils on their slates, and the class should be required to read the words from their slates in connection with the spelling exercises.

§ 26. NUMBERS.

The children should be taught to construct their own addition tables by the use of the slate and pencil, and a great variety of exercises may be introduced that shall give them facility in adding and subtracting as far as the grade extends. As indicating some of the exercises that may be given, the following may serve, it being understood that the blank space is to be filled by the child:

1+2=	1+1+2+3=
2+3=	2+ +1+1=6
3+ =7	1+1+1+ =11
+9=12	4+1+1+3=

These exercises may be extended with profit, if the teacher is careful that the sum of the numbers given shall not exceed 4+10 or 14.

§ 27. DRAWING, PRINTING, &c.

The teachers of this grade should assign definite lessons in drawing, printing, &c., to be prepared by all the pupils, with the same regularity and care as any other exercise. The teacher should spend at least ten minutes each day in assisting the pupils and giving such directions as they may need. When the exercises are completed, they should in all cases be examined by the teacher. Lessons of special excellence should receive marks of credit, and failures resulting from carelessness or indifference should receive marks of error.

§ 30. ANALYSIS OF SOUNDS.

In this grade, this should extend no further than to vowels and single consonants as a separate exercise, and attention should be paid mainly to clear articulation and to its necessary attendant, an open mouth.

EIGHTH GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Wild animals; secondary colors; plants and vegetables; divisions of time and their names.

Morals and manners.

Reading and spelling.—First Reader read and reviewed, with particular attention to punctuation, definitions and illustrations; short daily drill in enunciating vowels, consonants, and combinations of vowels and consonants; spelling the columns of words, and words selected from the reading lessons both by letters and by sounds.

Drawing and writing.—Two or more exercises a day with slate and pencil, or paper and pencil, and printing or writing lessons in spelling and arithmetic.

Addition and subtraction tables.—Exercises in adding series of numbers; reading and writing Roman numerals to one hundred, forward, backward and irregularly.

Singing.

Physical exercises from two to five minutes at a time, not less than five times a day.

§ 31. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Wild animals.—Much that was said under the head of domestic animals in the ninth grade

is applicable here. A few only of the more common field animals should be treated of, and generally such as children have some opportunity of seeing. The elephant, the camel, the deer, the bear, the tiger, the fox, the rabbit, the eagle, the owl, the pigeon, the whale, the alligator, the trout, the caterpillar, the bee, the house-fly, and the mosquito may be sufficient examples. Their peculiar structure, their resemblances to domestic animals, their habits of living, their weapons of warfare, the modes of capture, and their degrees of intelligence should be learned. Each teacher may extend this list as far as time and the interest of the class will admit. At each lesson some instructive anecdote should be given, and the same should be called for at the next recitation.

Secondary colors.—These are violet, indigo, green and orange. The first two are composed of red and blue; the third of yellow and blue, and the last of red and yellow. Any piece of glass that will give the solar spectrum may be brought into the school-room, and the child may point out the various colors, both primary and secondary; pieces of cloth or of paper may also be used as standards to which objects may be applied when the color is to be tested. These standards should be of a decided color. But little time should be spent in this grade upon the color of objects unless it approximates quite near to some one of the seven colors already given.

Plants and vegetables.—The names of the more common garden and house plants, and their manner of growth, their times of flowering, &c., belong to this grade. All garden vegetables, especially such as are esculents, may be discussed as to their manner of growth, from the first sprouting of the seed to the full development of the vegetable, and as to their form, size, color and parts.

Divisions of time.—This should include the year; the months and their names; the day and the names of the days of the week; the seasons, their names, and the names of the months in each season. The pupil may also learn something of the method by which the time is determined by the clock.

SEVENTH GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Trades, tools and materials, lines and angles, general classification of animals, tints and shades.

Morals and manners.

Reading and spelling.—First half of Second Reader, with careful attention to punctuation, illustrations and definitions; short daily drill in enunciating difficult combinations of consonants, and the more difficult words of the reading lessons; spelling, both by letters and by sounds, half through monosyllabic words in the Speller and from the reading lessons.

Drawing and printing.—Two or more lessons a day from drawing cards, when they can be obtained, and printing and writing lessons in spelling.

Multiplication and division tables.—Through 5s, Arabic and Roman numerals to 500; exercises in adding and subtracting series of numbers.

Singing.

Physical exercises.—From two to four minutes at a time, not less than five times a day.

§ 40. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

General classification of animals.—Following the preceding grades in which animals, domestic and wild, have been considered; it is desirable thatchildren should be taught to classify the animals about which they have learned, and here is introduced the general classification into beasts, birds, fishes, insects and reptiles. The animals about which they have already learned something may now be re-examined with reference to the particular class to which they belong, and other examples of each of these classes may be presented. The distinguishing features, or rather such as are most readily recognized by the child, should be carefully considered.

Color.—Tints and shades in color naturally follow the consideration of the primary and secondary colors, and they are placed in this grade for a specific and for a general purpose; specific, so far as the tints and shades are themselves conducted, and general, inasmuch as it affords an opportunity for the teacher to take up all the varieties of color that are observed, assigning each to some one of the general divisions of color and giving to each some name that will best designate it. As in the other grades, samples should be arranged, first with reference to the natural order of colors, and secondly, with reference to complementary colors. There may be placed also before the child examples of colors that harmonize and suit each other, and of the opposite, for the purpose of cultivating the taste.

Trades, tools and materials.—In calling out the knowledge of the child upon this topic such trades as are connected with the absolute necessities of life should be first considered: first, because the most important, and then because these afford the most abundant facilities for observation. Of such are the trades of the carpenter, the mason, the painter, the shoe-

maker, the tailor, the milliner, the blacksmith, the plumber, the tin-worker, the farmer, the miller, the baker, the house-mover, the sewer-builder, the cistern-maker, &c. After these and other more common trades, should come such as are engaged in by the parents of the children, and these should be followed by as many trades as the teacher finds time to call up. The names and uses of the several tools employed by each tradesman, and the materials wrought upon with the articles manufactured, should be called for. By way of review, take some object, the school-room for example, and inquire how many tradesmen have had something to do in its construction, what tools and what materials they used.

Lines and angles.—This introduces the subject of geometry. Great care must be taken to make definitions clear, concise and truthful. The meaning and application of the terms straight, curved, crooked, horizontal, vertical and oblique, as applied to lines, should be impressed upon the mind of the child by many illustrations, each of which he should be called upon to repeat or to present in some new form.

With reference to angles, the terms acute, obtuse and right, must be employed, and with the right angle, the term perpendicular should be explained. While the terms vertical and perpendicular are in some respects synonymous, it will be better for the child that he be taught the term perpendicular only in connection with the right angle when two lines are used, for such is its proper use in geometry. A vertical line can have but one direction, and that is toward the zenith. A perpendicular line may be either vertical, oblique or horizontal, provided only it form a right angle with some other line.

In connection with their drawing the children may have frequent applications of the terms used in connection with this part of their course.

§ 43. NUMBERS.

The multiplication and division tables may easily be learned together and at the same time. When the child learns that four times five is twenty he may also readily learn that five is contained four times in twenty. Suppose the child to be constructing his own tables, he makes five marks, and then five more, and so on until he has four sets of these marks, thus: IIIII, IIIII, IIIII, IIIII. When he counts these marks and finds twenty of them he cannot help seeing that there are four fives in twenty. Now let him take five times four in the same manner and he will not only multiply four by five, but he will also learn that there are five fours in twenty.

By way of review let an exercise of this kind be given:

3×4=	2×2×4=
3× =15	2× ×2=12
×5=30	3×3×5=

Or, this:

× =20	× =30
× =15	× =40

In three of the above cases, the blanks may be filled by more than one set of numbers, without going beyond what the grade requires, as:

2×10=20	5× 6=30	5× 8=40
5× 4=20	3×10=30	4×10=40

This exercise will keep children well employed at their seats. See §§ 3, 6, 26.

SIXTH GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Articles eaten and worn (distinguishing foreign from home products,) plane figures, circle and its parts, flowers and fruits.

Morals and manners.

Reading and spelling.—Second Reader completed and reviewed, with strict attention to punctuation, definitions, and illustrations; frequent exercises in enunciating difficult combinations of consonants, and of the more difficult words of the reading lessons; spelling both by letters and by sounds, with definitions from Speller through monosyllables, and from reading lessons.

Drawing with slate and pencil, or paper and pencil, using drawing cards, cuts from other books and other copies, writing the large letters of the alphabet in plain script hand, also words from reading and spelling lessons.

Elementary arithmetic completed through the 12s., with frequent applications and illustrations other than those in the text-book; exercises in adding, subtracting, multiplying and dividing series of numbers; reading and writing Arabic and Roman numerals to one thousand.

Abbreviations.

Singing.

Physical exercises from two to four minutes at a time, not less than four times a day.

§ 44. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Articles eaten and worn.—The more common articles of food and of apparel are first to be taken up, and after these, if time permit, the less common and the luxuries. Children will need a map before them, that they may find the places from which the articles are brought. Special pains should be taken to distinguish home from foreign products; the methods of growth and the preparation needed to fit articles of food for the table, and the process of manufacture of articles of wearing apparel; the different kinds of food and of clothing suited to warm and to cold climates; the kinds of animals best fitted to our wants, both with reference to food and to clothing; the articles raised and manufactured at home that are sold in exchange for foreign articles. These topics should occupy the attention of the children, until they have some knowledge of articles found upon the table and in the wardrobe.

To make the matter more definite, it will be sufficient to treat of the following articles of food and of apparel:

Of food.—Different kinds of flour and meal, as wheat, rye, corn, and oats, and the modes of preparation of each; bread of different kinds, and how made; butter and cheese; meats, as beef, pork, mutton, poultry, fish, how prepared for market and how cooked; salted meats; salt, pepper, ginger, cinnamon, and nutmegs; sugars of different kinds, and how made; tea, coffee, and chocolate; lemons, oranges, pine apples, raisins, peanuts, and walnuts; honey; candies of different kinds.

Of apparel.—Name five articles each, made of wool, of cotton, and of silk; two articles made of flax; difference between common flannels and dressed woollen goods; difference between muslin and calico; different modes of coloring fabrics; how silk, cotton, wool, and flax are prepared for wearing; what articles are made from leather, and how leather is manufactured; what articles are made of hair; what of fur; and how hair and fur are prepared for use as articles of apparel.

Fruits and Flowers.—Fruits will have found a place among articles eaten, but should be taken up again in connection with flowers, till the full process from the first opening of the flower to the perfection of the fruit is understood. The fruits are to be treated as containing the seeds, or as the seeds themselves, that will bring forth other flowers and fruits.

In discussing flowers, the prominent parts of the flower should be shown, and their names and uses learned, such as stem, calyx, petals, stamens, pistils, pollen, and seed vessels. The enlargement of the seed-vessels, as in the apple, pear, &c., and the beautiful illustration of the use of pollen, as seen in the growth of corn, especially when different kinds of corn are planted near each other, may be made a profitable study.

Plane figures, the circle and its parts.—Extending this exercise from the seventh grade, the following figures should be described: equilateral, isosceles, scalene, and right-angled triangles; rectangles (the square and the oblong;) the rhombus and the trapesium; the circle, circumference, arc, diameter, radius, chord, segment, sector, semi-circle, and quadrant.

1. *Number of classes in a division.*—As a general rule, the pupils assigned to each teacher in the grammar department should be divided into two classes; in the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th grades, into three classes; and in the 9th and 10th grades, into four.

The number of pupils in a division, or other circumstances, may make it desirable, in certain cases, to depart from this arrangement.

2. *Number of branches to be pursued at the same time.*—It requires the constant watchfulness of teachers to prevent pupils from undertaking too many branches of study at a time. Pupils should rarely be allowed to study more than three branches at once, besides reading, spelling, and writing; and it is generally better to have some of the lessons come only on alternate days than to have even the six exercises in one day.

In all cases, however, the branches assigned to the grade should be kept along as uniformly as possible, so that none be completed while others are neglected. The course of study is arranged with reference to the mental wants of the child, and some variety is absolutely essential to the best progress in study.

3. *Order of exercises and length of recitations.*—Every teacher should have posted up in the room an established order of exercises for each day in the week, assigning a definite time for the beginning and ending of every exercise, and of every interval between the exercises, and this order should assign also definitely the times for and topics of study, as well as recitation.

It is impracticable to establish a uniform rule respecting the frequency and length of recitations. The following scale will serve as a general guide to teachers in this matter:

Recitations in the grammar department from twenty-five to forty minutes in length, except exercises in spelling, which may usually be completed in fifteen to twenty-five minutes; in the 5th, 6th, and 7th grades, from twenty to twenty-five minutes; in the 8th and 9th grades, from fifteen to twenty minutes; and in the 10th grade, from ten to fifteen minutes.

4. *Frequency of recitations.*—The following arrangement will serve as a general guide, but cases may sometimes arise in which it will be necessary to depart from it:

Reading classes in the 1st grade, two or three times a week; in the 2d and 3d grades, three or four times; 4th grade, four or five times; 5th and 6th grades, five to eight times; 7th and 8th grades, eight to ten times.

Slate arithmetic, three or four times a week; mental arithmetic, in 4th and 5th grades, four or five times a week; in 3d grade, three or four times; in second grade, two or three times. Numbers, in five lowest grades, five times a week.

Geography, from three to five times a week.

History, three or four times a week.

Grammar, from three to five times a week.

Spelling, in 1st grade, two or three times a week; 2d and 3d grades, three or four times. 4th grade, four or five times; all grades below the 4th, eight to ten times.

Writing, in the grammar divisions, two or three times a week; in the 5th and 6th grades, four or five times.

5. *Division of time and labor.*—In deciding what proportion of time shall be given to spelling by letters, what to spelling by sounds, to reading, to numbers, to geography, &c., the rule should be this: whenever a class is less advanced in one branch assigned to the division than in other branches, let that particular branch receive special attention till it is as familiar as the others. It is very common to find a class more advanced in reading than in numbers, and still devoting less attention to arithmetic than to reading; the observance of this rule will correct all such errors.

General exercises.—In all the exercises of the school-room order is of the first importance. It is often the case that that school is best governed in which there is the least apparent show of attempts to govern. It is certain that a noisy teacher will have a noisy school. Constant and nervous calls to order, only make the repetition of such calls more and more necessary. The voice of the teacher should seldom be heard in securing the attention of pupils, and rarely, if ever, above the natural key. The bell in the hand of the teacher should not be rung as though the necessity for some sudden alarm existed, but a single tap or a succession of light and constantly lighter taps, will suffice with a teacher who can stand calm and self-possessed in the presence of the school. Quiet and patient demeanor is worth more than bluster. If a scholar needs reproof for idleness or inattention, the fixed gaze of the teacher upon such scholar until his roving eye rests upon her, will in the majority of cases serve the purpose better than calling the name of the pupil. Frequent calling of the names of disorderly pupils often creates more disorder than it cures, since it distracts the attention of others, who would not otherwise have been disturbed.

Some general directions may here be given as to signals by which the movements of pupils may be directed. For recesses, opening and closing school, these may all be given by the large bell in the hall. For exercises in rooms where there is a musical instrument, all the movements may be directed by signals given from the instrument. In all other cases when the teacher directs the movements of her room, I would advise the use of what may be called initial signals. If she wishes a class to give attention, "A;" to turn in their seats, "T;" to rise, "R;" to get in proper line for marching or for any other purpose, "L;" to move or march, "M;" to face about and change direction of movement, "F;" to halt, "H;" to sit, "S." In all cases the signal is the initial letter of the word of command. Preparatory to marching, some measures may be counted that shall indicate the desired speed, thus: 1, 2; 1, 2; 1, 2; 1, M."

Corporal punishment.—This may be resorted to in extreme cases, and but a single caution is needed. Let it be inflicted at some fixed time, long enough after the offence to allow time for calm and sober reflection on the part of both teacher and pupil. The necessity for it may have passed before the time arrives, in voluntary confession of wrong on the part of the pupil or it may be of the teacher, (for it is possible that the teacher may be wrong,) or in the discovery of some substitute that may serve the same purpose with better effect upon both pupil and teacher. Confession of wrong done, never should weaken the respect of the teacher for the pupil, and will never weaken the authority of the teacher who may have erred. All punishments which inflict bodily pain must be considered as corporal punishments. Punishment should never be inflicted upon the head of a child or in the vicinity of any of the more exposed vital organs. It should always be reasonable and adapted to the offence committed. If any teacher cherish the laudable purpose to govern without corporal punishment, it is better that such purpose be kept a secret from the pupils. No good can come from telling the pupils of such a purpose, and much harm may result.

FIFTH GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Review of previous grades; weights and measures; rectangular and spherical solids.

Morals and manners.

Reading and spelling.—First half of Third Reader read and reviewed, with close attention to punctuation, definitions and illustrations; frequent exercises in enunciation; spelling both by letters and by sounds from Speller half through dissyllabic words, and from reading lessons.

Sentence making.—Applying rules of punctuation, with use of capitals.

Drawing with slate or lead pencil, using cuts from books, drawing cards and other copies.

Writing with ink.

Mental arithmetic to where Arabic characters are introduced; exercises in reading and writing Arabic numbers to 1,000,000, and Roman numerals to 2,000; exercises in combining series of numbers.

Abbreviations reviewed.

Singing.

Primary geography through the United States, with map drawing.

Declamations and recitations.

Physical exercises from two to four minutes at a time, not less than four times a day.

§ 50. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Review of oral course of previous grades.—This review is designed to be general, but it should be thorough. Under three different heads it may be brought up:

1. Animals; their classification, their parts, the form and structure of each of the classes, their modes of life, their weapons of warfare and of defence, their intelligence, sagacity or ferocity, their covering or clothing, their uses, the modes of their capture, and anecdotes respecting them.

2. Vegetables, including flowers, plants, shrubs and trees, grains and garden vegetables, their method of growth and their uses, the uses of their different parts, as roots, stems, leaves, &c., &c.

3. Miscellaneous, (a,) trades, tools and materials. This review may be best conducted by selecting objects, and learning from the pupils the different materials used in their structure, the tools employed in shaping the materials, and the different tradesmen employed in their manufacture. (b,) Articles eaten and worn; reviewed by visiting in imagination some large hotel and examining the food eaten by its guests, and the articles of dress worn by them, or taking real and common life as seen every day by the pupils. (c,) Lines, angles and figures, reviewed in drawing lessons, or in examining the objects of the school-room as to their form.

This review may be connected with sentence making.

Weights and measures.—The child will here be required to estimate both weights and measures. Each school should be furnished with standards of comparison, so that the accuracy of the child's knowledge may be tested. So far as measures are concerned, the most convenient standard may be made out of a pointer, by putting brass tacks with small heads at distances of one inch, three inches, six inches, nine inches or one-quarter yard, one foot, one-half yard and one yard from the end, or small sticks of various lengths may be used. Children should be required to draw lines of different lengths and apply the measure after they have been drawn. So may lines or figures of certain lengths or surfaces be divided evenly or unevenly, always applying the test after the work has been done.

Spherical and rectangular solids.—These may embrace the sphere, the cylinder and the cone; the prism, the pyramid, the cube and the parallelopiped. Further than these there seems but little necessity for carrying the exercise until geometry is studied as a science.

§ 51. READING.

Every good reader aims first to comprehend the thoughts of the author he reads, and then to convey to others an intelligible idea of the author's meaning. The training of the pupil in reading, therefore, involves two distinct and yet inseparable kinds of instruction. Mental discipline and vocal discipline must be carried along together. Thought and its expression must be considered at one and the same time. Some thought may be expressed by any sort of utterance, but the thought of the author requires vocal organs under complete subjection to the understanding. To read well, one must know what he is reading, and must have such complete mastery of his vocal organs as to make them faithful servants ready to do his bidding without mistake of any kind. No dull, listless, unthinking scholar can ever become a good reader. The teacher's first work is to awaken thought. Something the child can understand should be selected as a reading lesson. It is not necessary that the lesson selected be one already understood; it should be one in advance of the child's present ability, but within the reach of his comprehension. We oftener underrate than overrate the ability of pupils, while the reverse is true as regards their actual growth or progress.

Children who become expert in the utterance of sentences that contain no thought make no mental progress. There must be obstacles thrown in the child's path, or he will gain no strength. If all be levelled and smoothed for him, his monotonous style of reading is but the outgrowth of an inactive, sluggish mind. The teacher should bring the pupil into the face of the difficulties in his lesson, and encourage him to battle, rallying him again and again, if need be, to the contest, until victory crowns his efforts.

To test the accuracy of the child's knowledge of what he reads, he should be encouraged to read sentences, substituting for some selected words, words of his own choosing, that shall change the form but not the meaning of the passage. This exercise may embrace at first but a single word in each sentence, and then may be extended as the capacity of the pupil may seem to warrant, until nearly or quite all the words are changed. In the more advanced classes, poetical selections may be changed into prose. While the definitions given by the author should not be neglected, the child should be encouraged as far as possible to give definitions of his own, and should be permitted, as indicated above, to put his definitions into the place of the words defined, and then to read the sentences he has changed. This test may be still further extended by requiring the pupil to embody the selected words in sentences of his own construction.

If the teacher finds difficulty in securing proper expression in any particular case, the remedy may be found in asking a question, the proper answer to which would be the difficult passage, and in requiring the pupil to give the passage as an answer to the questions asked.

The voice of the teacher should be frequently heard in every reading exercise, as an example for the scholars to imitate. If any teachers are conscious of imperfect articulation or expression, they should seek every means of correction within their reach.

There are those who have superior ability and success as teachers of reading, whose methods and whose experience may be made available by those of less experience or less success. In this branch more than in any other, models may be safely followed. Teachers may learn, as their pupils must learn, by imitating good models. Mere repetition of a badly read sentence does no good, unless the fault be distinctly marked out, and the correct reading be given by the teacher, or by some member of the class who has mastered the difficulty. Good readers in a class may be permitted to give the model. This course often secures the desired result sooner than any other.

Too much concert reading leads to the formation of bad habits, and to the cultivation of unnatural tones of voice. The forward raise their voices to an unnatural key lest their superior reading should not be heard, while the diffident and distrustful drop their voices into a lower than natural key, lest they should make some mistake and mar the general effect, and the lazy move their lips that they may appear to read, while not a sound escapes their moving lips. Concert reading should not be discarded, but should be carried just so far as it can be done without encouraging monotonous and measured reading. Short sentences are much better for concert practice than long ones, since they do not require measured divisions. Every teacher should make strenuous effort to secure good reading of a whole class in concert, but should check such reading the instant it falls into measured monotone, or develops in any pupil unnatural tones of voice. The advantages of concert reading will not pay for a single bad habit formed by its careless use. The attention of the class may be kept by other methods, one of which is of importance in other recitations as well—that is calling upon scholars out of their regular order of standing or sitting, and if need be, calling upon the same person two or three times, until the impression that he will be called on but once is entirely dissipated. Answers to general questions connected with reading lessons may be given in concert. The enunciation of elemental sounds may also be given in concert. Poetical selections, which are already measured, may be read in concert with less difficulty and with less danger than prose.

While a class is engaged in reading, the undivided attention of the teacher should be given to it. If the attention of the teacher be called away necessarily, the exercise should be suspended.

Children should be encouraged to criticise each other fairly and justly. Raising the hand during the progress of the reading should not be allowed, but at its close those who have noticed errors should have an opportunity of correcting them, provided always that the critic can illustrate his own criticism. This should be occasionally tested.

An excellent teacher gives as the result of her experience this important caution, "Children must be taught to open their mouths before they can become good readers." The importance and value of this suggestion are fully confirmed by the experience of all good teachers, and this introduces also the important topic of distinct articulation.

Frequent exercises, varied according to the advancement of pupils, in the utterance of elementary sounds, single and combined, should be most faithfully attended to. This may be more fully treated under the instructions with reference to the several grades. While good articulation is not the end of reading, it is an essential means, and one without which the true end—expression of thought—can never be attained.

There is no fault more common in reading than that of stumbling, hesitating, catching and repeating. It is but one fault and teachers should use every effort to break it up. The moment the child shows the first symptoms, his case should be carefully but immediately considered, and strict attention at once given to its cure. It sometimes arises from the child's vocal organs getting the start of his thoughts, and should be cured by a little hard study, until the pupil becomes familiar enough with the thought to have his mind keep ahead of his voice. It sometimes arises from pure carelessness and its cure needs no mention. It often arises from the use of books in advance of the child's capacity, so that reading becomes mere utterance without so much as a thought creeping in even behind a word uttered. The case suggests its own remedy. It sometimes arises from indulgence in a similar habit in all

other recitations. Whatever its cause, its cure must be certain, or no progress is made, but on the other hand constant retrogression.

§ 52. SPELLING.

In conducting oral exercises in spelling, pupils should pronounce each word distinctly before spelling it, and they should never be allowed to try twice on a word. Whenever a pupil misses a word, let him afterwards be required to spell it correctly. This may be done as soon as the correction is made in the class, or deferred till the close of the recitation.

An excellent plan is for the teacher to pay no apparent attention to the misspelling, but pronounce the next word in order, and so on until some pupil who has noticed the error spells the misspelled word instead of the one pronounced for him by the teacher, and for this correction he should receive some credit, either by going above all whom the word has passed and the one who first misspelled it, or by changing places with the one who committed the error, or if no change of place be allowed, by some mark of credit. The teacher should in all cases keep track of the misspelled words and see that they are not entirely passed over.

In all cases of a misspelled word under this practice, each pupil who has allowed the word to pass him should be required to spell it correctly before the recitation closes, if there be time, if not, at the next recitation.

In giving out the words to a class, teachers sometimes commit the error of departing from the ordinary pronunciation, for the sake of indicating the orthography. Thus in the word *variance*, the vowel in the second syllable is given very distinctly as long *i*, to show that the letter is *i* and not *e*. The words should in all cases be pronounced according to the standard dictionary used in the schools.

As pupils are constantly liable to misunderstand the pronunciation of words, it is a very useful practice, in all written exercises, to call on some pupil in the back part of the room to repronounce each word distinctly, as soon as it is pronounced by the teacher.

Special attention should be given to syllabication, in connection with oral spelling. Pupils should syllabicate in all cases, as in the following example: *a-m am, p-l-i pli, ampli, f-y fy, amplify*. Nor should there be the least deviation from this rule in cases where the syllable contains but a single letter, as in *element—e-l el, e e, ele, m-e-n-t ment, element*. The reason for this will be specially apparent in words in which the sound of the syllable is not the same as the sound of the name of the letter.

Syllabication in written spelling has but one use, that of determining the place of division of words when a word occupies parts of two lines. With present practice this is of such rare occurrence that it does not compensate for the time spent in syllabication, nor does it warrant the unnatural appearance of words so divided. Besides, any person having learned syllabication in connection with oral spelling need never make mistakes in writing, where the necessity of dividing words arises.

Teachers should bear constantly in mind, that unless habits of correct spelling are formed early, there is very little probability that they will ever be acquired.

However thorough the drill in spelling may be, from the lessons of the speller and reader, every teacher should have frequent and copious exercises in spelling words from other sources. These should be words in common use, chosen, as far as possible, from the range of the pupil's observation, including the new words that arise in object lessons, and in geography, arithmetic, grammar, &c. The more difficult of these words should be written in columns on the blackboard, and studied and reviewed with the same care as lessons from the speller and reader. Failures in spelling these words should be marked with errors, the same as failures in any other lessons.

Teachers should put forth their best efforts, especially in primary classes, to secure the attention of the pupils, and render the lessons as interesting as possible. Occasional exercises in "choosing sides," when properly conducted, may be made highly useful. The exercise of "spelling down" a class may be resorted to occasionally with good effect.

If a teacher finds at any time, while conducting an oral exercise in spelling, that a portion of his class are becoming listless, he can easily recall their attention by the following simple measure: The whole class pronounces distictly the word given by the teacher, as *notation*; then one scholar says *n*; the next *o*; the next pronounces the syllable *no*; the next says *t*; the next *a*; the next *ta*; the next *nota*; the next *t*; the next *i*; the next *o*; the next *n*; the next *tion*; then the whole class pronounce the word *notation*.

Another useful method is to read a sentence of reasonable length, and require the members of a class to spell the words in order; the first scholar spelling the first word, the next scholar the second, and so on to the end.

Pupils may be allowed to select words for each other's spelling, confining them to the last lesson in geography, arithmetic, history or grammar. The first in the class pronounces a word for the second to spell, and the second for the third, and so on, the last pronouncing a word for the first. The scholar who fails to pronounce his word properly, or to spell correctly the word given him should take his seat at once, and the one standing longest on the floor be declared the victor.

No exercise can be more frequently varied than this with profit to the pupil.

In all written exercises the spelling should be carefully scrutinized, and the misspelled

words given to the pupil or the class at the next exercise in written spelling. First make sure that pupils can spell correctly the words they have occasion to use, and after that words they may never use, if there be time. In written spelling it is better that the misspelled word should be rewritten correctly and in such a position that the false and true spelling may be seen at a glance.

In spelling, teachers should avoid the use of any unnatural tones of voice, and should pronounce the words as they would read them if they were reading aloud. This will secure the attention of the scholars better than it can be done by any other method.

§ 55. WRITING.

The use of the pen is first required in this grade. The points to be attended to are, the kind of pen used, the manner of holding the same, the precautions to be taken against soiling the fingers and blotting the paper, and the cleaning of the pen after its use. Each pupil should have a small piece of paper, upon which to try the pen before writing, also a blotter to keep under the hand while writing so that the paper may not become oily by the frequent passing of the hand over it. To secure neatness and uniformity, the teacher should direct all the movements of the class in writing, requiring all to write the same words at the same time, and allowing no rambling writing. If a pupil is absent upon any day set for writing, his book will show a complete blank for that day. The teacher may or may not give him permission to make up his loss, as the circumstances attending his absence may warrant.

Writing should be taught as a simultaneous class exercise, all the members of the class attending to the same thing at the same time.

In conducting exercises in writing, teachers should make constant use of the blackboard. Important letters and principles of the copy should be written on the board, both correctly and incorrectly, illustrating the excellencies to be attained and the errors to be avoided. Teachers who are not accustomed to this mode of illustrating will find that they can easily qualify themselves to introduce it.

Many teachers who excel in imparting a knowledge of other branches, teach penmanship only indifferently well. Teachers who have little taste for this exercise should discipline themselves to increased effort. Even a poor writer may make a good teacher of penmanship, and no one who attempts to teach writing is excusable for not teaching it successfully.

Exercises of special excellence should receive marks of special credit; and deficiencies resulting from carelessness or indifference should in all cases receive marks of error and affect the scholarship averages as much as failures in any other lessons.

Occasionally, in the higher grades, it may be well to place a copy on the blackboard, and require each pupil of the division to hand to the teacher, after so many minutes' practice, what he considers the best imitation of the copy. For this purpose the pupil should write upon slips of paper, the copy being written but once upon each slip, and then the slips being carefully compared, the one with which the pupil is best satisfied should be handed to the teacher for marking.

The practice of directing the movements of the class by counting is recommended. The pupils will thus write with greater care and precision while learning. Rapid writing must succeed slower movements if at all successful.

§ 56. NUMBERS.

A text-book in mental arithmetic is here introduced for the first time. Its proper use will be a topic for the teacher's instruction. As the exercise is purely a mental exercise, it is not well to allow the use of a book at recitation.

It is also designed that pupils in this grade learn enough of notation and of numeration to be able to read and write readily any numbers as far as 1,000,000. Frequent exercises should be given in this, both upon the board and upon the slate. When numbers are given for writing, a few may write upon the board, while all others write upon their slates. Columns of figures may be placed upon the board that pupils may practice addition of numbers of two or more figures; also, simple exercises in subtraction.

The Roman numerals need not be carried beyond 2,000, but the principles that underlie the arrangement of the letters used should be taught and mastered. To test the accuracy of the child's knowledge of these principles many examples may be given even unlike those found in actual practice.

§ 57. GEOGRAPHY AND MAP-DRAWING.

The facts of geography should be made attractive by many and simple illustrations. After a rain storm there may be found in the school-yard miniature representations of islands, capes, bays, rivers, isthmuses, straits, peninsulas, &c., &c. The child's capacity to estimate distances should be cultivated, so that he may expand the little miniature world before him in the playground into the real world.

Map-drawing should be confined to imitations of the maps before him, and credit should be given for a neat map of good proportions without reference to the scale upon which it is

drawn. The scale should be determined by the size of the paper or of the slate used. It is better, however, to enlarge than to diminish the scale of the map used as a copy, provided only that proper proportions be preserved.

In connection with this exercise let the following course be pursued, in addition to what was given under the head of measures in the oral course for this grade:

1. At a given signal let every member of the class draw on the blackboard or slate a continuous straight line, of any length, and in any direction; a second; a third; a fourth; a fifth. In the same manner let five dotted lines be drawn. At successive signals let all the pupils place 10 points on the slate or blackboard, without any reference to each other. Now let all the pupils draw a straight line between any two of these points. This exercise should be continued, at successive signals, till all the points are connected.

2. The second exercise consists in making the pupils familiar with the smaller units of length, which may be done by the use of the common foot measure. Let the class, at a given signal, draw lines one foot in length, and teacher and pupils test the accuracy of the work by applying the standard. After successful trials, represent combinations of the standard in lines of two and three feet. Now let the pupils apply these units to space and objects in the room.

Again, let the pupils draw lines one foot in length, and divide each line into two equal parts; each of these parts into two other equal parts, continuing the division till the line has been divided into inches. Having a clear idea of the above units, assume points at the distance of an inch, a foot, two feet, and a yard, and let them be connected first by continuous lines, and afterwards by dotted lines.

3. Let the pupils draw straight lines, of given lengths, in different directions, as vertical, horizontal, and oblique. These terms may be illustrated by reference to the walls and floor of the school room.

4. The class should be required to combine straight lines in the formation of triangles—right, acute, and obtuse-angled—quadrilaterals, and other rectilinear figures. After the first figure is drawn other similar figures may be inscribed or circumscribed at given distances.

5. Draw curves and parallel curves of different degrees of curvature, and at different distances.

6. Around a given point, as a centre, at a distance of one inch, let a circumference be drawn. Around the same centre, at the distance of two inches, a second circumference: at the distance of three inches, a third. In this manner let successive circumferences be drawn until the distance from the centre to the last is 12 inches. The exercise may be varied by increasing or diminishing the distances.

7. Let the above exercise be reversed.

8. The division of straight lines into equal parts by the application of a given scale, which should be represented on the board by each pupil.

9. The representation of the axes, poles, parallels, meridians, and zones of spheres of different diameters.

FOURTH GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Kinds and properties of matter; laws of motion; national flag; national and State coats of arms; metals and minerals; historical sketches, (King Philip, Columbus, Cortez, Pocahontas, Washington, Franklin.)

Morals and manners.

Primary geography completed and reviewed, with map-drawing.

Construction of sentences, with oral lessons in English grammar.

Third Reader completed, with close attention to punctuation, definitions, illustrations, and to elementary sounds.

Written and oral spelling, with definitions from Speller through dissyllables, and from reading lessons.

Drawing.

Singing.

Writing.

Mental arithmetic, from the 5th grade half through to tables.

Slate arithmetic to fractions; exercises in combining series of numbers.

Declamations and recitations.

Physical exercises, from two to four minutes at a time, not less than three times a day.

§ 58. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Kinds and properties of matter.—Define and illustrate the three general classes of matter—solids, liquids, and gases. Define and illustrate their essential properties—extension, impene-

trability, weight or gravity, and divisibility. A few other prominent properties of matter, such as elasticity, malleability, ductility, &c., should be illustrated. Inertia should be quite fully discussed and its laws thoroughly understood.

Laws of motion.—Attention should be given mainly to the laws of falling bodies; to the effects produced on the motion of bodies acted upon by more than a single force; to the centripetal and centrifugal forces; and to the manifold cases of resultant motion, found in all cases of sailing a boat, flying a kite, rowing, flying, swimming, &c., &c.

Metals and minerals.—What is the difference between a metal and a mineral? Which are the precious metals? Which the most useful of the metals? Which the heaviest? Which is a fluid?

Object lessons on iron, zinc, tin, copper, lead, mercury, silver, gold; on steel, brass, pewter, &c.

Of mineral substances the more common may be presented, and object lessons given upon lime, chalk, sand, clay, coal, peat, bricks, gravel, and some of the stones used by jewelers, &c.

National and State coats of arms.—This topic will be confined to the coats of arms of the United States and of Illinois, their form, design, and meaning.

The national flag.—Its history, design, and significance.

Historical sketches.—It is not desirable in these sketches that all the points touched by historians be brought out. In the sketches given of individuals, let the following points be made prominent: when and where born, early advantages and how improved, early trials and how overcome, one or two anecdotes of early history that have had a marked bearing upon the life of the man, what noteworthy acts have rendered the character famous? what traits of character are worthy of our imitation? where and when did they die?

Under the head of early advantages or early trials will come the home influences, the school privileges, and the associates of the child. Such facts should be gathered as would naturally interest children, and awaken just enough curiosity to lead the child to seek for further information in the histories within his reach. The child should be made to feel that the individual whose character he studies had a real and a human existence; that he was like men now-a-days in many, if not all, respects; and that a reproduction of the same character, though living in different times, and of course doing different things, is possible. There are boys living who will bear the same relation to the times in which they live as did Columbus, Cortez, Washington, or Franklin to the times in which they lived. They will not do the same things, but they may do things as important.

§ 59. GEOGRAPHY, WITH MAP-DRAWING.

See § 57, and, in extending the rules there laid down for map-drawing, the following will be serviceable for this grade:

1. Representation of familiar surfaces with objects on them, as the school-room, playgrounds, and fields.
2. Representation of mountains.
3. Representation of rivers.
4. Representation of coast lines.

All the foregoing exercises should be repeated till a high degree of accuracy is secured. It is important that the first nine exercises should be performed simultaneously by all the members of the class.

In the progress of every successive lesson the teacher should call in the aid of association, by naming the products and staple commodities of the several States, historical facts, remarkable curiosities, high mountains, manufactories, &c., occasionally naming each, separately. Say: this is a lumber State, this is a wheat State, cotton State, sugar, tobacco, rice, &c.; here is gold, lead, iron, &c. Then, pointing, review interrogatively: what State? its capital, rivers, mountains? what productions here? what is this? this? &c.

§ 64. WRITTEN ARITHMETIC.

As stated in a previous section, the greatest difficulty in the path of a pupil is to acquire facility in the application of principles learned to examples of varied form and phraseology. The teacher should therefore study to present examples in great variety of form, still involving the principle underlying the lesson. Questions should be varied in form, even though the same answer be required, until the pupil forgets formulas and lays fast hold of principles. This will require time, patience, and a great deal of ingenuity on the part of the teacher. Pupils should always receive some credit for correct analysis and correct reasoning, even if the answer be wrong. It is better to have correct reasoning and a wrong answer than correct answers with no reasoning at all. The best thing of all is correct answers, obtained by a correct process of reasoning. The process by which the result is to be obtained should be called for frequently during a recitation; and in all cases where a new example is given, some pupil of the class should be required to give the process of solution. The thorough training of pupils in the earlier stages of study, especially in mathematics, saves much time in the future.

THIRD GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Air, water, respiration, circulation, digestion; national and State governments; seven wonders of the world; historical sketches—Socrates, Cæsar, Mohammed, Cromwell, Peter the Great.

Morals and manners.

Geography, through western States, with map-drawing.

First half Fifth Reader, with punctuations, definitions, illustrations, and elementary sounds.

Written and oral spelling, with definitions from Speller through trisyllables.

Writing.

Singing.

Mental arithmetic, to tables.

Grammar, through pronouns, with lessons in the use of language to follow oral exercises in grammar.

Written arithmetic, from fractions through the book; exercises in combining series of numbers.

Declamations and recitations.

Physical exercises, from two to four minutes at a time, not less than three times a day.

§ 65. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Air and water.—Component elements of air, of water; proportion of oxygen and nitrogen in the air; relation of oxygen to life, to combustion; most abundant of all known substances; properties of nitrogen, of hydrogen; weight of hydrogen.

Four or more lessons on the common properties and uses of water; hard and soft water; water of the ocean, &c.

Simple experiments, illustrating the pressure of the air, may be performed in the presence of the class. Fill a tumbler perfectly full of water, place over its top a piece of writing-paper larger than the top of the tumbler, and then, pressing down the palm of the hand upon the paper, raise and invert the tumbler and remove the hand; the pressure of the air upward will prevent the water from falling out. Take a quarter of a dollar, or any metal of like shape, cut a piece of paper of the same size, and, holding them apart from each other, drop them to the floor—the metal will fall the quickest; but place the paper exactly upon the metal and let them drop, they will fall in the same time, the money having removed the pressure of the air from beneath the paper. A glass tube may be placed in water and the mouth applied to the upper end; by drawing in the air the water will rise, owing to the downward pressure of the air upon the water outside the tube. Take a bent tube, fill it with water, and close one end with the thumb while the effort is made to draw up the water at the other end, and the effort will prove futile until the thumb be removed. Insert an open tube in a vessel of water, and, closing the upper end with the thumb, remove the tube, and the water will remain in the tube.

Respiration, circulation, and digestion.—Very much instruction upon the laws of hygiene should be given at all times throughout the entire course. Here, as elsewhere, attention should be paid to the posture of children, to their cleanliness, to their habits of dress, of eating, and of sleeping. But in this grade special attention should be given to the organs of respiration, circulation, and digestion: the lungs, the heart, the stomach, and the following more specific topics: mastication, the teeth, saliva, digestion, chyme, chyle, nutrition, the blood, blood-vessels, structure and office of the heart, circulation of the blood through the system, impurities, waste of the system, how repaired, proper and improper food, eating too much, too fast, too often, late in the evening, irregularity of meals, dyspepsia, alcoholic drinks.

Structure and office of the lungs, respiration, capacity of the lungs, exercises for their healthy development, obstructed action, dangerous habits of bending over desks, process of purifying the blood, different colors; carbonic acid of the breath, how formed, amount, composition of carbonic acid, weight, relation to life, experiment of a lighted candle in air that has been held in the lungs a few seconds; carbonic acid in wells, burning charcoal in a close room; carbonic acid in the stomach, soda fountains, raising bread; ventilation, inhalation of gas, and its deleterious effects.

Seven wonders of the age.—1, Egyptian pyramids; 2, Mausoleum erected by Artemisia; 3, Colossus at Rhodes; 4, Statue of Jupiter Olympus; 5, Pharos at Alexandria; 6, Wall and hanging gardens of Babylon; 7, Temple of Diana at Ephesus. Some brief account of each of these should be given, and a longer account of 1, 6, and 7.

National and State governments.—The following topics should be presented; 1, the executive branch, name, mode of election, and length of time of office; 2, the legislative branch, the two divisions, their names, modes of election of members of each, and time of service of each; 3, judicial branch, the names and relation of the different courts to each other.

Historical sketches.

§ 66. GEOGRAPHY AND MAP-DRAWING.

In addition to instructions given upon the subject of map-drawing for other and lower grades, the following suggestions are valuable:

Select a county or State having regular outlines. Select a scale with some convenient unit of measure. After determining the position of the cardinal points, draw dotted lines at right angles to each other, one representing the central meridian, the other the central parallel. Apply the scale to the meridian as many times as the distance represented by it is contained in the distance between the north and south points of the country to be drawn. Through the points of division draw dotted lines at right angles to the meridian, which will represent parallels of latitude. Apply in like manner to the central parallel such part of the scale as a degree of longitude is of a degree of latitude. Through the points of division draw dotted lines at right angles to the parallel. These will represent meridians. Designate the parallels and meridians by numbers expressing the position of points or places through which they pass, learned from an atlas.

The frame of the map being complete, represent by dots the prominent points of the boundary, the latitude and longitude of which have been previously learned. Having fixed in the mind the nature and direction of the boundary line it should be drawn wholly from memory. The boundary completed, the most prominent natural features should be represented.

The pupil now has before him a map of his own construction, in which he cannot fail to be interested.

The use of the globe should be introduced in this connection, showing the rotundity of the earth, rotation on its axis, day and night, poles, equator, parallels of latitude, meridians of longitude, tropics, polar circles, zones, points of the compass at any given place, the continents, oceans, and relative position of places, situation of the United States, of Illinois, of Chicago, and relative size of each.

Similar illustrations should be constantly given with the globe in connection with the recitations from the text-book, and no definition should be passed by till the teacher has satisfactory evidence that the pupils understand clearly the object described.

Lessons in geography should be accompanied by brief historical sketches of important events connected with the different countries, and by some allusions to ancient geography, and the changes through which the countries have passed in their governments, boundaries, &c.

One of the most common faults in teaching geography is the practice of requiring pupils to learn the names of a large number of unimportant places, the exact population of unimportant cities, &c., &c.

§ 70. GRAMMAR.

The text-book is introduced into this grade for the first time. It is not desirable that all the critical observations pertaining to the science should be studied by the pupil, at least not until a later period, when the whole subject is reviewed. Practice is worth more than precept in this study. Hence illustrative exercises of the rules given, especially in connection with the errors noticed in the every-day conversation of the children, will be of great value. Besides the words given in the grammar, many other words of common use should be declined, conjugated, or compared, until the pupil forms the habit of correct language. If the study of grammar be extended so that what is learned then is applied to all the speaking and writing of the child, it will be less dry and more valuable. Every recitation should include the use of language.

SECOND GRADE.

Oral course.—Electricity and magnetism; sound; light; heat; historical sketches, (Demosthenes, Cicero, Tell, Webster, Calhoun, and Clay.)

Morals and manners.

Grammar to rules of syntax.

Compositions, abstracts, and written reviews.

Geography, to Asia and reviewed.

Map-drawing from memory.

History of the United States to the Revolution.

Fifth Reader completed, with punctuation, definitions, illustrations, and elementary sounds.

Written and oral spelling, with definitions from Speller, half through polysyllabic words, and from reading lessons.

Writing.

Singing.

Mental arithmetic completed.

Slate arithmetic, from beginning through simple interest; exercise in combining series of numbers.

Declamations and recitations.

Physical exercises, from two to four minutes at a time, not less than three times a day.

§ 72. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Electricity and magnetism.—Illustrate the production of electricity, and properties of attraction and repulsion, by a rubber ruler rubbed briskly with a piece of woollen cloth. Conductors and non-conductors, lightning and lightning-conductors, Franklin's kite.

Properties of the magnet. Magnetic needle, mariner's compass, horseshoe magnet, telegraph.

Upon these topics what is needed is to call the attention of the child to the phenomena of nature, and to draw the lessons from these rather than from any scientific treatise. In the matter of electricity, the flying apart of the hair when combed briskly in cold weather, the effect of water in making it smooth, the effects of strokes of lightning upon objects that the children have seen; and in magnetism the use of the magnetic tack-hammer, the effect of a magnet as shown upon a little pocket compass, &c., will interest and profit the pupils more than merely scientific treatises. What is done is first to be learned. The theories regarding the methods may be neglected until the science is studied more fully.

Sound.—How produced; illustrate by stretched cord or some other vibrating body; action on the ear; high and low sounds, how produced; relation of the air to sound; velocity of sound; the human voice; varieties of the human voice; name twenty different kinds of sounds. Echoes; whispering gallery; ear-trumpet. Musical instruments; bells.

Light.—Luminous bodies; velocity of light; difference between the light of the sun and that of the moon; laws of reflection—mirrors; refraction (experiment with a piece of money in a bowl of water;) action of the microscope and telescope; solar spectrum; rainbow; structure and action of the eye; danger of injuring the eyes from excessive use, from imprudent exposure to light, from reading in twilight, from reading fine print; danger of allowing young children to look steadily at a light; average distance at which a book should be held from the eye; effect of holding a book too near the eye; how cats and other animals see in the night; cause of color; twilight.

Heat.—In expanding the following topics, explain and apply the principles, and illustrate them as far as practicable: Sources of heat; sensations of heat and cold; burning-glasses; good and poor conductors; different kinds of clothing; double windows; ice-houses; use of a fan; protection of the ground by snow. Contraction and expansion; putting tire on a wheel; fire-balloons; thermometer; glass cracked by hot water; why clocks go faster in cold weather than in warm; how to regulate a pendulum clock when it gains or loses time. Freezing water; heat absorbed by change from solid to liquid state, and from liquid to gaseous; freezing mixture of salt and ice; cooling a heated room by sprinkling water on the floor. Boiling water; how the force of steam is produced. Flame, how produced; carbon; flame of a candle, why no combustion in the centre; wick, why not consumed; use of circular wick in astral and solar lamps; use of glass chimney; of small hole in top of lamp; gas used in lighting buildings; use of a blower in kindling a fire; action of a common chimney; proper construction; advantages of stoves as compared with open fire-places; disadvantages.

§ 76. GEOGRAPHY.

One of the best modes of reciting history, geography, &c., is by the use of topics. Thus, in geography, a pupil passes to an outline map, drawn on the blackboard, with a set of topics in his hand, as boundaries, rivers, mountains, climate, surface, soil, productions, commerce, &c., and proceeds to describe the country assigned, stating all he recollects under each topic. When his description is completed, other members of the class are called on for corrections and additions, and the teacher makes such suggestions as the case may require. This mode of reciting by topics leaves the pupils in a great degree to their own resources, secures a more thorough and systematic preparation of the lessons, and furnishes important aid in imparting that discipline of mind which is more valuable than knowledge. It will be found particularly adapted to reviews.

Map-drawing.—See §§ 57, 66, and, in addition, note carefully the following illustration: The pupils are required to draw a map of Europe, the most irregular and difficult of all the grand divisions. The pupils having been carefully drilled in the application of latitude and longitude, and in the relative length of a degree of longitude in different latitudes, the following prominent points in the boundaries of Europe should be written by the teacher on the blackboard and copied by the pupils into a blank book for preservation, to be committed to memory in lessons of five or ten each, according to the ability of the class, commencing at—

	Latitude.		Longitude.	
North Cape	71°	N.	26°	E.
The Naze	58	"	7	"
Tornea	66	"	24	"
St. Petersburg	60	"	30	"
Lubeck	54	"	11	"
Mouth of the Elbe	54	"	9	"
Brest	48	"	4½	W.
Bayonne	43	"	1½	"
Ortegal	44	"	8	"
Straits of Gibraltar	36	"	5	"
Genoa	44½	"	9	E.
Cape Spartivento	38	"	16	"
Venice	45½	"	12	"
Cape Matapan	36	"	22	"
Constantinople	41	"	29	"
Sebastopol	44	"	33	"
Intersection of Caucasus mountains and Caspian sea	40½	"	50	"
Northeast point of Ural mountains	67	"	60	"
Mouth of Ural river	47	"	52	"
Mouth of Volga river	46	"	48	"

The above points are deemed sufficiently accurate for practical purposes, differing from the true position less than one half of a degree.

Teachers will increase or diminish the number of points at their discretion; but care should be taken not to burden the memory with more numbers than are really necessary to secure accuracy in the form of the map. Some teachers would have more points fixed in the map of Europe than the number here given. Very few maps require more than half as many points as the map of Europe. By making a few trials teachers will readily ascertain how many points it is best to fix in the memory by latitude and longitude, and how far it is best to rely upon general recollection in giving the direction of coast lines.

Suppose the first lesson be a map of the coast line from Cape North to St. Petersburg. The points essential to this exercise are Cape North, the Naze, Tornea, and St. Petersburg.

The latitude and longitude of the points having been learned, recitation may be required in the following manner:

Cape North is situated 71° N., 26° E. The general direction of the coast line is southwesterly to The Naze at the south point of Norway, with many small indentations; thence northeasterly to Christiana, coast line regular; thence southeasterly to the most southern point of Sweden, very regular. The position of the remaining points and the regularity and direction of the coast line should be learned and recited in a similar manner.

The class is now prepared to draw. First, each pupil draws upon the board a vertical line called the scale, representing 5° or 10° of latitude, according to the size of the map. A dotted vertical line should now be drawn representing the central meridian in Europe, the 20th degree. Supposing our scale to represent 5° of latitude, the most southerly point being about 35°, the most northerly 70°, the difference will contain seven spaces of 5° each; hence there will be eight parallels. Now divide the meridian into seven equal parts, each equal in length to the scale assumed, and draw dotted curved lines through the points of division, representing parallels of latitude. Next draw the meridians. On the parallel of the 70th degree a degree of longitude is nearly one-third of a degree of latitude.

The most easterly point being in longitude 60°, and the most westerly nearly 10° W., there will be eight spaces and eight meridians east of the meridian of 20°, and two spaces and two meridians west of it.

Now set off on the parallel of 70° eight spaces, equal to one-third of the scale, east of the meridian of 20°, and two on the west. A degree of longitude on the parallel of 35° is four-fifths of a degree of latitude, nearly. Now proceed to lay off the same number of spaces as before, each being four-fifths of the scale, and connect the parallels of 70° and 35° with straight or curved dotted lines. The frame being completed, let the points learned and described be located with dots and connected with lines, in conformity with the description previously given. After the class has acquired the ability to represent with accuracy and rapidity the first lesson, another section of the boundary, together with that previously drawn, should be assigned for the next lesson. Let successive sections be assigned until the outline is completed. The teacher cannot over-estimate the value of rapid execution in map-drawing, which is attainable only by frequent reviews.

The mode of representing lakes, rivers, mountains and prominent towns will be readily suggested to the teacher.

§ 77. HISTORY.

Care should be taken that the memory of the child be not burdened with trifling and unimportant facts. The leading points should be seized upon and their relation to other leading facts be understood. The most prominent points in United States history should be asso-

ciated with dates. In regard to others, it matters but little whether the exact date be remembered.

§ 78. READING.

In this grade and in the first grade I would recommend the occasional practice of writing out the reading-lesson in full and of reading the same from the manuscript. The manuscripts should also be carefully examined as to chirography, spelling, punctuation, margin, and general divisions of the lesson into paragraphs.

FIRST GRADE.

Oral instruction.—Geology, meteorology, popular astronomy, historical sketches, (Babylon, Nineveh, Herculaneum, and Pompeii, Jerusalem, Athens, Carthage.)

Morals and manners.

Grammar completed, with parsing and analysis from reading book.

Composition, abstracts, and written reviews.

Geography completed and reviewed, with map-drawing from memory, and use of terrestrial globes.

History of United States completed and reviewed.

Sixth Reader, with explanations, illustrations, and analysis. Analysis of derivative and compound words, and a few selected rules of spelling. Speller completed.

Writing.

Singing.

Slate arithmetic completed and reviewed. Exercises in combining series of numbers.

Mental arithmetic reviewed, especially more difficult examples.

Declamations and recitations.

Physical exercises, from two to four minutes at a time, not less than three times a day.

§ 82. ORAL INSTRUCTION.

Geology.—Five or more oral lessons on the geological formation of the United States; coal fields; mineral ores; geology of Illinois; fossiliferous rocks.

Popular astronomy.—Ten or more elementary lessons. The earth, its size and motions. Changes of seasons, how caused; difference in the length of days and nights at different seasons of the year; length of the longest day at the equator; at the tropics; at the polar circles; at the poles. Tides. Solar system. The sun—its office, distance, magnitude, spots. The moon—its size, distance, telescopic appearance, different phases. Eclipse of the moon; of the sun. Name the planets in their order; relative size; satellites; rings of Saturn. Morning and evening stars; comets; fixed stars.

Teach the pupils to point out, in a clear night, five or more conspicuous constellations; five or more stars of the first or second magnitude; all the larger planets that are above the horizon.

Meteorology.—Six or more oral lessons on winds, clouds, fogs, dew, frost, moisture settling on a vessel of cold water in a warm room, rain, snow, hail, ice.

Historical sketches.—Their location, their present condition, their former importance, the character of their former inhabitants, and their modes of life as known from history or learned from their ruins, will furnish sufficient topics for study.

§ 83. GRAMMAR AND USE OF LANGUAGE.

At least half the time appropriated to grammar in the first grade should be spent in parsing and analysing select pieces from Milton, Pope, and other authors, embracing the different varieties of style. The extracts required for this purpose may be selected from the reading book.

No exercise should be regarded as complete and satisfactory that does not analyze the thought as well as the language of the writer.

Pupils of this grade should receive special instruction in letter writing, including the form and manner of beginning and ending, with the date, paragraphs, dividing between syllables at the end of the line, margin, folding, superscription, sealing, &c.

§ 84. USE OF GLOBES.

Pupils should receive so much instruction in the use of the terrestrial globe that they will be able to solve by it, before the class, not less than five common problems; as, to find the length of a degree of longitude at any given latitude; to find the hours of sunrise and sunset, and the length of day and night, at a given place on a given day; to find how long the sun shines without setting at any given place in the north frigid zone, and how long it is invisible, &c.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL—CHICAGO, 1867.

	Year.	First term.	Second term.	Third term.	
GENERAL COURSE.	1st	Algebra. German or Latin. Physical Geography.	Algebra. German or Latin. Physiology.	Algebra, reviewed. German or Latin, reviewed. Physical Geography and Physiology, reviewed.	Reading during first and second years. Drawing during second, third, and fourth years. Composition and Declamation during the entire course. Physical exercises through the course.
	2d	Geometry. German or Latin. Universal History.	Geometry. German or Latin. Universal History. Botany.	Geometry, reviewed. German or Latin, reviewed. Universal History, reviewed. Botany.	
	3d	Trigonometry and Surveying. German, or Latin, or French. Natural Philosophy. Rhetoric.	Astronomy. German, Latin, or French. Natural Philosophy. English Literature.	Trigonometry and Surveying, reviewed. German, Latin, or French, reviewed. Natural Philosophy and English Literature, reviewed.	
	4th	Chemistry. German, Latin, or Intellectual Philosophy. Constitution of United States.	Geology. German, Latin, or French. Bookkeeping. Political Economy.	Chemistry and Geology, reviewed. German, Latin, or French, reviewed. Bookkeeping. Political Economy and Mental Science, reviewed.	
CLASSICAL COURSE.	1st	Algebra. Harkness's First Latin Book. Physical Geography.	Algebra. Harkness's First Latin Book. Physiology.	Algebra, reviewed. Latin Reader. Physiology, reviewed. Physical Geography, reviewed.	Reading first and second years. Drawing second, third, and fourth years. Composition and Declamation throughen tire course. Classical Antiquities, Military Affairs, during second year. Classical Antiquities, Civil Affairs, during third year. Classical Antiquities, Mythology, during fourth year. Ancient Geography in connection with History and Literature of Greece and Rome. Physical exercises through the course.
	2d	Geometry. Latin Reader. Universal History.	Geometry. Cæsar. Universal History. Greek Reader.	Geometry, reviewed. Cæsar. Universal History. Greek Reader.	
	3d	Greek Reader. Cicero. Natural Philosophy.	Greek Reader. Cicero. English Literature.	Greek. Anabasis. Cicero, reviewed. Natural Philosophy, reviewed. English Literature reviewed.	
	4th	Greek. Anabasis. Virgil. Eclogues. Latin Prose.	Greek. Virgil. Æneid and Georgic's Latin Prose.	Review of Latin and Greek.	
NORMAL COURSE.	1st	Arithmetic. Algebra. Political Geography and Map Drawing. Geometry.	Grammar. Algebra. Geometry. Geography and Map Drawing.	Physical Geography. Botany. Outlines of General History.	Reading, Composition, Practice of Teaching, Singing, one lesson per week, all through entire course. Drawing, two lessons per week, last four terms. Theory of Teaching, last two terms. Physical exercises through the course.
	2d	Natural Philosophy. Physiology. Book keeping, half term. Rhetoric. Constitution United States. Principles of Government.	Natural Philosophy. Chemistry. Mental Philosophy.	Arithmetic, half term. Geography. Grammar. Astronomy.	

Since the foregoing selections from the Manual of Graded Course of struction for the Public Schools of Chicago were printed, the Superinadent has submitted a revision of the Course in some particulars, aich are given below.

The use of the Course for the past three years has shown some defects, of which the folving are the most prominent: 1. Too much has been required of pupils in nearly all the ıdes. 2. What we have been pleased to call the Oral Course has been too full and too ıch separated from other work. 3. The successive steps in some of the branches of ıdy have not been as evenly graded as is desirable. 4. The Course of Study has hardly t enough to the teacher, whereby individuality and tact can be developed. 5. Pupils have t had all the facilities that may consistently be given them in the grammar schools, for taining a knowledge of some of the more important English branches now pursued only the high school.

The course of study submitted meets the objections to the course now in use, and presents ese peculiar features:

1. It makes the instruction less theoretical and more practical: for example, a pupil ıving school at the end of the lowest grade will at least be able to write his own name; the end of the primary grades he will have a practical knowledge of the fundamental les of arithmetic, will be able to read tolerably well and to write a legible hand, and in ct he will have attained something useful in after life wherever he may be compelled to leave e school.

2. It requires a little less of the text-book and more of the teacher.

3. It calls for results and leaves methods to the judgment of the individual teacher.

I have endeavored to grade the studies to the average capacity of pupils, and to combine ings with their uses so as to interest pupils more and thereby secure better progress. In ustration I would call attention to the fact that spelling is to be associated with words used ı reading and in all departments of study; abbreviations are associated with spelling the ords abbreviated; intellectual and written arithmetic are carried along together; language graded from the lowest grade into and through the grammar grades.

That the comparison between the course herewith presented and the revised course adopted ı 1866 may be the more easily and properly made, permit me to suggest the following oints:

1. The order is somewhat varied in the grouping. Reading, spelling, grammar, and music re combined under the head of "Language and Vocal Culture;" arithmetic, written and ıental, under "Numbers:" writing and drawing are combined; geography and history are lassed together; and the "Miscellaneous list" includes the oral course with physical exerise, morals, and manners.

2. The Readers now in use are numbered differently from those used under the previous ourse:

Analytical First Reader corresponds to National Primer.
Analytical Second Reader corresponds to National First Reader.
Analytical Third Reader corresponds to National Second Reader.
Analytical Fourth Reader corresponds to National Third Reader.
Analytical Fifth Reader corresponds to Hillard's Fifth Reader.
Analytical Sixth Reader corresponds to Hillard's Sixth Reader.

3. The Spellers cannot be compared, as the one now in use differs entirely in design and plan from the previous one, and the Speller now used is graded to fit the topics of the "Miscellaneous Course."

4. The Arithmetics are the same as before, except Walton's primary and intellectual, which take the places of Emerson's Part and Colborn's Intellectual.

5. The Grammar for the higher grades remains the same, except in the amount required.

6. Should the board change text-books in any branch, the course may need revision so as to fit the books, though I have endeavored to fix the course, as far as possible, by topics, so as to make it fit any text-books.

The course as presented will require the pupil to be furnished with the following textbooks only, (all other topics will be taught orally, or from cards, charts, or maps, furnished the school:)

Tenth Grade.—None.
Ninth Grade.—First Reader.
Eighth Grade.—Second Reader.
Seventh Grade.—Third Reader, Speller, and Primary Arithmetic.
Sixth Grade.—Third Reader, Speller, Primary Arithmetic, Singing Book, Writing Book.
Fifth Grade.—Fourth Reader, Speller, Intellectual Arithmetic, Primary Geography, Singing Book, and Writing Book.
Fourth Grade.—Fourth Reader, Speller, Intellectual Arithmetic, Written Arithmetic, Rudiments, Primary Geography, Elementary Grammar, Singing Book, and Writing Book.
Third Grade.—Fifth Reader, Speller, Intellectual Arithmetic, Written Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, Singing Book, and Writing Book.

Second Grade.—Fifth Reader, Speller, Intellectual Arithmetic, Written Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History of United States, Singing Book, and Writing Book.
First Grade.—Fifth Reader, Speller, Intellectual Arithmetic, Written Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History of United States, Singing Book, and Writing Book.
High School Class.—Sixth Reader, Higher Arithmetic, Elementary Algebra, Grammar, Physical Geography, Physiology, Singing Book.

REVISED COURSE OF STUDY.

TENTH GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—*Reading* from cards and from blackboard, 100 words, both printed and script. Special attention to tones in reading, spelling and reciting. *Music*—Reading and rote songs. *Spelling*—Words learned orally.
Numbers.—Counting, reading, and writing numbers to 100.
Writing and Drawing.—Each child write his own name and the words learned from cards and blackboards. Drawing simple forms directed by the teacher.
Miscellaneous.—*Morals and Manners*, as occasions may suggest or necessity require. *Physical Exercises*, frequent, varied and brief. Human body and its parts. Five senses, their organs and use. Common objects with more observable properties.
No text-books required. Just before promotion to the Ninth Grade, pupils may have the First Reader put into their hands until they become familiar with the methods of holding, finding, and keeping the place while reading. The place to be found by pages and not by lessons.

NINTH GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—*Reading* from the First Reader, also 50 new words found in the Second Reader, both printed and script. Meaning and use of period, interrogation mark, and hyphen. Distinction between an assertion and a question, with proper inflections at the close of each. *Spelling* by sound monosyllabic words without silent letters; spelling words read, (orally.) *Music*—Reading and rote singing.
Numbers.—Reading and writing numbers to 1,000. Addition and subtraction tables to 5s. Adding columns of single figures, sum not exceeding 15, or any two numbers of not more than three figures, such that the sum of no two figures of the same order shall exceed 9. Rapid combinations in adding and subtracting, in no case exceeding 15. Roman numerals to L.
Writing and Drawing.—*Writing* words from reading lessons, small letters. *Drawing* simple forms directed by the teacher.
Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in the Tenth Grade. Physical exercises as in the Tenth Grade. Domestic animals. Primary colors. Three kingdoms of nature.
No text-book required except the First Reader.

EIGHTH GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—Second Reader. Comma, semicolon, and colon, without rules. Exclamation point and its use. Use of capital letters at the commencement of sentences, and of names of persons, and the words I and O. *Spelling* by sound any monosyllabic words. Spelling words read, (orally.) *Music*—Reading and rote singing.
Numbers.—Reading and writing numbers to 10,000. Addition and subtraction tables completed. Adding numbers, sum not to exceed 10,000. Subtracting numbers of four figures or less, of such character that each figure of the minuend shall equal or exceed the corresponding figure of the subtrahend. Multiplication and division tables to 5s. Roman numerals to C. Rapid combinations in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, not exceeding 50.
Writing and Drawing.—*Writing* small letters and capitals, words from Reading Lessons. Drawing.
Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Divisions of time and their names, with proper abbreviations. Secondary colors. Wild animals.

SEVENTH GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—First half of Third Reader. Quotation marks and their use. Use of capitals in all proper names the pupils have occasion to write. Construction of simple sentences requiring the use of the period and interrogation point. *Spelling*—By sound, words in reading lessons except the most difficult. *Music*—Reading and rote singing. Spelling with use of the Speller. Abbreviation of words usually spelled, abbreviated.
Numbers.—Reading and writing numbers to 100,000. Multiplication and division tables completed. Addition and subtraction of numbers, sum or minuend not to exceed five figures. Multiplication of any number not exceeding four figures by any single figure. Division of

any number, each figure of which is an exact multiple of the divisor. Roman numerals to M. Rapid combinations in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, not exceeding 100. Primary arithmetic.

Writing and Drawing.—Writing words in reading and other lessons. Drawing from cards.

Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Lines and angles. Trades, tools and materials. Wild animals.

SIXTH GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—Third Reader completed. *Spelling*—By sounds any words read. Spelling, oral and written, from Speller, with abbreviations of such words in spelling lessons as are usually abbreviated. Definitions. Construction of sentences comprising words from spelling lessons, with special attention to the use of capitals and punctuation, as far as taught. *Music*—Reading.

Numbers.—Reading and writing numbers of two periods. Add, subtract, multiply, and divide so that the sum, minuend, product, or dividend shall not exceed two periods, multiplier two figures, divisor one figure. Rapid combinations. Primary arithmetic.

Writing and Drawing.—Use of copy-book, pen and ink in writing. Drawing from cards.

Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Articles eaten and worn. Plane figures, with review of lines and angles. Circle and its parts. Map of Chicago, with physical features of the American Continent, and use of terms defining divisions of land and of water, with simple illustrations. Definitions of words in lessons.

FIFTH GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—Fourth Reader, first half, and half of Introduction. Phonic Analysis, as given in the Reader, except written analysis. Construction of sentences as in the Sixth Grade, and written reviews, special attention being given to punctuation, capitals, and the proper use of pronouns. Definitions. *Spelling*—Oral and written, from Speller, with such abbreviations as are made of words Spelled. *Music*—Reading.

Numbers.—Reading and writing numbers to three periods. Addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; numbers in no case exceeding three periods; multiplier three figures; divisor one figure. Rapid combinations. Intellectual arithmetic.

Geography.—Primary geography, through the United States. Map drawing from copy.

Writing and Drawing.—Writing with ink in copy-book. Drawing from cards.

Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Classification of animals, trees, fruits, and flowers. Weights and measures. Definitions of words in lessons.

FOURTH GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—Fourth Reader completed. Phonic analysis from the Reader. Elementary Grammar, such as is generally found in Introduction to grammar. *Spelling*—Oral and written, with abbreviations of words usually abbreviated. Music. Declamations and recitations.

Numbers.—Rudiments of arithmetic to division of fractions; intellectual arithmetic; rapid combinations.

Geography.—Primary geography completed; map drawing from memory.

Writing and Drawing.—Writing in copy-books and writing-speller. Drawing from cards.

Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Kinds and properties of matter. Metals and metallic ores. Rectangular and spherical solids. Definitions of words in lessons.

THIRD GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—Fifth Reader, first half, and half of Introduction. Phonic analysis. Orthography and etymology in grammar. *Spelling*—Oral and written, from Speller, with abbreviations of words abbreviated. Declamations and recitations. *Music*—Reading.

Numbers.—Rudiments of arithmetic completed; intellectual arithmetic; rapid combinations.

Geography.—Geography through United States.

Writing and Drawing.—Writing in copy-books and writing-speller. Drawing from cards.

Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Air and water. Laws of motion. Definitions of words in lessons.

SECOND GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—Fifth Reader completed. Phonic analysis. Declamations and recitations. *Spelling*—Oral and written, from speller, with abbreviations of words that are abbreviated. Music. Grammar and syntax. Written abstracts.

Numbers.—Arithmetic, through simple interest. Intellectual arithmetic. Forms of bills and receipts. Rapid combinations.

Geography and History.—Geography to Asia. Map-drawing. History to J. Q. Adams's administration, beginning at the Revolution, with lessons on the government of the United States.

Writing and Drawing.—Writing in copy-book and writing-speller. Drawing from cards.

Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Respiration, circulation, and digestion. National and State governments. City government and officers. Definitions of words used in lessons.

FIRST GRADE.

Language and Vocal Culture.—Selections from Fifth Reader and other text-books. Phonic analysis. Declamations and recitations. *Spelling*—Oral and written, from the speller. *Grammar*—Analysis and parsing selections from Reader, with review. Epistolary composition. Music.

Numbers.—Arithmetic completed. Intellectual arithmetic. Rapid combinations. Forms of drafts, bills, promissory notes, checks, &c.

Geography and History.—Geography completed. Map-drawing. History completed and reviewed, except early settlements and colonial wars.

Writing and Drawing.—Writing in copy-books and in writing-speller. Drawing from cards.

Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Meteorology. Popular astronomy. Definitions of words used in lessons.

HIGH-SCHOOL CLASS.

Language and Vocal Culture.—Sixth Reader. Phonic analysis. Declamations and recitations. *Spelling*—Oral and written, from all the text-books. Rhetorical and grammatical analysis. Composition writing. Music.

Numbers.—Arithmetic, philosophy of; Algebra to Quadratics; Intellectual arithmetic.

Geography and History.—Physical Geography; Outlines of General History, with early settlements of the United States and colonial wars.

Writing and Drawing.—Writing in copy-book and in writing-speller. Drawing from cards.

Physiology.—Elementary.

Miscellaneous.—Morals and manners as in previous grades. Physical exercises as in previous grades. Elements of Philosophy, (sound, light, heat, electricity, and magnetism.) Geology, elements of. Definitions of words used in lessons.

EUROPEAN OPINIONS ON AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

To the foregoing outline of the systems of public schools in the chief cities of the United States; the statistical results as to the salaries of teachers, and cost generally; the digest of rules and regulations under which the system is administered; and the subjects, courses, and methods of instruction, to some extent, in the most advanced cities, we add the opinions expressed by intelligent observers from other countries as to the practical working of our city systems, as their observations are generally confined to public schools in a few of these cities. We shall begin with one of the most recent and most competent observers—Rev. James Fraser, of England, now bishop in the Established Church, in Manchester. Dr. Fraser is a graduate of the Public Grammar School at Shrewsbury and of the University of Oxford, an active promoter of national education in his own parish, one of the assistant commissioners who reported on the state of popular education in England in 1861, visited this country in 1865, and submitted a report on the results of his inquiries, which constitutes one of the 21 volumes issued by the School Inquiry Commission on Middle-Class Schools. No one could bring a better preparation in previous studies or in an unprejudiced spirit, or in a diligent use of his opportunities.

Report of Rev. James Fraser on American Schools.

In endeavoring to comprehend and appreciate this system of common or public schools—for the two epithets are used indifferently—it is absolutely necessary that the European observer should throw his mind, if possible, into the conditions of American life, should take his point of departure from a few leading social principles, and keep constantly before his eyes certain salient social phenomena, which have (so to speak) necessitated its form, give to it its significance, underlie its action, maintain its motive power, determine its methods, and fix its aims. The *principles* have been already referred to;* they are the principles of perfect social equality and absolute religious freedom.† The *phenomena* are the restlessness and activity of the American character,—without, perhaps, the culture and refinement of the old Athenian, but with all his versatility,—the absorbing interest of political life; the constantly rising aims of each individual; the ebb and flow of commercial enterprise, and the immense development of the spirit of speculation; the intense energy of the national temperament, its rapidity of movement, its precipitancy, its impatience of standing still. Many an American in the course of an active life will have turned his hand to half a dozen different professions or ways of getting a livelihood. "The one lesson we are taught all through life," a person one day humorously but truly said to me, "is to be *dis*contented with our station."

And it is this temper more than any other, intensified by the opportunities that the country affords and the prizes that it holds out to enterprise and ability, which is the motive

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* It is based, as upon the fundamental principle enounced by Washington, that the "virtue and intelligence" of the people are the two indispensable securities of republican institutions, so upon the two great republican doctrines of perfect social equality and absolute religious freedom. In the Constitution of the State of Rhode Island it is laid down that "the diffusion of knowledge as well as of virtue among the people being essential to the preservation of their rights and liberties, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to promote public schools, and to adopt all means which they may deem necessary and proper to secure to the people the advantages and opportunities of education." By the school laws of Massachusetts, "all children within the Commonwealth may attend the public school in the place in which they have a legal residence," and "no person shall be excluded from a public school on account of the race, color, or religious opinions of the applicant or scholar." The whole idea, indeed, of the aims and objects of education, as contemplated by the American system, cannot be better expressed than it was by Mr. Horace Mann. "Under our republican government," says he, "it seems clear that the minimum of education can never be less than such as is sufficient to qualify each citizen for the civil and social duties he will have to discharge; such an education as teaches the individual the great laws of bodily health; as qualifies for the fulfilment of parental duties; as is indispensable for the civil functions of a witness or a juror; as is necessary for the voter in municipal and in national affairs; and, finally, as is required for the faithful and conscientious discharge of all those duties which devolve upon the inheritor of a portion of the sovereignty of this great Republic."

† "We hold these truths to be self-evident—that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." *Declaration of Independence, sub initio.* By the Constitution "titles of nobility" are forbidden, and no law is to be made "respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof." *Act i, ss.* 9, 7; *Amendments, Act* 1.

power that sustains the schools. Corresponding, therefore, with these ideas, and reflecting these phenomena, must be the proper system of education. And the correspondence is marvellously exact, the reflection wonderfully true. The American school is a microcosm of American life There reigns in it the same spirit of freedom and equality; the same rapidity of movement, scarce leaving time for work to be thoroughly well done; the same desire of progress, eagerly catching at every new idea, ever on the look out for improvements; the same appeals to ambition, the same sensitiveness to praise and blame, the same subordination of the individual to the mass, of the scholar to the class, as of the citizen to the nation; the same prominence given to pursuits of a utilitarian, over pursuits of a refining, aim; the same excessive and exhausting strain on the mental and physical powers; the same feverishness and absence of repose;—elements of strength and weakness, of success and failure, mingled together in proportions which make it almost impossible to find any one discriminating epithet by which to characterize the resultant whole.

I. First, then, the system is in perfect harmony with the other institutions of the country. It is democratic, equal, free. But democratic institutions do not work with their full freedom and equality where the rapid growth of material prosperity is introducing social distinctions, and where, if not an aristocracy of birth or nobility, yet an aristocracy of wealth is being insensibly, but surely, formed. And so the American schools, particularly in the large cities and in the higher grades, are practically in the possession of the middle class. The sons and and daughters of the wealthiest (with a few exceptions, which only prove the rule) are not in them; nor, in many places, the sons and daughters of the poorest either. The efficiency of the system—in the sense of its actually supplying the wants of every class of society, and really furnishing *common* schools—is nearly in an inverse ratio to the prosperity of the district in which it operates.

And further, the school, from its very harmony with other institutions, is exposed to the same corrupting influences; and as in some places the posts of municipal authority have fallen into the hands of unscrupulous politicians, who use their vantage ground to promote, not the public weal, but the interests of their party, so, we have seen, in the same places it is distinctly alleged that the politicians are doing their best to taint and spoil the schools.

II. Again. The system exactly answers the wants of the people; their wants, I mean, as they understand them themselves. The principle of local self-government being supreme in the constitution of the schools, what people require, that they can have; at least, all is in their own hands.

What ought to be the school's greatest source of strength—the fact that its destinies are in the hands of those who are to profit directly by its advantages—proves, under the influence of selfish or sordid motives, in too many cases to be its principal element of weakness.

III. The system is a cheap system. In places where sordid views prevail it is made cheap at the cost of efficiency; by reducing the time during which the school is kept open to the narrowest limit; by cutting down the salaries of the teachers to the lowest sum; by neglecting to furnish it with the needful supplies of apparatus and books. But in cities where the support is most liberal, and indeed any sum that is asked for is given, still the system is cheap; 25*s*. to 30*s*. a year per child in the lower grades, 6*l*. to 10*l*. per year in the high school. The economy results from the principle of grading, and from the number of children of equal attainments in the same class who can be taught by the same teacher as though they were but one. Schools in England might be made as cheap if they could be organized on the same system. Throw all the schools of Edinburgh or London under one board of management, grade them, entrust each teacher with the oversight of 50 pupils, and the cost per child would probably be as low with us as it is in the United States. But in a graded school the class is the unit to the teacher's eye, and not the individual girl or boy, and what is gained in cheapness is almost lost again in thoroughness; and it is too much the tendency of all teachers, without the direct encouragement of the system under which they are working, to act upon the maxim, "Occupet extremum scabies." If discrimination is a high gift in a teacher, there is very little scope or necessity for its exercise in a graded school.

IV. The spirit of work produced under the system both in teachers and pupils, and the discipline of the schools, are both high. The teachers are constantly under the eye of the public, are placed in keen competition one with another, and anxiously look forward to the figures which will show in the Superintendent's next report how their school compares with other schools of the same grade. They are kept up to the full tension of their strength: sometimes, indeed, the tension is too great for their strength, and I frequently heard teachers say they wanted rest—a want which their worn, hectic looks abundantly showed.

Continued idleness, again, in a pupil, such as is allowed without any very strong effort to correct it, at Eton and elsewhere, would not be tolerated in an American school. The influence of idleness is felt to be contagious. If a boy won't work he must not by a bad example corrupt his schoolfellows—he must be withdrawn. Discipline, too, is nearly perfect in the best schools, but it is of a kind to which it would be hopeless to attempt to get 500 English boys of the upper or middle class to submit, and which even by many Americans is considered too repressive and mechanical.

I do not know that the aggregate results of the system can be better summed up than by

saying that there exists in America a general diffusion of intelligence rather than any high culture or profound erudition. If I were to compare them with the results of the best education at home, I should say that an American pupil probably leaves school with more special knowledge, but with less general development. He would have more acquaintance (not very profound, though) with certain branches of physical science, perhaps more, certainly as much, acquaintance with mathematics, but not more acquaintance with modern languages, and much less acquaintance with ancient languages and classical literature. I think our best teachers are better (perhaps because more regularly educated) than their best; but our worst teachers are incomparably worse, duller, more immethodical, more indolent, more uninteresting, than anything I saw or can conceive of being tolerated among them. An American teacher may be immoral, ignorant, and in many ways incompetent, but he, and particularly she, could hardly be dull. Liveliness and energy, hiding sometimes perhaps a multitude of other sins, seem to be their inherent qualities. I saw in America many inefficient schools, but the drowsy dullness of the teacher and the inattentive habits of the children, which characterize so many an English school, I never saw.

The mistake that is commonly made in America is one, I fear, that is taking some root in England—a confusion of thought between the processes that convey knowledge and the processes that develop mental power, and a tendency to confine the work of the school too exclusively to the former. It is perhaps the inevitable tendency of an age of material prosperity and utilitarian ideas. Of course, the processes of education are carried on through media that convey information too, and a well-educated man, if not necessarily, *is*, at any rate almost necessarily *becomes*, a well-informed man. But, in my sense of things, the work of education has been succcessfully accomplished when a scholar has learnt just three things—what he really *does* know, what he does *not* know, and *how* knowledge is in each case acquired; in other words, education is the development and training of *faculties*, rather than, to use a favorite American word, the "presentation" to the mind of *facts*. What was Aristotle's conception of the man whom he calls "thoroughly educated?" Not, I take it, a man of encyclopædic information, but a man of perfectly trained and well-balanced mind, able to apply to any subject that may occupy his attentions its proper methods, and to draw from it its legitimate conclusions. Hence, the proper functions of a sound system of education are to quicken the observation, strengthen the memory, discipline the reason, cultivate the taste; and that is the best system which gives to each faculty of our complex nature its just and proportionate development. The American schools devote themselves far too exclusively to the two former aims; the latter two receive much less attention than they deserve. The results are such as might be expected to flow from any one-sided and partial treatment of the human mind. Subjects are constantly "memorized" without being understood, and hence their stay in the memory is precarious and transitory, while, though facts are observed, they are not sufficiently classified, and the reasoning powers and the taste, the latter especially, are left to form themselves pretty much at will. The programme of the schools, particularly in the higher grades, is too wide and multifarious. Subjects are taken up for a while and then dropped (and presently forgotten) to make room for others that have been long waiting their turn. When occasionally expressing my surprise that an important subject like a language, French or German for instance, after being studied for three or four terms, then disappeared from the programme, and did not seem afterwards to be resumed, I was met by the invariable explanation that it got "crowded out." I doubt whether American school managers accept the maxim, "Ne multa sed multum," as true of the process of education. In nothing did the managers of the Boston schools seem to me to give greater evidence of good sense and wisdom than in the manifest desire they showed to contract their programme into narrower limits, and to attach more importance to sound methods than to showy but superficial results.

I have spoken of the cultivation of taste as an element of education. The great defect, in my judgment, in American taste, literary as well as other, is, speaking generally, its apparent incompetency to appreciate the beauty of simplicity, which really constitutes the charm of the merely graceful and the grandeur of the sublime. De Tocqueville has noticed, with his usual perspicacity, the preference of American orators and writers for a bombastic and inflated style.

In touching upon this point of national taste some allowance must be made for the rareness, inevitable in a new country where the conquest of the soil and the development of material wealth is the primary concern of the people, of art-museums, picture galleries, and those other instrumentalities which have been found so efficacious in older civilizations in teaching the public mind to recognize and appreciate the grand, the beautiful, the pure. There are said to be fine works of art in the possession of private collectors in America; but there is hardly such a thing as a public gallery of paintings or of sculpture worthy the name. * * * * With so few standards, therefore, of artistic beauty and proportion to exhibit to the eye, there exists all the greater need that the best models of accurate thought and chastened feeling, as expressed in language, should be presented to the mind; and as the printing press has made the whole range of classic literature common ground, it is to be regretted that influences which are out of reach are not compensated by others which are at hand, and that Homer and Virgil, Plato and Cicero, Sophocles and

Terrence, are not made to do for America what they, in conjunction with Phidias and Raffaelle, and the other potent magicians in the world of art, have done for Europe.

The tone of an American school—that "nescio quid" so hard to be described, but so easily recognized by the experienced eye, so soon felt by the quick perceptions of the heart —if not unsatisfactory, is yet incomplete. It is true that the work of the day commences with the reading of the Word of God, generally followed by prayer. It is true that decorous if not reverent attention is paid during both those exercises; but the decorum struck me as rather a result or a part of discipline than as a result of spiritual impressions; there was no "face as it had been the face of 'an angel;'" no appearance of kindled hearts. The intellectual tone of the schools is high; the moral tone, though perhaps a little too self-conscious, is not unhealthy; but another tone, which can only be vaguely described in words, but of which one feels oneself in the presence when it is really there, and which, for want of a better name, I must call the "religious" tone, one misses, and misses with regret.

A religious poet (Keble) has painted in exquisite language his idea of a Christian school as it passes before a watchful pastor's scan:

"'Tis not the eye of keenest blaze,
Nor the quick-swelling breast,
That soonest thrill at touch of praise—
These do not please him best.
But voices low and gentle,
And timid glances shy,
That seem for aid parental
To sue all wistfully,
Still pressing, longing to be right,
Yet fearing to be wrong,
In these the Pastor dares delight,
A lamb-like, Christ-like throng."

It ought not to be hard to conjecture, after what has been said, which type of child abounds most in American schools. I doubt if the latter temper, however charming to the sentimentalist, would be either appreciated or fostered by those who watch the development of youthful faculties there To "seem for aid parental to sue all wistfully" would be deemed at best an amiable weakness, likely to interfere seriously with ultimate success in life. The sooner an American boy learns to stand alone and depend solely on himself, the better all who are concerned about his well-doing seem to be pleased. The quick "thrill at touch of praise," the desire to excel, the ambition to be foremost, are found to be the most powerful motives to study, the most efficient instruments of discipline. Indeed, it may be doubted whether they are not employed to excess for this purpose. It is the custom to request visitors to the schools to make little speeches to the assembled pupils. The staple of most that I heard was the well-worn theme of the infinite career that lay before them, and the possibility of every boy who listened to the speaker becoming President of the United States, or occupying a position equally honorable and equally to be coveted. To my judgment, and in the judgment of not a few Americans themselves, there is far too much of this. Such addresses, no doubt, are stimulating; but it must be recollected that there are unhealthy stimulants; and I was told stories enough by sober people, who disapproved of the practice, of many a boy, conscious of talents and urged on by such motives, who, attempting one of these grand careers and failing, sank at last into nothing better than a discontented and mischievous politician.

It might be thought also that amid the wildness of religious fancy and the strangeness of theological opinions, which prevail in America to an extent far beyond anything within an Englishman's experience, the blessings of a fixed creed would be more easily recognized and more strongly felt than where traditional beliefs still largely influence public thought, and men are less tossed about by winds of doctrine. It is unnecessary to say, however, that no attempt to lay the foundations of such a creed, or in any way to presume that such a creed even exists, is made in the common schools.

I do not like to call the American system of education, or to hear it called, *irreligious*. It is perhaps even going too far to say that it is *non-religious*, or purely secular. If the cultivation of some of the choicest intellectual gifts bestowed by God on man—the perceptions, memory, taste, judgment, reason; if the exaction of habits of punctuality, attention, industry, and "good behavior;" if the respect which is required and which is paid during the reading of a daily portion of God's holy World, and the daily saying of Christ's universal prayer, are all to be set down as only so many contrivances for producing "clever devils," it would be vain to argue against such a prejudice. But if, as I believe, the cultivation of any one of God's good gifts and the attempt to develop any one right principle or worthy habit are, so far as they go, steps in the direction, not only of morality but of piety, materials with which both the moralist and the divine, the parent and the Sunday-school teacher, may hope to build the structure of a "perfect man" which they desire, then it is manifestly ungenerous to turn round upon the system which does this, which supplies these materials of the building, and is prohibited by circumstances over which it has no control and to which it is forced to adapt itself from doing more, and stigmatize it with the brand of godlessness.

APPENDIX I.

GERMAN SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

NEW YORK, *April* 12, 1868.

The undersigned in behalf of the German Teachers' Society of New York and environs beg leave to lay before the Department of Education the following succinct statement respecting the German schools in existence in this State and in the Union. The facts herein presented or, at least, a summary of its contents, will, it is hoped, appear to you of sufficient importance to be embodied, in your report to the Congress of the United States.

There are several hundreds of German schools in this country. Permit us to explain briefly the causes and reasons that have led to the foundation of these schools, since it may to many seem superfluous for Germans to support schools of their own in a country where, in the public schools, a general and gratuitous instruction is guaranteed to the children of parents of all nationalities.

The first of these reasons and causes is that our German-born population find that their children rapidly unlearn the German tongue, English being not only the common idiom of all nationalities in this country, but also a language easier than almost any other to acquire, to wield, and to pronounce. This fact sadly disturbs the family relations, the efforts of parents toward the education of their children, and the respect due to the parents from the latter. For when their children speak among themselves, even at home, nothing but English, they form, as it were, a foreign element within the family. The great mass of the immigrated Germans learn, during the first generation, hardly English enough to understand all their children talk among themselves, and thus they are unable to discover their secrets, to warn, to guide, to correct them. The children deeming English, the common language of the country, a better one than any other, begin to slight their parents, who have not a perfect command of the same, to enjoy the fun of having their own secrets, inaccessible to their parents, and end in refusing obedience to them, and in no longer keeping company, when half-grown, with their nearest relations not perfectly Anglicized. That these facts are productive of a great many evils, and even engender juvenile crime and profligacy, can be easily understood.

But this, sad as it must be called by every unprejudiced observer, is not all. The better class of Germans—and the immigration of now-a-days increases from year to year in the degree of education and respectability represented by them—sorely regret that their children and children's children should lose the privilege of commanding the two master languages of the world, English and German, at the same time. The treasures of the German literature being in no respect inferior to any other, and the usefulness in practical life of speaking and writing a plurality of languages being obvious to every intelligent mind, why should German-born children, who may so easily reap the advantages of a plurality of tongues, lose them by sheer negligence of the parents? It is certain that all the citizens of this great country should have a common language as a means of mutual intelligence and a characteristic feature of their nationality; but it is not adverse to the American idea, that the citizens of this country should derive untold advantages from their ability to freely converse and communicate with the natives of other countries, and to enjoy their national literatures. And of all languages, the German—the language of the greatest poets of modern times, of the most profound science and philosophy, and of a nation, destined to become, in no distant future, the foremost in Europe—seems to be entitled to appreciation by American citizens generally; so much the more so, as it is the mother of Anglo-Saxon and modern English, and is spoken in this country by about five millions of men—a number rapidly increasing.

But a third reason and cause leading to the foundation of German schools in this country has, in the eyes of some, even been paramount to those beforementioned, important as they are. Germany is the cradle of the reformation of schools, and the German schools, as a whole, might, from the latter part of the eighteenth century down to the middle of the present, be justly considered as by far the best in the world. It is, then, but natural that immigrated Germans, coming from a great many excellent schools in their old country; and being conscious of and thankful for the great advantages derived from them, should desire that their children may grow up under the same benefits, and that the United States, this dear country of their choice, may profit to some degree from the existence of schools instituted after the German model, even though the latter be modified according to the peculiar circumstances and requirements of the American nationality and idea.

Of the three causes just mentioned, each, according as it was prevailing over the other two in the minds of the founders of German schools, gave rise to a different kind of school. Where the idea of preserving the family relations, and together with them the parental religious denomination, prevailed, there *denominational* German schools were founded, of which there are in this country nearly as many as there are German church buildings and societies. Where, however, the second reason obtained preference to the other two, *private* schools

were undertaken and patronized. Where, lastly, the third reason was paramount to the two others, without necessarily excluding them, *society* schools on shares sprang into existence. A few, however, of the private establishments must be classed with this third class.

1. We need not dwell long on the denominational class of German schools. Their existence dates as far back as the German immigration into this country. As soon as the new-comers felt able to support a church and a minister of their creed, there was also a beginning made of instructing their children in the mother tongue, so that they might be enabled to understand German preaching, and to sustain the family relations intelligibly. It was, of course, clearly the interest of the ministers to become either themselves the teachers of German, or at least the founders of schools in this tongue, if they wished to continue their denomination beyond the first generation. But a great majority of the early German clergymen, down to almost our own times, being very illiterate, their teaching did not amount to much, and does not even now. During the last two or three decades, it is true, a sufficient number of able German teachers came over from the mother country, so that the character of these denominational schools might have been extensively improved. But there being little intelligence among these congregations and their clergy, they could not understand the requirements of a good school, and that able teachers cannot be expected to thrive on so low salaries as from two to four hundred dollars a year, and to perform, into the bargain, the menial work of sextons and attendants to their ministers. Thus it is that hardly half a dozen of the several hundred schools of this kind ever have been worthy of the name of schools (among which, two deserve honorable mention, the St. Matthæus Church school in Walker street, New York, as it was under Director Hardter's leadership, and the "Zion's Schule" in Baltimore, since it came under Dr. Herzog's care,) and that from two to three millions of descendants of Germans now in the country have wholly, or almost wholly, lost the understanding and use of their native language.

2. The *private* German schools are of a modern origin. When, after the unsuccessful revolutionary fermentation of 1830, a more intelligent class of Germans began to emigrate and to spread the love of the German language and literature even among Anglo-Americans, the first of these private institutions were founded in the great commercial centres, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, and St. Louis, whence they spread to some other places, especially since, after the unfortunate end of the revolution of 1848, the number of intelligent German immigrants considerably increased. It was chiefly the commercial class of citizens who patronized these schools. With them it was less the motive of sustaining the family relations which prompted them to so doing. Being themselves conversant enough with English, they, for the most part, also talked English at home; but they valued the great advantages connected with understanding several tongues, and wished to secure these for their children. No doubt this second class of German schools was and is of a far higher order than the denominational; but being made subservient to the private interests of their founders and proprietors, and being based solely on their commercial utility, not on an ideal conception of the compass, duties, and importance of the school, as it ought to be, all these schools, with the exception of a few to be mentioned under the third head, remained one-sided concerns, with underpaid teachers, a more or less aristocratic tendency, a bad discipline, and much outward show, without a corresponding interior value.

3. The third class of German schools, those founded by societies on shares, and a few by private enterprise, owe their origin to the ideas which succumbed in the mother country in the revolution of 1848, and stamped so different a character on the emigrants of that period. The generation of men of that time came from the most excellent German schools; educated there at a time when these schools had reached their highest degree of excellence. For it must be noted here that meanwhile the German governments, having found out what an enemy to monarchical institutions and established (state) churches they had thus far fostered in these excellent schools, have since 1850, intentionally lowered the standard of popular education, so far as depended on them. The generation of men just mentioned regarded the German model school as the "palladium" of their ideas, their liberalism, their philosophical conception of state, religion, and society; they almost revered it religiously. Every intelligent man among them had an exalted notion of what the school is to be, and even the great mass of the then immigrants seconded their efforts to transplant the German model school to the hospitable soil of their adopted country. But having, most of them, lost their property through the revolution and emigration, and being obliged to struggle for many years with the hardships of a new existence to be founded, their new schools were doomed to be, till in part now, embarrassed by the insufficiency of means allotted to them. A majority of these schools were established or, at least, fostered into existence by the "Turner" (gymnastic) societies, spread all over the country; but most of these societies consist of men of very moderate means, and their schools, therefore, consist rarely of more than two classes. They charge very moderate tuition fees, allow their teachers better salaries than the denominational and most private schools, but yet rather scantily, and make both ends meet by pic-nics and charitable collections. Of a still higher character are those society schools which were independent of any organization, the founders being chartered by the legislatures of the several States as school (academical) societies, and the necessary capital, with which buildings were built and furnished, being gathered by small shares. The current expenses are defrayed by the tuition fees, new shares, or subscriptions. The tuition

fees are moderate, and the chief, if not the only, source of income; still the teachers' salaries are the highest of all paid in German schools, although, with the exception of those of one or two principals, not exceeding $1,600 per annum. Among institutions of this kind honorable mention can be made of the New York German Free school in East 4th street, founded in 1858, of 10 classes; the German school in East 52d street, New York, founded in 1865, of 7 classes; the St. Louis "Real Schule," founded in 1858, ruined by the secession war; the San Antonio (Texas) German school, founded in 1857, also broken up by the war; the Milwaukee German-English academy, founded in 1854, 11 classes, and ever since under Mr. C. Engelmann's care in a flourishing condition; the Boston (Mass.) German-English school, founded in 1859, in 4 classes, since dwarfed into two; the Newark (N. J.) German school in Greene street, founded in 1854, 4 classes; the Hoboken academy, founded in 1861, of once 11, now 9 classes; the Philadelphia "Frei Gemeinde Schule," founded in 1856, 4 classes; the Detroit (Mich.) German-English academy, founded in 1856, 6 classes; and the Rochester (N. Y.) "Real Schule," founded in 1863, 3 classes; besides a large number of schools, in many respects good, but organized in fewer classes which are not mentioned here. Even the institutions above named do not rank equally high. Last, but not least, are to be mentioned a small number of private schools of the best kind, such as that of Messrs. Schmeider and Deghuée, 152 Pacific street, Brooklyn, New York, founded in 1851, 4 classes; the former schools of Dr. Rudolph Dulon, 11 Market and 309 West 22d streets, New York, this gentleman being the pioneer in the private enterprises on the larger scale till he had to give up—financially ruined; that of Dr. H. Gercke, West 23d street, New York, the successor to the last named, and that of Mr. Th Heidenfeld, 4 Allen street, and that of Dr. R. Hirzel, 11 Market street, New York, each of 5 classes, successors to the first named of Dulon's schools; that of Mr. P. W. Möller, West 27th street; and that of the subscriber, A. Douai, the male department located in 498 7th avenue, and the female in 759 6th avenue, New York. Omitting the schools of less than four classes, among which there are some very deserving ones, we remark that those mentioned were organized according to the best German models, were founded with little or no capital, charge higher tuition fees than the society schools, and employ the best teachers to be had. But such establishments being costly, their financial success is by far inferior to the ideal.

The characteristic features of the schools of the third class are the following: They aim at the German ideal or model school, improved by the addition of a perfect knowledge of English, of more freedom from theoretical pedantry and impractical schematism, and by a tendency to inculcate liberal views and independent thinking. All exclude religious instruction to this extent that no prayers are offered, and the Bible is not read in school. They all require in their teachers a superior skill and talent, and have thus far succeeded in obtaining a supply of such at moderate salaries; but now the supply seems to diminish, as the intellectual standard of teachers coming over from the old country is, with some exceptions, inferior to that of the preceding generation. It is evident, then, that they all will, in future, have to pay higher salaries corresponding to the high order of talent demanded for their classes; and in consequence of this they will have to enhance their tuition charges, now averaging from $30 to $120 per child, to higher figures; and they may be successful therein, the liberality of our Germans toward their schools increasing with their opulence.

They are divided into as many classes as their means will allow, numbering each, if possible, no more than 40 pupils, some of them far less, only a few considerably more. This is an indispensable condition of success for this system. Our course of studies is so extensive that to gain time is with us to gain everything, so much the more so as the pupils will leave the school at the age of fourteen or sooner, unless they have already acquired a considerable proficiency in their studies, and in their mental growth the very stimulus toward absolving the whole course of their school. But practical life, or a course of higher studies, lures them away to the very last, before the sixteenth year of age is fulfilled. From sanitary reasons it is not deemed prudent to receive pupils into the elementary classes before the sixth or seventh year of age is over. Within that short, intervening space, then, of eight years at best, and without overtaxing the physical powers of youth by home work, the wonderful task is to be achieved of imparting to all the children (a very small percentage excepted) a correct and fluent use and understanding of English, German and French to about equal proficiency in each; of mathematics, all except the "calculus" and the most difficult problems of geometry and trigonometry; of natural philosophy, in all its more important bearings, not neglecting a general, and in a few branches, even a more special survey of natural history; of geography and history, treating more thoroughly those of America and Europe, but excluding no other part entirely; of bookkeeping and practical arithmetic; finally, of penmanship, drawing, singing and gymnastics, (and, with the female department, of needle—work.) This great task can be achieved only by a rapid advancement of the pupils from class to class; and this would be impossible with a large number of pupils in the same class or with pupils of different degrees of development. The work is, however, facilitated by the institution of *Kindergartens*, according to Fr. Froebel's system, of which there is one connected with Dr. Gercke's, and one with the subscriber's, Dr. Douai's school, while those once connected with the Boston and the Hoboken institutions no longer exist. These Kindergartens, receiving children of from four to seven years of age, are now somewhat more generally appreciated, wherefore we may forego describing them here. In the system

of the German model school they, beside their general importance for developing harmoniously all the mental and physical powers of tender youth, subserve the useful purpose of imparting to the pupils an equal proficiency and correctness in the understanding and oral use of English and German, as far as can be expected from children of this age, so that on entering the lowest elementary class they can easily understand both the English and German teachers and can make themselves easily understood by either. It may be feared that the use of two languages at the same time in so tender an age might stunt the development of one or either. But experience shows that the Kindergarten system is up to the task of preventing jumbles of that kind; nay, it is a fact that French-born children, having to contend with three languages at the same time, when having gone through the Kindergarten, will, as a class, turn out our most brilliant pupils up to the highest classes. Another fact here deserves mention, namely, that our system of instruction and education, although beginning with children of four or five years of age and carrying them through such an amount of mental work as no other schools in the world, presents the most satisfactory hygienic statistics. The mortality in most of our better schools—certainly of all that have fallen under the observation of the subscribers—does not exceed the very low figure of two or less in a thousand per annum, and diseases of all kinds are comparatively very rare, the attendance at school very regular, as far as depends on sanitary causes, and accidents seem to be still rarer. We can boldly challenge the closest medical examination of our schools in this respect.

Still, with the advantages just mentioned of classes not crowded, well graded and well officered, with a Kindergarten to prepare suitably the elementary beginners, and with the health and bodily vigor of the pupils well cared for, the said task could not be performed but for the admirable system and methods as devised by more than half a century of educational experience in the best German schools. The general characteristics of this system, condensed into the fewest possible words, consist in doing thoroughly and durably whatever is done, in attempting little at a time, but completing by a wise use of the material of instruction, so that the intellect, the imagination, the memory, the will, and the sense of beauty and order, may each profit so far as may be therefrom; and in arranging the succession of lessons so as to lead very gradually from the easier and perceptible to the more difficult and abstract, from real objects to notions and ideas, and from the simple to the complicated. Our teachers are well trained in understanding and carrying out philosophically the system, and to render the various methods invented and adapted to every branch of instruction serviceable to the fundamental idea. They are, as a rule, left free to follow their own method, provided the same do not conflict with the system and general idea. Thus there is a variety of methods of instruction in elementary reading, but the tedious spelling of Anglo-Saxon schools is, as a rule, done away with. In the best of our schools English and German reading is gone through to the end of the first reading book in three months with the quickest of the pupils; in half a year with a great majority; in one year, at latest, with the rest; and all they can read they must be likewise able to write legibly and correctly on their slates. These reading methods are more or less phonetic, and the intellect is called into activity in analyzing the sounds of the words and the pictures, of their written or printed representatives into their constituted elements, and in recomposing them into spoken and written or printed words. In elementary arithmetic the value of numbers must first be objectively demonstrated, and fluently understood before ciphering begins. Addition and subtraction within the space of the numbers from 1 to 20 are followed by multiplication and division within the same numerical space; then follow the four "rules" to within 100, later to higher figures, always combining mental arithmetic with practice in ciphering. Numeration and pronunciation of larger numbers follow when the pupils can form a notion of what a million, &c., is. The first acquaintance with fractions can, with great advantage, be introduced even before numeration. Great stress is laid on the ability of the pupils to attack arithmetical tasks intelligently and to solve them correctly and expeditiously, both with and without the use of figures. A thorough training in arithmetic, like the one mentioned, renders it possible to begin geometry and algebra profitably with children of ten years of age. In these branches also the foundation is laid with great care in the manner of object lessons. The pupils must first, from examples given, find out the new notions introduced and express them properly in their own words, discover the rules, laws and demonstrations themselves, and apply examples of their own to the rules already mastered. A definition is never merely learned by heart, much less a theorem or its demonstration. The pupils must find them as much as possible for themselves, and frequent oral repetition or written exercises impress the matter in all its bearings—not merely the words for it—upon the memory. In the same way grammar is treated, which must be began after the ninth year, if three languages are to be mastered in a high degree before the end of the sixteenth. Example and object precede rule and definition; the understanding of the thing itself, its name; the laws and rules of language must, as much as possible, be discovered by the learners themselves; and the correct use of the language must be based, not on usage alone, but on a conscious and intelligent practice of the laws and rules; finally a fluent and beautiful command of language, orally and in writing, must result from a frequent exercise in translation from each of the three languages into the other; and artistic ability, from logical clearness of mind and a perfect understanding of the subject to be treated The pupils therefore are prevented

rom expatiating stylistically on matters beyond their horizon of experience. So with us natu-al philosophy is taught in the manner of object lessons. We present before all the experi-nent, call on the pupils to tell what they see, or otherwise perceive with their senses, and to ell it in appropriate language, to derive the laws proven by the experiment, and to draw all necessary conclusions from them. In the study of natural history the real objects of nature are, whenever it is possible, brought forward to draw information, full and conclusive, directly from them, and to endear this study to all the pupils. History and geography are, as much as possible, combined, to shed mutually light one on the other, and the former is treated in a conversational manner, so as to interest the class in the objects presented; the latter drawn directly from the globe and the map, starting from home and spreading step by step to the rest of the world, while the pupils are exercised in sketching maps understandingly. The former, leaning thus on the latter, becomes in the hands of a skilful and well-posted teacher a picture of the gradual development of the human race into what it is. Drawing is taught according to different methods; but in most of our better schools the elementary faculty of drawing lines of all kinds is thoroughly practiced, while some include the laws of perspective, drawing from nature, and painting in water colors. In singing some of our schools can favorably compare with any schools in the country, teaching the use of the elements of the system, and performing in two and three parts. In gymnastics, what is called calisthenics and light gymnastics, is practiced carefully, so as to invigorate the system to bear the required mental strain, and to give every pupil the full and beautiful use of all his limbs. We forbear going any further into details, our aim being merely to direct the atten-tion of all sincere lovers of education to the undeniable results of our system and methods; and to open channels of communication between the Anglo-Saxon and German reformers of schools on the larger scale. The two nationalities, and the representatives of their best inter-ests do not yet sufficiently understand each other, though much good for our common coun-try might result from their intercourse and inter-dependence.

In short, the German system of education is *organic*, an organism of a complicated yet simple and beautiful kind; and no single part of it can be borrowed and embodied into a different system without discarding its principal advantages. It aims at educating the whole man together and harmoniously, at developing in the future generations, above all, *man* himself in the full sway and enjoyment of all his faculties and inclinations. by means of a universal training in all the chief branches of science and art, as far as the extant degree of preparation allows; and developing at the same time the *professional man* and *citizen* by means of helping his peculiar talents and inclinations along on the right track. It discards and spurns every kind of one-sided instruction and training, as impairing the har-mony of development and the future destiny of our descendants. And if it achieves a great deal it is because it opens in its pupils all the fountains of talent and character, knows how to address and interest the whole man in the youth, and to make him, from infancy up, self-active and independent, so that he enjoys continually the greatest of all pleasures, the con-sciousness of mental and physical growth, and feels unbounded and well founded confidence in all his powers because he has learned how to use, to apply, and to enhance them.

The very universality of this kind of education is the secret of its success in every single branch of instruction; its very thoroughness insures its rapidity of progress, especially in later years. It is comparatively easier to acquire two or three languages than one, provided it is done with the aid of comparative philology and very thoroughly in the beginning. It is easier to learn arithmetic, geometry and algebra at the same time than either one, because they illustrate and explain each other. It is easier to study and understand history and geography than either singly, because their contents are inseparably interlaced and inter-woven. It is easier to become an adept in penmanship and in drawing simultaneously, than in one separately, provided always that a thorough proficiency is attempted. Just so it is easier to render all instruction morally educating, and all moral education instructive, than not, because the one helps the other practice by enriching its means and powers. Finally it is easier to combine, with great results, the *material* purpose of instruction (acquisition of knowledge and skill) with its *formal* purpose (development of all the powers of the organism) than to carry out each independently of the other, for in proportion as the powers and abili-ties grow, the amassing of skill and knowledge are furthered and made pleasant, and in pro-portion as knowledge and skill grow, the mental powers are increased, always provided it is done with system and thoroughness.

The foregoing remarks will suffice to defend and explain what otherwise, in our system, might seem to become an overtaxation of the youthful mind, or else an inducement to superficiality. The better class of our German schools will, it is hoped, on careful scrutiny be found exempt from such reproaches. It is only with pupils received at too late a period of life, or else previously neglected in education, that they cannot exhibit sufficient results of their labors. Their own pupils will, after having finished the entire course, stand compari-son with any other pupils of the same age in almost every single branch of learning and skill. This much seems to be proven by the experience of a dozen years.

So—it will be asked—your system withholds your pupils entirely from the public school? They must, in order to reap the benefits of your system, absolutely go without the advant-ages of the common school system? Do you then not fear that, by separating them during all their schooling time from the intimate acquaintance and competition with all their future

fellow-citizens, you convert them into aristocrats, unfit them for the life and duties of a republic, and estrange them to their country? Our answer, long and well pondered, is: We do not, at least not to a dangerous degree. Our schools are patronized by all classes of citizens, and admit each, to our knowledge, a number of poor children gratuitously, or at reduced rates of charges. They do so from motives prompted by the above considerations and apprehensions, and do so to the extremity of their means. Besides, even the common public schools are as yet liable to reproaches of the same kind. The different classes of population live, at least in our larger cities, in separate districts and localities; rich parents have, therefore, always a chance to send their children to such public schools where they are associated with none but their equals in social condition, while poor children meet, as a rule, with none but poor children in the common schools of poor districts. And wherever the school superintendents do not favor such exclusive movements, wealthy parents can afford to send their darlings to private establishments—especially boarding-schools. As long as the keeping and patronization of private schools are not by law forbidden, our schools, as not subject to greater, or even the same exceptions and reproaches, than other private schools ought to be looked upon with equal favor. Besides our wants are peculiar, and cannot otherwise be remedied, unless the public schools are assimilated in character to our own, and our language is well cared for therein, of which, indeed, a slight beginning has been made in some eastern and western cities.

No class of citizens would more exultantly greet the day when they could give up their own private schools, because the common schools were assimilated in character to theirs, their language well taught, and the children of all classes of citizens freely meeting in them, than the Germans. Their whole turn of mind is democratic and republican in the best sense of these terms. But that this day is yet distant, we have reasons to fear. One of them is that we so rarely find for our schools American-born teachers of English who are competent to enter into the spirit of our system, and pliable enough to adapt themselves to our methods of instruction and education. The same holds good of French-born teachers of French. We therefore apprehend that it will take many years before the superior advantages of our system will be generally appreciated, as well as before the great number of teachers required for carrying it out all over the common schools of the country are prepared for such a task. On the other hand, if we do not find teachers enough of Anglo-Saxon lineage fit for our schools, there is no lack of pupils of the same nationality who enter our schools and into their spirit, and their number seems to be on the increase.

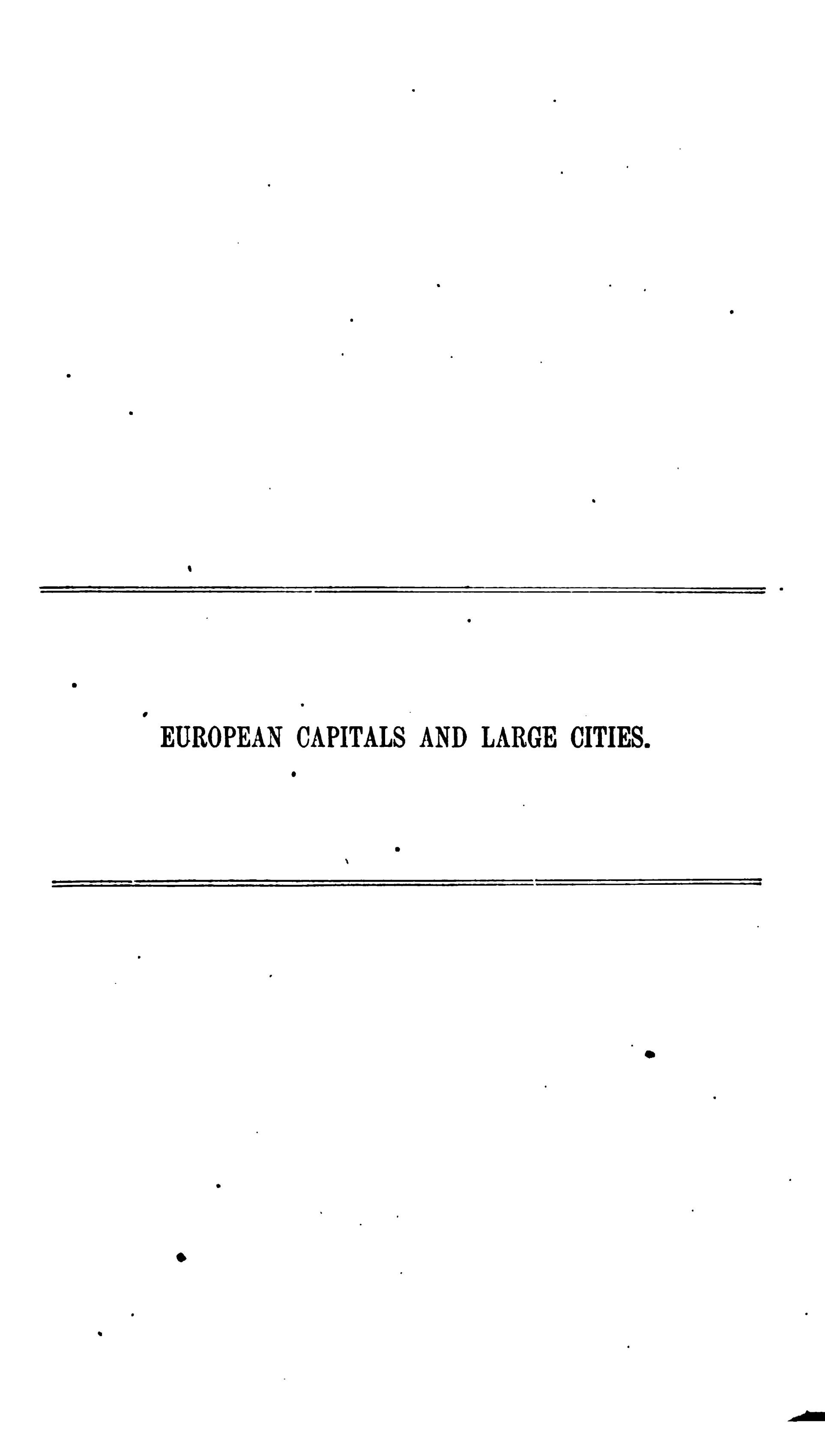
There is quite a literature of German-American school-books printed and published in this country, comprising chiefly reading books—German, and a few English, according to our system—arithmetics, grammars, vocabularies, editions of classical poetry, and the like—not enough, however, to cover all our wants, so that a number of books remain to be imported from Germany for the benefit of our schools. Those published in the Old World are not in all respects what our system and the peculiarities of our country demand, and by degrees they will all be replaced by books here published. Text-books of science and art are discarded in our system as degrading the teacher into more or less of a machine for rehearsing recitations, stunting the use of the intellect on the part of the pupil, and converting the school—which should be an organism—into a labor-saving mechanism, a kind of manufactory. We hold that the teacher, if he is worthy of that dignified name, is the best imaginable text-book; our instruction and repetition in all sciences proper are oral, with just as much of written exercises on the part of the pupil, and dictated paragraphs on the part of the teacher, as are indispensable for cultivating the memory, and exercising self-activity in home-work.

The prospects of our German-American schools are not very bright. While, on the one hand, their field of activity is enlarging from year to year, and their self-supporting power increasing, the number of teachers up to the task does not increase in the same ratio, simply because teaching is, even in this country, the worst-paying investment of talent and time, capital and energy. A great many of our best teachers have been driven away from their life-long calling to better paying pursuits; and many more will yet be estranged to their vocation by the endless sacrifices of health and means, connected with instituting model schools and conducting them. It is for these reasons, and because the future immigration of able German teachers will hardly supply the future demand, that the subscribers wish that the Anglo-Saxon schools should henceforth more and more embody the model school; that Anglo-American teachers should more and more adopt the Pestalozzian system, instead of the Anglo-Saxon; and that the teachers and friends of education of Anglo-Saxon and German nationality should more and more communicate and rival with each other to further this great end.

The German Teachers' Society of New York and environs,

By their reporter, Dr. ADOLF DOUAI, 498 *7th Avenue;*
And their president, JOHN STRAUBENMUELLER,
140, 142 *East Fourth Street.*

Mr. H. BARNARD,
Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.



EUROPEAN CAPITALS AND LARGE CITIES.

TABLE I.—*Elementary Schools in Germany as constituted in* 1865.

Country.	Area in English sq. miles.	Population.	Elementary schools.			Teachers' seminaries and normal schools.	
			Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Schools.	Scholars.
1. Anhalt	869	193, 646	283	31, 200	362	2	72
2. Austria, (German Provinces).	124, 116	20, 602, 736	14, 587	1, 656, 939	24, 700	80	2, 209
3. Austria, (non-German Provinces)	103, 118	13, 830, 154	14, 642	1, 684, 478	33, 524	35	957
4. Baden	5, 851	1, 428, 090	2, 228	200, 000	25, 000	3	170
5. Bavaria	29, 347	4, 807, 440	7, 113	946, 275	8, 937	10	518
6. Brunswick	1, 526	292, 708	420	45, 700	661	3	73
7. Hanover	14, 846	1, 888, 070	3, 584	281, 348	3, 812	11	361
8. Hesse-Cassel	4, 430	745, 063	1, 300	126, 000	1, 163	4	191
9. Hesse-Darmstadt	2, 866	816, 902	1, 756	155, 568	1, 382	2	129
10. Holstein-Lauenburg	3, 630	604, 123	1, 177	105, 446	1, 370	2	97
11. Lichtenstein	64	7, 150	26	2, 000	35	....	......
12. Lippe-Detmold	445	111, 336	108	2, 200	171	1	19
13. Lippe-Schaumburg	212	31, 382	38	4, 026	40	1	19
14. Luxemburg	1, 228	206, 140	526	24, 868	492	1	35
15. Mecklenburg-Schwerin	4, 834	552, 612	1, 334	69, 000	1, 517	1	19
16. Mecklenburg-Strelitz	997	99, 060	231	13, 000	250	1	19
17. Nassau	1, 802	465, 636	716	72, 296	1, 059	2	146
18. Oldenburg	2, 417	314, 416	490	43, 174	630	2	208
19. Prussia	107, 757	19, 269, 563	25, 656	2, 825, 322	36, 157	60	3, 800
20. Reuss-Greitz	148	43, 924	96	8, 850	105	1	35
21. Reuss-Schleitz	297	86, 472	118	11, 564	130	1	51
22. Saxony	6, 777	2, 343, 994	2, 016	400, 229	3, 865	13	1, 300
23. Saxe-Altenburg	509	141, 839	180	21, 798	190	1	32
24. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	816	164, 527	230	22, 609	355	3	90
25. Saxe-Meiningen	933	178, 065	285	29, 250	406	1	52
26. Saxe-Weimar	1, 421	280, 201	678	50, 000	700	2	154
27. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	340	73, 752	145	14, 210	181	2	18
28. Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	318	66, 189	118	11, 564	147	1	16
29. Waldeck	466	59, 143	128	10, 681	200	....	......
30. Wurtemberg	7, 675	1, 747, 328	2, 481	230, 000	2, 778	3	246
31. Free Cities: Bremen	106	104, 091	42	7, 165	168	1	43
32. Frankfort	43	87, 518	18	6, 940	72	1	40
33. Hamburg	148	229, 941	132	19, 825	586	1	56
34. Lubeck	127	50, 614	16	4, 800	64	....	......

TABLE II.—**Secondary Schools in the North German Union, the Sou[illegible]*

Name of the State.	Number of inhabitants.	Gymnasia.†			Progymnasia.		
		Number of gymnasia.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Number of progymnasia.	Teachers.	Scholars.
1. Prussia	23,969,620	197	2,908	54,366	25	180	2,34[illegible]
2. Saxony	2,343,994	11	203	2,783	......	......	......
3. Saxe-Weimar	280,2[illegible]1	3	39	572	......	......	......
4. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	164,527	2	35	732	1	11	[illegible]
5. Saxe-Meiningen	178,065	2	24	310	......	......	......
6. Saxe-Altenburg	141,839	1	12	174	1	7	14[illegible]
7. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	73,752	1	16	160	......	......	......
8. Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	66,189	2	22	238	......	......	......
9. Reuss-Greiz	43,924	......	......	......	......	......	......
10. Reuss-Schleiz	86,472	2	26	388	......	......	......
11. Anhalt	193,046	4	77	1,077	......	......	......
12. Brunswick	292,708	6	84	1,307	1	11	1[illegible]
13. Mecklenburg-Strelitz	99,060	3	28	583	......	......	......
14. Mecklenburg-Schwerin	552,612	5	75	1,580	......	......	......
15. Oldenburg	314,416	4	47	644	1	10	[illegible]
16. Lippe-Detmold	111,336	2	24	321	......	......	......
17. Schaumburg-Lippe	31,382	1	12	190	......	......	......
18. Waldeck	59,143	1	11	124	......	......	......
19. Bremen	104,091	1	15	217	1	12	[illegible]
20. Hamburg‡	229,941	2	21	232	......	......	......
21. Lubeck	50,614	1	9	214	......	......	......
Total North German Union	28,995,347	253	3,686	66,612	30	231	3,21[illegible]
1. Hesse-Darmstadt	816,902	6	88	1,082	......	......	......
2. Bavaria	4,807,440	29	613	7,558	......	......	......
3. Würtemberg	1,747,328	7	168	2,278	¶6	38	[illegible]
4. Baden	1,428,090	6	67	569	‖7	117	2,0[illegible]
5. Liechtenstein	7,150	......	......	......	......	......	......
Total South German States	8,804,910	48	936	11,487	13	153	2,611
Austria, (German Provinces)	20,602,736	97	1,532	32,076	......	......	......
Austria, (Hungary)	13,830,154	132	1,335	26,722	......	......	......
Total Austrian monarchy	34,432,890	229	2,867	58,798	......	......	......
Grand total	72,233,147	490	10,592	183,709	43	386	5,8[illegible]

* From Dr. L. Wiese's "Das Hohere Schulwesen in Preussen," Berlin, 1869, and Dr. E. Mushack[illegible]

† Very few gymnasia are without real-classes, and many of the progymnasia have real-classes, while might be placed in the third column, and vice versa.

‡ This table only enumerates the *public* schools. Hamburg, *e. g.*, has a large number of private schools.

§ Called "Latin schools."

¶ Including 38 institutions preliminarily considered as higher burgher-schools, with 262 teachers and

** Including three institutions called *Paedagogien.*

-erman States, and the Austrian monarchy, January 1, 1869.

Real-schools of 1st class.			Real-schools of 2d class.			Higher burgher schools.			Total.			
Number of real-schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Number of real-schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Number of higher burgher schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Secondary schools of any kind.	Teachers.	Scholars.	
64	971	19,422	14	196	3,430	¶69	549	9,500	368	4,740	88,949	1
6	109	2,057	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	16	312	4,840	2
1	112	250	1	6	88	3	35	1,517	8	92	2,427	3
1	12	222	.....	.....	.....	1	27	1,254	5	85	2,435	4
1	9	152	1*	10	138	.....	.....	.....	4	43	600	5
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	11	191	3	30	512	6
.....	.....	.....	1	4	33	.....	.....	.....	2	20	193	7
2	19	344	.....	.....	.....	1	24	620	5	65	1,202	8
1	15	143	.....	.....	.....	1	11	647	2	26	790	9
1	20	365	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	46	653	10
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	26	421	6	103	1,498	11
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	95	1,439	12
.....	.....	.....	2	9	197	1	7	566	6	44	1,346	13
.....	.....	.....	7	62	1,509	2	16	385	14	153	3,474	14
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	44	1,066	12	101	4,775	15
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	24	321	16
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	12	190	17
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	20	540	4	31	664	18
.....	.....	.....	3	660	35	.....	.....	.....	5	62	1,159	19
1	26	258	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	47	490	20
1	12	42	.....	.....	.....	2	17	348	4	38	604	21
79	1,205	23,555	29	947	5,430	55	525	12,282	484	6,856	115,868	
10	103	1,887	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	16	152	2,969	1
6	51	246	.....	.....	.....	§52	248	2,083	87	912	9,887	2
8	92	1,989	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	21	298	4,841	3
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	**29	215	3,228	42	399	5,834	4
.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5
24	216	4,122	.....	.....	.....	78	440	5,023	166	1,761	23,531	
6	64	1,081	48	597	10,547	.....	.....	.....	151	2,193	43,704	
1	9	57	23	315	4,094	.....	.....	.....	156	1,659	30,873	
7	73	1,138	71	912	14,641	.....	.....	.....	307	3,852	74,577	
110	1,524	28,865	100	1,859	20,071	133	965	17,305	957	12,469	213,976	

'Schulkalender," 18th annual issue, June, Berlin, 1869.

-ome of the real-schools and higher burgher-schools have gymnasium-classes, so that many of the first-named

-he same is the case with many of the other States.

|| Called "Lyceums.

,772 scholars.

TABLE III.—*Statistics of Superior (university) Education*

THE UNIVERSITIES OF GERMANY, INCLUDING THOSE OF AUSTRIA AND SWITZERLAND—WINTER SEMESTER, 1869.

LOCATION.	Date of foundation.	TEACHERS.						STUDENTS.								
		Regular professors.	Extraordinary professors.	Honorary professors.	Private teachers.	Teachers of languages, exercises.	Total of all kinds.	Theology.		Law and finance.	Medicine and pharmacy.	Philosophy and philology.	Total.		Total number.	Number belonging to other states.
								Catholic.	Protestant.				Matriculated.	Not matriculated.		
Basle, Switzerland	1460	30	12	.....	15	3	60	.....	55	11	34	21	121	.....	1	27
Berlin, Prussia	1809	54	54	3	59	7	177	.....	337	652	441	828	2, 258	1, 245	3, 563	470
Bern, Switzerland	1834	28	7	3	28	1	67	.....	22	65	139	46	234	39	273	15
Bonn, Prussia	1818	27	11	.....	18	4	60	208	46	173	201	247	875	34	909	75
Breslau, Prussia	1702	44	14	1	.....	11	70[2]	135	67	160	186	332	880	63	943	40
Erlangen, Bavaria	1743	32	10	.....	3	.....	45	.....	262	69	98	30	399	.....	399	113
Freiburg, Baden	1454	31	11	.....	7	3	52	135	.....	53	51	43	282	9	291	33
Giessen, Hesse-Darmstadt	18 7	30	10	1	17[3]	3	61	.....	25	82	95	99	301	18	319	20
Gottingen, Hanover	1737	53	24	.....	26	9	112	.....	150	166	153	225	794	1	795	215
Gratz, Austria	1585	35	5	8[4]	11	4	63	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	567	.....
Greifswalde, Prussia	1456	33	7	.....	12	3	55	.....	33	19	239	100	391	34	425	21
Halle, Prussia	1694	40	16	1	19	6	82	.....	314	53	120	351	838	30	868	126
Heidelberg, Baden	1386	39	27	2	29	14	111	.....	63	277	70	149	559	93	652	163
Jena, Saxe-Weimar	1548	25	14	8	13	6	66	.....	92	83	61	136	372	24	396	172
Innspruck, Austria	1677	37	4	1[5]	.....	4	46[5]	210	.....	119	77[7]	135	541	.....	541	.....
Kiel, Holstein	1665	29	6	.....	.....	.....	35	.....	52	20	60	24	156	5	161[6]	28
Konigsberg, Prussia	1544	38	7	.....	21	3	69	.....	77	85	114	166	440	18	458	18
Leipsic, Saxony	1409	45	45	4	24	4	122	.....	366	383	203	222	1, 374	63	1, 437	593
Marburg, Hesse-Cassel	1527	39	6	.....	14	6	65	.....	69	22	128	110	329	16	345	25
Munich, Bavaria	1472	63	13	11	25	5	117	116	.....	528	336	357	1, 337	.....	1, 337	213
Munster, Prussia	1826	13	8	.....	.....	.....	21	232	.....	.....	.....	204	436	8	444	26
Prague, Austria	1348	48	20	.....	.....	4	72[9]	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1, 442	.....	1, 442	.....
Rostock, Mecklenberg	1419	25	2	1	6	3	37	.....	39	66	42	18	165	.....	165	.....
Tubingen, Wurtemburg	1477	42	17	2[10]	8	6	75	101	231	71	128	85	777	8	785	238
Vienna, Austria	1365	64	35	.....	.....	10	109[13]	.....	.....	.....	.....	62[11]	3, 430	.....	3, 430[14]	.....
Wurtzburg, Bavaria	1582	42	8	.....	10	3	63	77	.....	141	315	118[12]	650	.....	650	244
Zurich, Switzerland	1832	29	9	.....	.....	.....	38	.....	51	20	134	36	241	22	263[15]	63

State.	Area in English sq. miles.	Population.	Agriculture.	Architecture.	Blind.	Commerce.	Deaf-mutes.	Fine arts.	Forestry.	Military.	Mining.	Music.	Nautical.	Polytechnic.	Surgery special.	Technical.	Veterinary surgery.
1. Anhalt	869	193, 646	1			1											
2. Austria, (German Provinces)	124, 116	20, 602, 736	13	1	14	10	11	1	2	13	5	3	6	2	6	4	2
3. Austria, (non-German Provinces)	103, 118	13, 830, 154	4		2	1	2		4	2	3		2	1	2	1	
4. Baden	5, 851	1, 428, 090	2		1		1	1		2				1		44	1
5. Bavaria	29, 347	4, 807, 440	4	1	3	2	10	1	1			11		3		29	1
6. Brunswick	1, 526	292, 708	1		1		1							1		3	
7. Hanover	14, 846	1, 888, 070	1		1	3	1		1		1		3	1			
8. Hesse-Cassel	4, 430	745, 063	1					1	1	1						1	
9. Hesse-Darmstadt	2, 866	816, 902	2		1	1	2		1	1				1			1
10. Holstein-Lauenburg	3, 630	604, 123			1												
11. Lichtenstein	64	7, 150															
12. Lippe-Detmold	445	111, 336					1										
13. Lippe-Schaumburg	212	31, 382															
14. Luxemburg	1, 228	206, 140															
15. Mecklenburg-Schwerin	4, 834	552, 612	1		1	1	1			1			3	1		40	1
16. Mecklenburg-Strelitz	997	99, 060														6	
17. Nassau	1, 802	465, 636	1			1	1			1						27	
18. Oldenburg	2, 417	314, 416	1				1			1			1			1	
19. Prussia	107, 757	19, 269, 563	34	6	10	6	26	3	4	31	9	7	5	2		295	1
20. Reuss-Greitz	148	43, 924															
21. Reuss-Schleitz	297	86, 472				1	1										
22. Saxony	6, 777	2, 343, 994	3	5	2	4	2	2	1	1	3	2		2		7	1
23. Saxe-Altenburg	509	141, 839	2			1	1										
24. Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	816	164, 527	1			1	1					1				3	
25. Saxe-Meiningen	933	178, 065	1				1									1	
26. Saxe-Weimar	1, 421	280, 201	1	2	1	1	1		1								
27. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	340	73, 752															
28. Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	318	66, 189															
29. Waldeck	466	59, 143															
30. Wurtemberg	7, 675	1, 747, 328	6	1	4	1	2	1	1	2				2	2		1
31. Free Cities: Bremen	106	104, 091			1	1	1										
32. Frankfort	43	87, 518				1	1										
33. Hamburg	148	229, 941			1		1						2				
34. Lubeck	127	50, 614														1	

TABLE V.—*Secondary, Superior, and Special Schools in 33 principal towns in Germany*, 1868.

Town.	Country.	Population.	HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOLS.			HIGHER GIRLS' SCHOOLS.			REAL-SCHOOLS.			GYMNASIA.			UNIVERSITIES.		Special schools.
			Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Professors.	Students.	
Aix-la-Chapelle	Prussia	63, 811				1			1	17	297	2	32	727			8
Augsburg	Bavaria	49, 332										2	51	551			4
Berlin	Prussia	632, 395	1	13	238	7	110	2, 800	7	191	3, 931	11	274	5, 215	193	3, 202	34
Bremen	Free City	70, 692							1	17	451	1	15	217			5
Breslau	Prussia	163, 919				3	63	1, 106	2	50	1, 408	4	94	2, 959	90	920	7
Brünn	Austria	58, 809							1	12	320	2	12	300			5
Brunswick	Brunswick	45, 450				2	42	585	1	15	320	1	24	354			11
Cassel	Hesse-Cassel	40, 228				1	27	919	2	40	800	1	28	476			6
Carlsruhe	Baden	30, 555	1	17	380	1	14	311				1	23	615			9
Chemnitz	Saxony	54, 827							1	20	395	1	6	31			6
Cologne	Prussia	122, 162				5	50	708	1	23	601	3	68	1, 348			5
Darmstadt	Hesse-Darmstadt	28, 526				1	17	414	1	23	285	1	17	321			5
Dresden	Saxony	145, 728							2	35	733	2	46	570			16
Düsseldorf	Prussia	44, 297				1	13	220	1	21	566	1	25	486			4
Elberfeld	....do	62, 008				1	11	268	1	20	440	1	15	274			5
Frankfurt	Free City	92, 188	1	32	1, 021	2	18	202	3	67	1, 576	1	20	213			8
Grätz	Austria	63, 176							1	23	366	1	29	613	64	567	6
Halle	Prussia	45, 972				1	17	340	1	21	510	3	49	986	82	873	4
Hamburg	Free City	175, 683							1	16	258	2	32	416			8
Hanover	Hanover	79, 619				3	45	1, 346	1	27	702	1	28	710			12
Königsberg	Prussia	101, 507				3	40	605	2	36	928	3	60	1, 368	66	450	9
Leipzig	Saxony	85, 394							1	20	450	2	32	582	111	1, 227	9
Lübeck	Free City	27, 249	1	8	239				1	9	109	1	21	389			3
Magdeburg	Prussia	98, 494				1			1	29	785	1	25	554			4
Munich	Bavaria	167, 054				1			1	12	94	3	76	919	121	1, 236	15
Münster	Prussia	27, 773				1			1	17	262	1	34	675	26	480	3
Nüremberg	Bavaria	70, 492	1	5	20				1			1	22	472			10
Potsdam	Prussia	42, 266				2	27	665	1	12	300	1	17	360			6
Prague	Austria	142, 588							1	24	477	5	100	2, 210	94	1, 406	13
Rostock	Mecklenburg	26, 396										1	33	848	38	171	3
Stettin	Prussia	70, 809				3	37	961	1	25	881	1	27	709			6
Stuttgart	Würtemberg	69, 084							1	46	1, 100	1	49	779			11
Trieste	Austria	104, 707							1	12	263	2	35	451			3
Vienna	....do	514, 057							8	139	2, 560	7	152	2, 823	192	2, 722	22
Wiesbaden	Nassau	26, 177	1	17	474	1	13	315	1	12	100	1	17	305			2

EUROPEAN CAPITALS AND LARGE CITIES.

BERLIN, PRUSSIA.

Schools and other educational institutions.

Berlin, the capital of Prussia, and one of the largest cities in Europe, is situated on the river Spree, and is comparatively of modern origin. Although as far back as the 13th century the central spot of the present city was inhabited, it was known as little more than a fishing village, scattered on some islands in the Spree and on its right bank. Its name is probably derived from a Sclavonic word, *berle*, indicative of its site in the middle of an extensive sandy plain. The city has no natural advantages of situation, and it was not till the great elector, Frederick William, had united the separate duchies of which the kingdom of Prussia is now formed, that Berlin became of consequence as the business and political capital of a large state. His successors enlarged and beautified the city of their residence, and at the end of the 17th century it numbered 50,000 inhabitants; at the death of Frederick the Great 145,000 inhabitants, and in 1861 a population of 547,571.

Of public buildings and monuments—the visible and permanent evidence of the culture and taste of the government—should be noticed the "Brandenburg Gate," after the model of the Propylæum at Athens, the royal palace and those of the princes of Prussia, the university, the arsenal, the opera house, the academy of arts, the Russian and English embassies, the old and the new museum, the cathedral. A large number of statues of military heroes are distributed throughout the city, the most remarkable of which is the equestrian statue by Rauch, erected in 1851 to the memory of Frederick the Great. But what renders Berlin more eminent is the number and excellence of its educational institutions, for which the city is not unjustly called the school metropolis of the world. In attempting to give a brief survey of these institutions we shall conform as nearly as possible to the American classification of schools.

1. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

A. *Infant Schools.*—There are 13 parochial infant schools under the charge of the principal churches, and 7 schools, with 643 pupils and 7 teachers, under the Gossner Society; 17 schools, with 2,525 pupils and 17 teachers of the society, under the patronage of the Queen dowager. Of infant gardens (Kindergarten) the Berlin association of ladies has organized 8, with 436 children under 8 teachers, upon the system of Froebel, in which the tuition per year is about $13. The society for family and popular education has founded 9 gardens, which are attended by 590 children under 12 teachers, in which the tuition fee is about $2; expenditure about $850. Of private infant gardens there are 19, under 20 teachers.

B. Seminaries for Infant Teachers.—1. Seminary for the education of teachers in infant gardens, founded April 1, 1862, by the Berlin ladies association. The object of this seminary is to afford a complete course of training in Froebel's system and the pedagogy of infant gardens, and to train ladies for educators of young children in the family or in these gardens. Each course of instruction extends through six months, with 18 lessons per week, and embraces the following branches:

(*a*) Hygiene and gymnastics; (*b*) psychology and general theory of education; (*c*) Froebel's special system of education; (*d*) theory of mathematical

forms as means of play and occupation; (*e*) culture of the voice and singing; (*f*) practical employment and plays in the infant garden, &c.

Pupils, in order to be admitted, should have attended the first class of a higher school for girls, and are subject to an examination. The fees for tuition are three thalers per quarter. At the end of the course the pupils are required to pass a practical and theoretical examination and receive a certificate of their proficiency.

2. Institute for the education of teachers in infant gardens, founded in 1863 by the society for family and popular education. Course, one year; 16 pupils; fees, 2 thalers per month.

3. Pedagogical society, established October 1, 1861, holds one session in every month, and is attended by almost all teachers of infant gardens of the city, for their perfection in the theory of education.

4. Institute for the education of nurses for children, founded in 1864, by the ladies' association, has 20 pupils.

5. Institute for children's nurses, established in 1864, gives gratuitous instruction every Sunday afternoon. Number of pupils, 34.

C. *Elementary schools.*

Schools.	No.	Classes.		Pupils.		Teachers.		Tuition fee per year.
		Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Male.	Fem.	
Public:								*Thalers.*
Protestant communal schools	40	249 (both)	222	15,198	13,380	404	170	2-8
Catholic communal schools	6							
Parochial schools	11	22	19	884	937	29	22	1-8
Elementary and work schools for girls	9	......	18	......	720	9	9	....
Catholic parochial school	1	4	3	262	274	5	5	6
Higher schools for boys	3	19	......	940	......	22	......	15-24
Higher schools for girls	7	......	63	......	2,543	51	30	24-28
Private:								
Primary schools	23	85	83	5,178	4,835	118	83	8-12
Intermediate schools for boys and girls	17	122	12	5,850	484	149	11	12-27
Intermediate schools for girls	21	......	135	......	5,250	83	137	16-24
Jewish communal school	1	13	......	664	......	18	......	....
Jewish intermediate school	1	......	8	......	400	6	9	....
Jewish religious school	2	8	6	184	165	10	......	12
Higher schools for boys	7	55	......	1,682	......	75	......	24-36
Higher schools for girls	33	......	215	......	6,182	252	214	24-36
	182	577	784	30,822	35,170	1,231	690	....
TEACHERS' SEMINARIES.								
Royal Evangelical City Teachers' Seminary	1	3	......	53	......	9	......	....
Royal Evangelical Seminary for female teachers	1	......	2	......	36	8	......	....
Jewish Teachers' Seminary	1	3	......	31	......	12	......	....

II. SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Name of school.	When founded.	Number of volumes in library.	Number of classes.	Number of pupils.	Number of teachers.	Expenditures.	Graduates.	Tuition fee.	Teachers' salaries. Minimum.	Teachers' salaries. Maximum.
Public:										
(*a*) Higher burgher schools—						*Thaler*		*Th'r*		
Stralauer higher burgher school...	1833	650	*9 †3	205 121	18	14, 310	3	25	500	1, 200
Sophienstadt higher burgher sch'l.	1868	......	.....	......	....	......	....	....	600	1, 600
(*b*) Technical schools—										
Louisenstadt..................	1865	......	*7 †2	206 119	18	13, 324	....	27	500	1, 900
City Frederic Werder technical school..................	1824	......	18	595	30	29, 189	1	27	600	1, 900
(*c*) Real schools—										
Royal	1747	4, 300	15	679	27	......	8	28	500	1, 200
Königstadt real school...........	1832	......	*14 †4	474 200	30	25, 535	7	25	600	2, 200
Louisenstadt real school.........	1836	......	15	739	30	24, 890	4	25	600	2, 200
Dorotheenstadt real school.......	1836	......	*13 †4	413 152	27	24, 440	3	25	500	2, 200
(*d*) Progymnasiums—										
Schindler orphan house..........	1750	......	3	22	9	......	....	....	....	......
Superior school for Catholic boys..	1860	......	8	211	9	......	....	....	....	......
(*e*) Gymnasiums—										
City gymnasium	1574	22, 000	15	518	29	24, 740	21	25	500	2, 900
Frederic William's gymnasium...	1797	5, 500	15	626	31	35, 640	20	27	500	2, 750
Royal Joachimsthal gymnasium..	1607	24, 000	12	372	31	37, 670	21	25	....	......
City Frederic Werder gymnasium.	1681	4, 920	14	510	29	22, 030	30	25	600	2, 467½
Collège Royal Français..........	1689	6, 656	9	322	19	15, 770	9	27	....	......
City Cöln real gymnasium.......	1540	......	*11 †12	365 532	23	19, 830	11 13	25	....	......
City Frederic's gymnasium and real school..................	1850	......	‡7 §5	221 286	35	36, 830	2	25	500	2, 000
King William's gymnasium......	1858	5, 000	‡12 §5	522 212	26	......	13	30	....	......
Louisenstadt gymnasium........	1863	......	11	334	19	17, 700	....	25	600	2, 200
City Sophia gymnasium.........	1865	......	10	370	14	14, 600	....	25	600	1, 300
Total 20 secondary schools.....	....	......	254	9, 326	454	......	....	....	....	......

* Boys. † Girls. ‡ Real. § Elementary.

The schools denominated gymnasiums are intended to prepare students, by a general classical and scientific education, for the professional studies at the university. Their prominent branches of instruction are ancient languages, history, and philosophy, and in range and thoroughness give a better education than the American college. The real schools, of more modern origin, educate pupils for the higher vocations of civil life, and prepare them for superior technical instruction in polytechnic, architectural, mechanic schools, &c. The distinctive feature of their plan of instruction is modern languages, mathematics, and the natural sciences. The burgher and technical schools are real schools of a second order.

III. Superior education.

The department of education defines superior schools to be such as are entitled by law to grant the degrees of Bachelor and Master of Arts and Science. To this category belongs the Frederic William University at Berlin, which was founded in 1809 by Frederick William III, who gave over to its use the palace of Prince Henry. This university not only provides for a more general culture than the gymnasiums, but possesses faculties of theology, jurisprudence, medicine, and philosophy. The system of instruction, as in all German universities, is by lectures, which (1857) were delivered by 6 members of the Academy of Sciences, 48 ordinary and 41 extraordinary professors, 57 private docents—altogether by over 150 teachers. The number of regular students exceeds 2,000 every year. In connection with the university are: 1, a theological seminary; 2, a philological seminary; 3, a clinic; 4, an anatomical collection; 5, Christian archæological collection; 6, anatomical theatre; 7, physiological apparatus and laboratorium; 8, collection of surgical and obstetrical instruments; 9, zoological collection; 10, mineral collection; 11, pharmacological collection; 12, university garden; 13, the library of the university.

The state contributes towards the university the annual sum of about 160,000 thalers. To this head belong the following seminaries for teachers of secondary and superior schools:

1. Royal seminary—State contribution, 2,390 thalers; 10 members. Stipends to poor students, 160–200 thalers.

2. Seminary for teachers of mathematics and natural philosophy for gymnasiums and real schools.

3. Seminary for teachers of modern languages, under direction of Professor Dr. L. Herrig.

4. Beth-ha Midrach, a seminary founded by Heine Veitel Ephraim, by testament, October 23, 1774. Until 1836 it was devoted exclusively to the study of the Talmud; since then it has included various objects of instruction, defined as rabbinical literature in Hebrew, Aramaeic, and Arabic. Tuition is gratuitous. The library contains a great number of the rabbinical and general oriental literature.

IV. Special education.

1. Private commercial school, under direction of Dr. Frantz, established in 1848; a school of 5 classes, with 209 pupils and 11 teachers. In 1867 the number of graduates was 24. The tuition fee is above 60 thalers per year. The school ranks, in regard to privileges on the part of the state, with the second class of a gymnasium or real school. Its graduates can be candidates for certain positions under the government.

2. Private real and technical school for girls, founded in 1866, for the object of promoting the means of self-support among women by suitable scientific instruction on industry, commerce, domestic economy, &c. The school has 2 classes, 38 pupils, 6 male, and 1 female teacher, and enjoys the patronage of her Royal Highness the crown princess of Prussia.

3. Royal academy of architecture, founded in 1798, suspended in 1802, and reopened in 1824, for the education of architects for the state and for private practice. Course of instruction, two years. Qualification for admission, certificate of final examination from a gymnasium or real school and certificate of one year's practical apprenticeship with a qualified architect; presentation of specimens of architectural design. This academy has 31 professors, who receive salaries from 500 to 1,800 and even as high as 4,000 thalers. The state contributes to its expenditure annually about 25,000 thalers.

4. Royal technical institute, established in 1820, admits pupils who have passed the final examination at a provincial technical school or a real school and

gymnasium. The institute is divided into: 1, general technical division; 2, division of special branches, as (*a*) mechanics, (*b*) chemistry and metallurgy, (*c*) ship-building. The course extends through three years. Tuition fee, 25 thalers semi-annually. Number of pupils 420, and 60 visitors. Annual contribution of the state, 42,300 thalers. There are 10 regular teachers and a number of assistant teachers. The former receive from 600 to 1,600 thalers salary. The object of the institute is to educate civil engineers and directors of great manufacturing and other industries.

5. Royal academy of mining, founded in 1860. Only such students are admitted who are legally qualified to attend the instruction of a university. The course is for one year, and embraces among its branches of instruction, theory of mining, salines, general metallurgy, manufacture of iron, theory of machines, surveying, design and construction of mines, methods of projection, mineralogy, geognosy, &c. The salary of its 11 teachers varies from 600 to 1,800 thalers.

6. The veterinary school, for the education of veterinary surgeons and blacksmiths for the army. Its board of teachers forms the highest advisory authority of the state in veterinary-medical affairs. The number of pupils averages from 80 to 100. The expenditure of the institute amounts to over 36,000 thalers annually, of which the state contributes nearly 16,000 thalers.

7. The royal academy of arts, established by the Elector Frederic III, in the year 1690, and reorganized in 1786. The building, erected in 1690, suffered by fire in 1743, but was considerably enlarged in 1836 The annual expense of the academy was 33,903 thalers. There is one section each for painting, sculpture, and music. The collection of engravings, models, and paintings is one of the most valuable in Europe.

8. The royal institute for church music was founded 1822, with the object of training organists and teachers of music for gymnasiums, real schools, and seminaries. The course of instruction extends through one year, but pupils are permitted to prolong their attendance through several courses. The number of students is limited to 20. They are required to be not less than 15 years of age, to show a decided talent for music, and pass satisfactorily a preliminary examination. This institute is under direction of Mr. Bach.

9. The following military schools are located at Berlin:

1. *The Senior Cadet House*, founded in 1717; a school of 3 classes in 19 divisions, with 507 cadets and 22 teachers. The course covers 5 years; pupils are admitted at the age of 12. The course of instruction is similar to that of a gymnasium. The recitation hours last from 8 to 11 or 12 in the morning, and from 2 to 4 or 5 in the evening. The holidays are one month in summer, (in July and August,) ten days at Christmas, eight days at Easter, and four at Whitsuntide. A strict military discipline is, of course, maintained, and all the pupils wear uniform. Those who complete their first year satisfactorily are considered to be sufficiently prepared for ordinary admission.

2. *The United Artillery and Engineers' School at Berlin*, founded in 1822 by Frederick William III. The course of instruction covers three years. The number of pupils varies from 216 to 240. The director of the school is appointed by the king; he is a field-officer, of either artillery or engineers, and has the rank of commander of a regiment. The maximum number of students who enter each year is 80; 60 from the artillery and 20 from the engineers. (The teachers are, as much as possible, selected from among the officers of artillery and engineers.) The entry into the school is conditional on the applicant having passed, in the manner officially prescribed, the examination for ensign. The annual expense of the school is fixed at 16,049 thalers.

3. *The War or Staff School at Berlin*, founded by Frederick the Great; it is intended to receive officers of all arms, who, during three years of active service, have given proof of ability, and of particular capacity. They find there the means for acquiring the knowledge requisite for the higher ranks of the service. The course of studies is for three years, and is divided amongst three classes. The number of officers who can be received is 120. The military direction consists of a director, a field-officer connected with the direction as inspector, and an adjutant, who directs the accounts of the institution.

V. Charitable Schools.

Name of school.	When founded.	Number of classes.	Number of pupils.	Teachers. Male.	Teachers. Female.	Teachers' salaries.
						Thalers.
Royal institute for deaf and dumb*	1783	8	125	9	2	300–700
Royal institute for the blind †	1806	2	32	4	1	....
Great Frederic's orphan home ‡	1859	7	314 / 196	9	5	300–600
Workhouse school	......	2	......	1	......	400
Kornmesser's orphan house	1719	2	23	4	......	....
Schindler's orphan house	1730	3	22	9	......	....
Childrens' hospitium of the French church	......	8	75 / 67	10	2	....
Louisa foundation	1817	1	40	2	......	....
Frederic's foundation	1807	2	30 / 28	2	1	....
Wadzeck's asylum for poor children	1819	2	50 / 55	2	1	....
Institute for neglected children	1825	3 / 1	120 / 43	5	2	....
School of the Invalid's house	1748	2	130	2	1	....
Baruch Auerbach institute for Jewish orphan boys §	1832	1	44	5	......	....
Baruch Auerbach institute for Jewish orphan girls ‖	1842	1	16	3	2	....
	......	45	1,410	67	17	....

* Expenditure: 11,460 thalers. † Total teachers' salary, 3,000 thalers; expenditure, 6,610 thalers.
‡ Cost of building: 313,000 thalers. § Funds: 187,757 thalers. ‖ Funds: 90,230 thalers.

VI. Supplementary education.

In the city there are 6 Sunday schools for apprentices, to afford this class of youth an opportunity to perfect their elementary education. In 1866, 2058 apprentices were instructed in 25 classes by 25 teachers, at an expense of 2715 thalers. There are 3 city supplementary schools, for adults from the classes of mechanics and business men, established for the purpose of giving, on Sundays, to persons engaged in practical pursuits, such additional instruction as their special trade calls for. In 1867 these three schools were attended by 1340 scholars, taught by 38 teachers.

VII. Gymnastic education.

1. The royal central gymnastic institute, for pupils in military and civil life. The two sections are separated, each having its own teachers. The object of the institute is to form teachers of gymnastics. During the last year the course was attended by 38 officers of all arms, and 39 teachers.

2. City gymnastic hall, opened in 1864, for the gymnastic exercises of the city secondary schools. Each pupil contributes one thaler per year. There are 7 teachers, who receive from 600 to 800 thalers salary. Assistant teachers are paid one-half thaler per hour.

3. Gymnastic hall of the Alexandra foundation includes about 20 different associations, with about 50 societies of "Turners."

VIII. Societies, &c.

1. Royal academy of science, founded in 1700, reorganized in 1812 by King Frederic William III. The expenditures amount annually for salaries to about 15,000 thalers, and for sundries to nearly 8,000 thalers. Since 1770 the transactions of the academy are published, formerly in the French, now in the German language. The academy is under the patronage of the King, and its members are from the most distinguished learned men of Germany and other countries, with numerous regular correspondents all over the globe.

2. Royal library, founded by Frederick William, the great elector, in 1659. At first in a wing of the royal palace, it was in 1782 removed by Frederic II. to a new building on the Opera place. This library, which under certain regulations is accessible to the public, consists of about 750,000 printed volumes and 11,000 manuscripts. Among the latter is a manuscript of the four Gospels, from the 8th century, presented, as tradition says, by Charlemagne to Wittekind. Beyond reading in the various halls, 35,000 volumes were loaned out last year.

3. City popular libraries are 8 in number. They were opened in 1850, and contain 29,000 volumes. Admission, which is gratuitous and free to all, takes place on two week-days from 12 to 2 o'clock, and on Sundays between 11 and 1 o'clock, and about 10,000 persons make use of these libraries.

4. Royal observatory, founded on the recommendation of Alexander Von Humboldt in 1828. It is now under direction of Professor Dr. Encke, secretary royal academy of science.

5. Chemical laboratory.

6. Royal botanical garden, on the road to Potsdam, has 18 large greenhouses, plants from all parts of the earth, over 18,000 species.

7. Royal herbarium, under direction of Professor Dr. Braun, member of the royal academy of Science.

8. Zoological garden, established in 1844, to which the state contributes annually 6,000 to 8,000 thalers.

Since the above was written a magnificent new laboratory has been built at an expense of over 318,100 thalers, borne by the Prussian government, for the purposes of the University and the Academy of Sciences.

The Aquarium. The new aquarium, founded and maintained by a joint stock company at the expense of several hundred thousand thalers, is perfect in all its appointments, and reflects great credit on the eminent zoologist, Dr. Brehm, who was entrusted with the technical and scientific superintendence of the building. The aquarium proper occupies only a portion of the building, which covers an area of 13,550 square feet; it contains 118 cages, reservoirs, and ponds; the length of the galleries is 780 feet, and their height varies from 15 to 17 feet; the open aquaria held 6,000 cubic feet of water, and the reservoir, 13,220. The number of specimens of living animals, already now very large, is to be increased to the number of 40,000.

Only a portion of the schools and institutions are supported from the funds of the city of Berlin, large appropriations being annually made for these objects by the government. The amount contributed by the city in 1867 was 415,863 thalers, viz:

	Receipts.	Expenditures.
Six city gymnasiums and one real school	$83,196	$135,730
Four real schools, two technical schools, two higher schools for girls	99,659	155,009
Forty-six communal schools	51,135	340,313
Gymnastics, &c.	8,021	26,922
Balance from city funds	415,863	....
Total	657,974	657,974

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF PRUSSIA.

I.—*Elementary schools.*

Provinces.	Public elementary schools, close of 1861.*												Total number.				Number of children of school age.
	Evangelical.				Catholic.				Jewish.								
	Schools.	Classes.	Male teachers.	Female teachers.	Schools.	Classes.	Male teachers.	Female teachers.	Schools.	Classes.	Male teachers.	Female teachers.	Schools.	Classes.	Male teachers.	Female teachers.	
Prussia—																	
Cities	269	857	798	77	80	204	160	47	8	13	13	....	357	1,074	971	124	90,621
Country	3,328	3,629	3,613	5	924	964	963	3	.....	.....	.....	....	4,252	4,593	4,576	8	363,353
Total	3,597	4,486	4,411	82	1,004	1,168	1,123	50	8	13	13	...	4,609	5,667	5,547	132	453,974
Posen—																	
Cities	150	353	346	8	140	300	298	1	78	137	136	...	368	790	780	9	71,469
Country	723	733	732	......	1,057	1,089	1,078	....	.....	.....	.....	...	1,780	1,822	1,078	....	161,726
Total	873	1,086	1,078	8	1,197	1,389	1,376	1	78	137	136	....	2,148	2,612	1,858	9	233,195
Brandenburg—																	
Cities	377	1,886	1,722	84	21	60	34	21	6	2	33	1	404	1,968	1,789	106	196,550
Country	2,566	3,248	2,822	3	9	12	11	....	.....	.....	.....	...	2,575	3,260	2,833	3	230,825
Total	2,943	5,134	4,544	87	30	72	45	21	6	22	33	1	2,979	5,228	4,622	109	427,375
Pommerania—																	
Cities	154	918	892	79	4	5	5	....	6	12	11	....	164	935	908	79	66,329
Country	2,361	2,339	2,486	32	15	18	15	....	.....	.....	.....	...	2,376	2,557	2,501	32	173,726
Total	2,515	3,477	3,378	111	19	23	20	....	6	12	11	....	2,540	3,492	3,409	111	240,055
Silesia—																	
Cities	201	794	729	7	163	559	515	42	2	8	11	2	366	1,361	1,255	51	113,814
Country	2,012	2,649	2,197	27	1,494	2,204	2,116	....	.....	.....	.....	...	3,506	4,853	4,313	27	432,482
Total	2,213	3,443	2,926	34	1,657	2,763	2,631	42	2	8	11	2	3,872	6,214	5,568	78	546,296

Saxony—																	
Cities	308	1,546	1,484	37	28	62	50	16	2	2	2	....	338	1,610	1,536	53	129,405
Country	2,295	2,716	2,603	......	150	155	155	1	1	1	1	....	2,446	2,871	2,738	1	*232,969
Total	2,603	4,262	4,087	37	178	217	205	17	3	3	3	....	2,784	4,481	4,294	54	362,374
Rhenish Province—																	
Cities	265	624	601	20	377	1,138	730	428	19	21	21	....	661	1,783	1,352	448	183,149
Country	744	886	876	3	2,479	3,367	2,977	389	11	11	11	....	3,234	4,264	3,864	392	364,709
Total	1,009	1,510	1,477	23	2,856	4,505	3,707	817	30	32	32	...	3,895	6,047	5,216	840	547,858
Westphalia—																	
Cities	117	371	324	33	145	369	213	161	6	8	6	....	268	748	543	194	70,036
Country	670	1,019	798	16	887	1,094	869	212	......	......	......	....	1,557	2,113	1,667	228	198,813
Total	787	1,390	1,122	49	1,032	1,463	1,082	373	6	8	6	....	1,825	2,861	2,210	422	268,849
Hohenzollern—																	
Cities	......	......	......	......	7	19	19	......	2	2	2	...	9	21	21	......	1,573
Country	......	......	......	......	102	139	139	......	......	......	......	....	102	139	139	......	8,745
Total	......	......	......	....	109	158	158	......	2	2	2	...	111	160	160	......	10,318
Total—cities	1,841	7,349	6,896	345	965	2,716	2,024	716	129	225	235	3	2,935	10,290	9,155	1,064	922,946
Total—country	14,699	17,439	16,127	86	7,117	9,042	8,323	605	12	12	12	....	21,828	26,493	24,462	691	2,167,348
Grand total	16,540	24,788	23,023	431	8,082	11,758	10,347	1,321	141	237	247	3	24,763	36,783	33,617	1,755	3,090,294

* The following comparative statement of the number of schools, teachers, and pupils, at different periods, shows the regular development of the system of elementary schools from 1821 to 1861: In 1819 there were 20,085 schools, 21,895 teachers, with 1,664,218 pupils, out of 1,923,200 children of school age; in 1825, 21,625 schools, 22,965 teachers; in 1831, 22,612 schools, 27,749 teachers, with 2,021,421 pupils, out of 2,043,030 children of school age; in 1843, 23,646 schools, 29,631 teachers, with 2,328,146 pupils, out of 2,992,124 children of school age; in 1846, 25,332 schools, 32,316 teachers, with 2,540,775 pupils; in 1861, 24,713 schools, with 36,783 classes, 35,372 teachers, and 2,875,836 pupils, out of 3,090,294 children of school age. These schools, though public, *i. e.*, under the control and administration of the State, leave it to every community to stamp a denominational character upon them; in so far, that wherever the majority of a commune are Protestants, the regular religious instruction in the schools and the teachers themselves will be Protestant also, and Catholic or other children are instructed in the doctrines of their belief by their own clergy, outside of school. Hence, according to the preponderance of the churches in different portions of the State, are found Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish schools; but the State does not acknowledge dissenters; that is, religious bodies. Moreover, it frequently occurs that Catholic children attend Protestant schools; the contrary however, does rarely happen.

I.—*Elementary schools*—Continued.

Provinces.	Number attending elementary schools.					Amounts received for teachers' salaries.				Average salary per teacher.	Private—		Per cent. in schools.	Seminaries for teachers.	Population in 1860.
	Protestant.	Catholic.	Jewish.	Dissenters.	Total.	By tuition fee.	By commune.	By State.	Total.		Schools.	Classes.			
						*Thalers.**	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thal.*					
Prussia—															
Cities	49, 849	17, 896	3, 680	253	71, 679	88, 457	192, 210	13, 006	293, 673	268	235	400	91–92	8	2, 866, 866
Country	254, 326	89, 176	1, 024	726	345, 252	73, 752	606, 037	51, 810	731, 599	160					
Total	304, 175	107, 072	4, 705	979	416, 931	162, 209	798, 247	64, 816	1, 025, 272	182	235	400	91–92	8	2, 866, 866
Posen—															
Cities	23, 114	27, 902	10, 459	70	61, 545	17, 163	137, 428	21, 782	176, 373	224	112	210	93–94	6	1, 485, 550
Country	52, 801	103, 501	572	65	156, 939	124	246, 092	13, 724	259, 940	144					
Total	75, 915	131, 403	11, 031	135	218, 484	17, 287	383, 520	35, 506	436, 313	167	112	210	93–94	6	1, 485, 550
Brandenburg—															
Cities	120, 047	3, 738	2, 296	186	126, 267	182, 823	347, 661	52, 854	583, 338	308	196	776	82–83	5	2, 467, 759
Country	225, 149	984	437	579	227, 149	237, 963	316, 250	28, 612	582, 845	206					
Total	345, 196	4, 722	2, 733	765	353, 416	420, 786	663, 911	81, 466	1, 166, 183	247	196	776	82–83	5	2, 467, 759
Pommerania—															
Cities	55, 599	344	1, 606	418	57, 967	92, 285	166, 684	6, 589	265, 558	269	173	261	93–94	5	1, 389, 739
Country	164, 865	1, 016	324	1, 158	167, 363	137, 561	218, 574	11, 741	367, 876	145					
Total	220, 464	1, 360	1, 930	1, 576	225, 330	229, 846	385, 258	18, 330	633, 434	180	173	261	93–94	5	1, 389, 739
Silesia—															
Cities	51, 127	46, 108	2, 715	411	100, 361	121, 040	231, 508	8, 224	360, 772	276	183	400	93–94	7	3, 390, 695
Country	202, 766	214, 612	647	838	418, 863	261, 552	504, 556	20, 316	786, 424	158					
Total	253, 893	260, 720	3, 362	1, 249	519, 224	382, 592	736, 064	28, 540	1, 147, 196	203	183	400	93–94	7	3, 390, 695
Saxony—															
Cities	116, 179	4, 448	644	652	121, 923	205, 133	288, 196	15, 366	448, 695	284	63	103	96–97	12	1, 976, 417
Country	212, 360	15, 531	53	106	228, 050	184, 058	440, 471	25, 383	649, 912	235					
Total	328, 539	19, 979	697	758	340, 973	389, 191	668, 667	40, 749	1, 098, 607	253	63	103	96–97	12	1, 976, 417

Rhenish Province—															
Cities	59,754	103,157	1,671	209	164,791	225,791	309,428	6,219	541,438	300	275	540	95	6	3,215,784
Country	68,200	285,004	2,606	303	356,113	266,111	542,746	22,894	831,751	195					
Total	127,954	388,161	4,277	512	520,904	491,902	852,174	29,113	1,373,189	227	275	540	95	6	3,215,784
Westphalia—															
Cities	29,360	35,226	589	25	65,200	80,442	115,037	10,870	206,349	280	195	252	97–98	2	1,618,065
Country	90,333	105,144	588	91	196,156	146,693	197,080	18,908	362,681	191					
Total	119,693	140,370	1,177	116	261,356	227,135	312,117	29,778	569,030	216	195	252	97–98	2	1,618,065
Hohenzollern—															
Cities	29	1,333	122	....	1,484	260	3,496	774	4,530	216	2	2	99	......	64,675
Country	30	8,685	19	....	8,734	863	16,461	4,257	21,581	155					
Total	59	10,018	141	....	10,218	1,123	19,957	5,031	26,111	216	2	2	99	......	64,675
Total—cities	505,058	240,152	23,783	2,224	771,217	1,013,394	1,731,648	135,684	2,880,726	281	1,434	2,944	93–94	51	18,475,550
Total—country	1,270,830	823,653	6,270	3,866	2,104,619	1,308,697	3,088,267	197,645	4,594,609	181					
Grand total	1,775,883	1,063,805	30,053	6,090	2,875,836	2,422,091	4,819,915	333,329	7,475,335	210	1,434	2,944	93–94	51	18,475,550

*One Prussian thaler equals 72 cents in gold, nearly one dollar in currency.

REMARKS.—The meaning of *classes*, in this table, is not the division of pupils by branches in the school room, but the actual gradation and separation in different class rooms, under special assistant teachers, by age and attainments, of the pupils attending a large school. While in the country a school generally has but one teacher and one class, the elementary schools in cities (under a principal) are separated into from two to four classes and more, each with a special teacher. Private schools can be established only with the approval, and subject to control, of school authorities, by teachers qualified by examination. Of private elementary schools Prussia had in 1861: 709 evangelical, 241 catholic, and 174 Jewish schools, in cities; 169 evangelical, 107 catholic, 34 Jewish, in the country; total, 1,434 schools, with 84,021 pupils. With a population of 18,475,550, the number of children between five and fourteen years was 3,090,294, about 17 per cent. of the population. The average attendance at public schools being 2,875,836, (93 to 94 per cent.,) and of private schools 84,021, gives a total of 2,959,857 in elementary schools, leaving 130,407 apparently without instruction. However, the great number of elementary classes connected with secondary schools absorbs the greater portion of these. The total amount of expenditures for elementary schools in Prussia, for 1863, was 9,901,896 thalers, (1 thaler = 72 cents gold,) of which 2,320,968 thalers were from tuition fees, 7,142,000 thalers from communes and endowments, and 438,928 thalers, State appropriation. Every elementary teacher is entitled to house, fuel, and land, beside his salary. In the city of Berlin principal teachers receive from 750 to 900 thalers, and class teachers from 400 to 750 thalers. The number of teachers' seminaries, in 1863, had increased to 64.

The number of male and female teachers denotes only those persons who actually fill positions at schools. Contributions from the State to each institution are based on special grounds; yet assistance is always rendered whenever necessary. The teachers' pension funds and funds for widows and orphans of teachers were placed on a new foundation in 1867. Every teacher and every school district pays a certain annual contribution into the special fund, administered by the governmental district, and in case of incapacity by age or ill-health, the teacher receives a pension in proportion to the number of years he has served in a public school, sometimes as high as two-thirds of his former salary. A moderate pension is also paid to widows of teachers until their children become capable to provide for themselves.

II.—*Secondary schools in 1866.*

Provinces.	Gymnasiums.																								Progymnasiums.					
																		Expenditure.*												
																		Contributed by the State.†		Contributed by—										
	Protestant.	Catholic.	United.	Total.	Maximum attendance.	Minimum attendance.	Number of directors.	Salary of directors.	Number of chief teachers.	Salary of chief teachers.	Theologians.	Ordinary teachers.	Scientific assistants.	Third-class salaries.	Technical teachers.	Elementary teachers.	Total teachers.	Total salaries paid to teachers.	Treasury.	Endowments under the State.	Commune.	Private endowments.	Tuition fees.	Total.	Protestant.	Catholic.	United.	Total.	Attendance above 200.	Attendance below 200.
								Thal.		*Thal.*				*Thal.*				*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thal.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*						
Prussia	15	6	..	21	539	127	21	1,800	77	1,600	19	116	12	1,400	32	17	294	183,683	58,188	20,604	30,110	1,101	91,097	215,510	..	..	..	..	..	..
Brandenburg	24	..	..	24	615	79	24	1,800	117	1,600	4	140	31	1,400	50	39	403	267,420	51,347	5,385	45,411	12,471	205,479	384,364	2	..	..	2	..	2
Pomerania	13	..	..	13	608	127	14	1,800	50	1,600	1	75	19	1,400	28	18	205	122,277	12,422	11,974	32,760	11,501	82,095	156,709	1	..	..	1	..	1
Silesia	15	8	..	23	636	133	23	1,800	85	1,600	31	112	37	1,400	39	24	351	193,399	18,700	68,598	25,320	8,145	124,121	283,785	1	..	..	1	..	1
Posen	4	2	3	9	509	200	10	1,800	30	1,600	22	53	9	1,400	10	7	141	75,720	19,413	21,400	6,433	928	43,701	96,729	..	..	1	1	..	1
Saxony	22	1	1	24	642	97	24	1,800	84	1,600	11	115	20	1,400	47	6	307	182,070	45,903	62,254	15,645	11,850	99,143	320,701	1	..	..	1	.	1
Westphalia	8	8	..	16	641	87	18	......	64	......	24	96	22	1,400	19	12	255	135,119	24,306	26,052	21,821	5,482	57,999	164,614	..	5	..	5	..	5
Rhenish Province and Hohenzollern	9	14	1	24	553	35	34	......	82	......	58	161	20	1,400	62	13	430	219,785	41,268	14,101	30,983	10,317	114,139	315,396	3	9	2	14	1	13
Total	110	39	5	154	....	....	168	......	589	......	170	848	170	......	287	136	2,388	1,379,473	271,547	230,368	208,483	61,795	817,774	1,937,399	8	14	3	25	..	..

* The total expenditure on the Prussian secondary schools, in the year 1864, in all the provinces, was, by the State, in direct public grant, 292,918 thalers; by grant from income of endowment at State disposal, 233,804 thalers; by town municipalities, 401,046 thalers; by independent endowments, 75,637 thalers; by scholars' payments, 1,193,055 thalers; a grand total of 2,580,634 thalers.

† Total contributed by the State, 501,915 thalers.

Progressive Development of Secondary Schools.—Of existing gymnasiums, 4 date back to the eighth and ninth century, 3 to the tenth and eleventh century, 9 to the thirteenth century, 14 to the fourteenth century, 6 to the fifteenth century, and 17 more to a period anterior to the Reformation but without a certain date. In the sixteenth century, 70 institutions were founded; in the seventeenth, 28; in the eighteenth, 21; and in the nineteenth, 75. In 1818, when the reorganization of the gymnasiums (begun in 1812) was completed, there were 91 institutions of this class in operation, of which 71 were evangelical, 17 Catholic, and 3 mixed. These had increased to 154 in 1866, of which 110 were evangelical, 39 Catholic, and 5 mixed. Of progymnasiums there were 22 in 1832, which had increased to 25 in 1866.

II.—*Secondary schools in* 1866—Continued.

Real schools of the first order.

Provinces.	Protestant.	Catholic.	United.	Total.	Maximum attendance.	Minimum attendance.	Directors.	Chief teachers.	Theologians.	Ordinary teachers.	Scientific assistants.	Technical teachers.	Elementary teachers.	Total.
Prussia	8	..	..	8	472	102	10	22	7	50	13	12	14	128
Brandenburg †	11	..	..	11	6[illegible]5	130	15	47	3	92	6	32	38	233
Pomerania	3	..	..	3	631	236	3	8	..	15	5	2	7	40
Silesia	4	..	2	6	686	211	7	2[illegible]	13	33	78	17	10	11[illegible]
Posen	3	..	2	5	474	160	5	2[illegible]	8	30	1[illegible]	6	2	8[illegible]
Saxony	5	..	1	6	532	229	7	22	5	45	6	14	10	109
Westphalia	6	1	..	7	255	168	5	11	8	21	2	6	3	56
Rhenish Province and Hohenzollern	6	..	4	10	601	60	20	32	21	98	11	31	16	229
Total	46	1	9	56	....	...	72	185	65	384	61	120	100	987

Real schools of the first order (continued): salaries and expenditure.

Provinces.	Total salaries paid to teachers.	Expenditure. Contributed by the State.* Treasury.	Endowments under the State.	Contributed by— Commune.	Private endowments.	Tuition fees.	Total.
	Thalers.	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thal.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*
Prussia	67, 537	565	....	21, 727	3, 065	43, 506	86, 996
Brandenburg †	125, 680	945	1, 336	50, 172	2, 235	96, 831	154, 324
Pomerania	26, 472	....	1, 500	9, 980	......	19, 558	32, 106
Silesia	58, 520	280	....	22, 004	1, 694	41, 962	69, 114
Posen	40, 4[illegible]4	6, 775	....	16, 562	......	24, 26[illegible]	47, 905
Saxony	53, 278	....	....	17, 219	109	42, 923	62, 206
Westphalia	28, 760	3, 700	....	11, 266	512	18, 143	35, 530
Rhenish Province and Hohenzollern	122, 926	1, 606	600	43, 533	6, 227	88, 596	147, 604
Total	523, 897	13, 871	3, 436	192, 563	13, 842	375, 281	635, 785

Real schools, second order; Higher burgher schools; Total secondary schools.

Provinces.	Real schools, second order: Protestant.	Catholic.	United.	Total.	Attendance above 200.	Attendance below 200.	Higher burgher schools: Protestant.	Catholic.	United.	Total.	Attendance above 200.	Attendance below 200.	Total secondary schools: Protestant.	Catholic.	United.	Total.
Prussia	2	..	..	2	2	..	2	..	..	2	1	1	27	6	..	33
Brandenburg †	5	..	..	5	3	2	4	..	..	4	3	2	46	.	..	46
Pomerania	1	..	..	1	..	1	2	..	..	2	..	2	20	.	..	20
Silesia	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	2	1	1	22	8	2	32
Posen	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7	2	6	15
Saxony	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	..	3	2	1	31	1	2	34
Westphalia	1	..	..	1	..	1	1	..	..	1	..	1	16	14	..	30
Rhenish Province and Hohenzollern	1	..	1	2	2	..	7	2	2	11	6	5	26	25	10	61
Total	10	..	1	11	..	..	21	2	2	25	..	..	195	56	20	271

* Total contributed by the State, 17,307 thalers.

† The city of Berlin contains 10 Protestant gymnasiums—maximum attendance, 615; 5 Protestant real schools, first order—maximum attendance, 613; 2 Protestant real schools, second order; 1 Protestant higher burgher school; total secondary schools, 18.

NOTE.—The published returns for 1866, from which the above tables are made up, do not give the attendance of pupils in each class of secondary schools. According to the published returns of 1863, there were 172 gymnasial institutions (144 gymnasiums and 28 progymnasiums) and 83 real institutions of different grades, with a total of 3,349 teachers and 66,135 pupils.

In 1832, when final or graduating examinations were instituted for real and higher burgher schools, there were 9 institutions of the first order, which, in 1859, had increased to 56, besides 11 real schools of the second order, and 25 higher burgher schools. In the gymnasiums and progymnasiums there were 2,388 teachers, besides 937 teachers in the real schools and higher burgher schools. The total salaries of teachers in secondary schools, in 1866, was 1,993,370 thalers. All charge tuition fees, which vary from 6 to 33 thalers, according to the class.

III.—*Universities.*

Universities.	Year when founded.	Professors and docents.																	Students.						
		Theology.				Jurisprudence.				Medicine.				Philosophy.				Total of teachers.	Protestant theology.	Catholic theology.	Jurisprudence.	Medicine.	Philosophy.	Not stated.	Total of students.
		Regular.	Extraordinary.	Docents.	Total.	Regular.	Extraordinary.	Docents.	Total.	Regular.	Extraordinary.	Docents.	Total.	Regular.	Extraordinary.	Docents.	Total.								
Berlin	1809	*5	*5	*2	12	9	4	4	17	12	17	19	38	31	95	32	88	155	269	......	583	254	276	643	2,025
Bonn	1818	†6 *4	†1 *2	†2 *3	17	8	2	2	12	9	2	3	14	24	10	17	51	94	86	183	243	109	249	58	928
Breslau	1702	†6 *5	†2 *3	.... *1	17	5	....	2	7	6	....	11	17	16	6	17	29	80	66	212	240	142	150	54	864
Greifswald	1456	*5	*1	....	6	5	1	....	6	4	2	4	10	13	1	5	19	41	25	......	54	89	58	6	232
Halle	1694	*5	*6	*2	13	6	1	2	9	6	1	3	10	19	6	10	35	67	431	......	137	60	64	2	694
Königsberg	1544	*5	*1	*2	8	5	3	....	8	7	3	4	14	15	5	11	31	61	85	......	129	82	54	12	362
Münster	1780	†6	....	†2	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	......	7	2	1	10	18	......	216	....	......	183	......	399
Total	....	‡47	21	13	81	38	11	10	59	44	15	44	103	125	55	93	273	516	962	611	1,386	736	1,034	775	5,504

* Protestant. † Catholic. ‡ Total Protestant theological professors—29 regular, 18 extraordinary, 9 docents; Catholic—18 regular, 3 extraordinary, 4 docents.

NOTE.—There is also a Catholic seminary for training theologians at Braunsberg, in the province of Prussia; no statistics given.

III.—*Universities*—Continued.

Universities.	Receipts.					Expenditures.						
	From the State.	From endowments.	Interest of capital.	Fees.	Totals.	Administrations and pensions.	Salaries.	University establishments.	Aids to students.	Repairs and furniture.	Reserve.	Totals.
	Thalers.	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*	*Thalers.*
Berlin	179,890	50	72	7,290	187,302	10,619	93,350	68,095	350	2,000	12,888	187,302
Bonn	115,830	170	2,420	2,580	121,000	8,578	69,800	32,067	3,300	4,619	2,636	121,000
Breslau	85,803	....	13,462	1,420	101,685	7,327	49,248	29,651	5,787	5,000	3,672	100,685
Greifswald	1,200	57	74,710	673	76,740	5,494	37,700	27,200	3,726	....	2,020	76,640
Halle	61,465	30,635	251	4,220	96,571	7,020	49,248	24,935	8,006	3,460	4,102	96,571
Königsberg	84,422	40	4,020	779	89,261	6,213	37,545	29,941	8,579	2,600	4,393	89,261
Münster	2,250	15,179	....	1,450	18,879	430	12,500	4,692	500	....	757	18,879
Total	530,260	46,131	94,935	18,412	690,338	45,671	349,191	217,081	30,248	17,679	30,468	690,388

NOTE.—The above statistics are for the year 1867, except receipts and expenditures, which are of 1861. In 1864 the total number of students was 6,362, and the total number of professors above 600.

From the "Illustrated Almanac for 1869" we take statistics of universities for the year 1867–'68:

BERLIN.—54 ordinary, 54 extraordinary, and 4 honorary professors, 74 private docents, 7 tutors; *total*, 193 *teachers*. Students—Protestant theology, 373; law, 666; medicine, 425; philosophy and philology, 785; *total students*, 2,249; and beside, 953 auditors not matriculated; *total students and auditors*, 3,202.

BONN.—53 ordinary and 21 extraordinary professors, 28 private docents, 3 tutors; *total teachers*, 105. Students—Catholic theology, 216; Protestant theology, 47; total, 263; law, 171; medicine, 204; philosophy and philology, 289; *total students*, 927, *besides* 36 *auditors—in all*, 963.

BRESLAU.—45 ordinary and 14 extraordinary professors, 29 private docents, 11 tutors; *total teachers*, 90. Students—Catholic theology, 155; Protestant theology, 48; total, 223; law, 72; medicine, 91; philosophy and philology, 17; *total students*, 401.

GREIFSWALD.—34 ordinary and 4 extraordinary professors, 13 private docents, 3 tutors; *total teachers*, 154. Students—Protestant theology, 26; law, 12; medicine, 263; philosophy and philology, 106; *total students*, 407, *and* 27 *auditors; in all*, 434.

HALLE.—39 ordinary, 17 extraordinary and 1 honorary professors, 20 private docents, 5 tutors; *total teachers*, 82. Students—Protestant theology, 369; law, 48; medicine, 104; philosophy and philology, 326; *total students*, 846, *and* 26 *visiting auditors; in all*, 873.

KÖNIGSBERG.—39 ordinary and 7 extraordinary professors, 17 private docents, 3 tutors; *total teachers*, 44. Students—Protestant theology, 79; law, 72; medicine, 96; philosophy and philology, 189; *total students*, 436, *and auditors*, 14—*in all*, 450.

MÜNSTER.—13 ordinary and 8 extraordinary professors, 5 private docents; *total teachers*, 26. Students—Catholic theology, 257; philosophy and philology, 211; *total students*, 468, *and* 12 *auditors—in all*, 280. Grand total—7 universities, with 616 teachers and 6,803 students.

Receipts and expenditure of the University of Berlin for the year 1865.

Receipts.	*Thalers.*	Expenditure.	*Thalers.*
1. From State	189,069	1. Administration	10,804
2. From endowments	50	2. Salaries of professors	102,400
3. From interest	111	3. University establishments	70,230
4. From University fees	7,557	4. Aid to students	350
		5. Repairs and taxes	2,000
		6. Reserve	11,003
Total	196,787	Total	196,787

Distribution of State grant to university establishments.

	Thalers.
1. Divine service	850
2. Clinical surgery	4,650
3. General clinical medicine	2,441
4. Clinical midwifery	7,300
5. Pensions to widows of professors	1,000
6. Theological seminary	830
7. Philological seminary	530
8. Observatory	3,642
9. First chemical laboratory	1,000
10. Second chemical laboratory	500
11. Anatomical theatre and collections	4,298
12. Physiological institution	1,129
13. Researches in chemistry	600
14. Pathological institute	2,000
15. Mineralogical collection	2,843
16. Library	2,337
17. Zoological and entomological collections	6,918
18. Botanic garden	20,427
19. Herbarium	3,085
20. University garden	1,189
21. Cabinet of surgical instruments	430
22. Legal medicine	150
23. Pharmacological collection	100
24. Apparatus for mathematical and physical sciences	800
25. Museum of Christian art	300
26. Laboratory for physical science	500
27. Seminary for mathematical science	400
Total	70,249

To this should be added:		
For divine service—		
Interest, (thalers)	65	
Endowments	11,974	
		12,039
For widows' pensions—		
Interest	7,224	
Endowments	4,964	
		12,188
Total		94,476

IV.—*Special Schools.*

The following is an imperfect list of the Higher Special Schools of Prussia, the most important of which will be described in the Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on *Scientific and Industrial Education at home and abroad.*

AGRICULTURE.

Agricultural School, (University,) Berlin.
Agricultural School, Bonn, (Poppelsdorf.)
Agricultural School, Eldena.
Agricultural School, Moegl.
Horticultural School, Sanssouci.

ARCHITECTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS.

Royal Academy of Architecture, Berlin.
Royal Technical Institute, Berlin.
School of Arts and Architecture, Breslau.
Architectural School, Crefeld.
Art and Technical School, Danzig.
Industrial High School, Elberfeld.
School of Arts and Architecture, Erfurt.
Architectural and Technic School, Halberstadt.
School of Arts and Architecture, Königsberg.
School of Arts and Architecture, Magdeburg.
Architectural School, Saarbrücken.

MINING.

Royal Academy of Mining, Berlin.
School of Mining, Halberstadt.
School of Mining, Tarnowitz.

FORESTRY.

Forestry Academy, Neustadt-Eberswalde.

COMMERCE.

Commercial School, Berlin.
Commercial School, Magdeburg.

MILITARY.

Royal Military Academy, Berlin.
School of Cadets, Berlin.
Central Military Gymnastic Institute, Berlin.
School of Artillery and Engineering, Berlin.
Military School, Erfurt.
Military School, Glogau.
Military School for Non-Commissioned Officers, Berlin.
Military School for Non-Commissioned Officers, Neisse.
Military School for Non-Commissioned Officers, Oldenburg.
Military School for the Guards, Potsdam.
School for Cadets, Potsdam.
School for Non-Commissioned Officers, Potsdam.
Military Orphan Home, Potsdam.
School for Cadets, Stralsund.

MUSIC.

Royal Institute for Church Music, Berlin
Conservatory of Music, Cologne.

MARINE.

Marine School, Berlin.
Navigation School, Danzig.
Navigation School, Oldenburg.
Navigation School, Stralsund.
Navigation School, Stettin.

VETERINARY.

Veterinary School, Berlin.
Veterinary School, Münster.

SURGERY.

Medicinal-Surgical Institute, Berlin.
Military Medicinal-Surgical Institute, Berlin.
Medicinal-Surgical Institute, Magdeburg.

THE SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN PRUSSIA.

The policy of the Prussian government has been for more than a century, in the language of Frederick the Great in 1794, "to provide schools and universities for the instruction of youth in useful information and scientific knowledge." "For the education of the young sufficient provision is to be made by means of public schools;" and while by the constitution of 1850 "any one is free to impart instruction, and to found and conduct establishments for education, when he has proved to the satisfaction of the state authorities that he has the moral, scientific and technical qualifications requisite," it is also ordained "that all public and private establishments are under the supervision of authorities named by the state." These principles form part of every citizen's notions of what is right and fitting in school concerns, and by the co-operation of the government and the people in local administration a state of popular and higher education has been realized, not surpassed in any other country. The motto of every administration since William Von Humboldt and Baron Altenstein were at the head of the education department has been—"The thing is *not* to let the schools and universities go on in a drowsy and impotent routine; *the thing is*, to raise the culture of the nation ever higher and higher."

The whole of the educational establishments in Prussia are under the control, more or less immediate, of the minister of ecclesiastical, educational and medical affairs, who is assisted by an under-secretary of state, and by a council in each section into which the affairs of the ministry are divided.

The centre of the home administration of Prussia is the ministry of the interior, subordinate to the head of which are the presidents (*Oberpräsidenten*) of the eight provinces into which the kingdom for administrative purposes is territorially divided. Each province is divided into departments or governments (*Regierungsbezirke*,) under a prefect (styled *Regierungspräsident*.) Each department or government is subdivided into districts or circles (*Kreise*,) administered by an officer (termed a *Landrath*,) who reports to the prefect. Each circle includes a number of parishes (*Gemeinden*) and towns.

The provincial president is assisted by a council, of which one section called a consistory (*Consistorium*) is for church affairs, and another called *Schulcollegium*, whose organ is termed *Provinzialschulrath*, for all such school affairs as are provincial. Although the *Oberpräsident* is dependent on and reports to the minister of the interior on other matters, in all that relates to schools and churches he receives instructions and reports to the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical affairs. With the departmental prefect is associated a councillor, who is devoted exclusively to school affairs of that department. With the circle officer (*Landrath*) is an officer called superintendent, who is ex officio, (styled *Kreisschulinspector*, or simply *Schulinspector*,) who has the superintendence and inspection of the schools of the circle. In the parishes the clergyman is the *Lokalschulinspector* of all the schools. Each school *Commune* has its own board of management (*Schulvorstand*,) chosen by the householders.

In the larger towns there exists an organization known as the *Schuldeputation*, for the collectative management of all the schools of the municipality. The action of this body will be best exhibited in an account of the school organization and educational institutions of the city of Berlin.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS IN BERLIN.

The administration of all the affairs of the city is lodged with a body, consisting of 34 members, called the *Magistrat*, elected by the municipal council.

The *Magistrat* does not exercise its school management itself, but through the medium of a standing delegacy instituted for that purpose only.

This delegacy (*Schuldeputen*) consists of two paid delegates (*Stadtschulräthe*,) six other members of the *Magistrat*, 12 members of the municipal council, three members directly chosen by the citizens, the three superintendents, the president of the school commission, and a Jewish rabbi.

The two paid school delegates are also members of the *Magistrat*, and like the other members of the *Magistrat* are elected by the municipal council. They are also, in practice, the executive members of the school delegacy. This threefold capacity, as well as their more minute knowledge of the affairs of the schools, naturally makes them the more influential members of the delegacy. They divide the executive part of their duty between them; one taking the higher and middle, the other the elementary schools.

The school delegacy, as the committee of the *Magistrat*, have the entire management and regulation of the affairs of the city schools, with the following exceptions: 1. The patronage and revenues of such congregational or other schools as belong to special corporations, &c. 2. The school of industry, and the *Cöllnisches Realgymnasium*, are managed directly by the *Magistrat*. 3. The *Magistrat* has also appropriated to itself the management of the newly founded Real-schule, but this is contested by the school delegacy.

The school delegacy, again, in all its proceedings is controlled by the *Magistrat*. An appeal lies to the *Magistrat* from any ordinance issued by the delegacy. The school affairs are divided into general affairs and particular affairs, (*Generalien*, *Spezialien*.) No general resolutions passed by the school delegacy are valid till they have been ratified by the *Magistrat*. And over all special business the *Magistrat* possesses the right of control and interference.

Though certain schools above named are not placed under the supervision of the corporation of Berlin, their managers are obliged to furnish the school delegacy with all such information as that body may demand for the purpose of maintaining a complete acquaintance with the school organism of Berlin, and of enforcing the compulsory attendance. Especially are they bound to acquaint the delegacy whenever it is in contemplation to erect a new school, or to discontinue or transfer one already in existence.

These are the general attributes of the school delegacy, as the organ of the corporation for the management of all its schools, whether they be higher, middle, or elementary. It remains to describe more particularly the machinery by which it exercises its powers over the elementary schools.

Immediately under the school delegacy stands the school board (*Vorstand*.) Each school has its own board, which is the organ of the delegacy for its supervision and management. This board is composed of—1. The clergyman of the parish, who presides at the sittings of the board. 2. Two lay members chosen by the *Magistrat* and the municipal council. They are chosen for three years, and are re-eligible on the expiration of their term.

With this explanation of the organization of public instruction in Berlin, we proceed to notice at some length the different grades of institutions which have grown up under its fostering care, or have been allowed to root themselves in public confidence, the statistics of which are given in the preceding summary. We shall confine our notes to the parts of the system and to the institutions which are peculiar, or whose development suggests features worthy of the consideration of statesmen and educators at home. Among these are the infant gardens—the *kindergarten* of Fröbel, which is the latest and most philosophical form of the infant development; the compulsory attendance of all children between the ages of 6 and 14 years in some school; the special preparation of teachers of every grade of school for their professional work; the modification of the old classical studies by the introduction of the real-school, and the thorough scientific culture provided in universities. Of all these institutions and agencies Berlin exhibits the highest and latest development.

FRÖBEL'S INFANT AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

The infant garden did not at first meet with favor from the school authorities of Berlin, and has attained its present development there under individual and associated auspices, by which training schools have been established and the system has thus been provided with appropriate teachers. In the notice which follows of Fröbel's labors we adopt substantially the account by Dr. Schmidt, in his History of Education, in place of the memoranda made after a visit to several of these "gardens of infant culture," in Hamburg, in 1854.

Frederic Wilhelm August Fröbel was born April 21, 1782, at Oberweissbach, in the principality of Rudolstadt, where he passed his infancy in the rural life of a country parsonage. At the age of 10 years he was placed under the care of an uncle, the Rev. Superintendent Hoffman, at Stadt-Ilm. His teachers understood not the dreamy love of nature in the boy, and some years later he began the study of forestry under a forester in Neuhaus. His favorite sciences were mathematics and natural history. In the year 1805 he entered upon his proper profession by engaging as a teacher at Gruner's school, in Frankfort. He read with profound interest the works of Pestalozzi, and lived and labored two years with this great pedagogue.* Inspired by the enthusiastic nobleness of the profession, he resolved to qualify himself more for an efficient discharge of its duties, and entered upon a course of studies at the universities of Gottingen and Berlin, devoting himself principally to the Asiatic languages, history, and philosophy. In 1813 he participated in the war for the liberation of his country, and the dawning sun of national liberty awoke in him the desire to promote the development of the spiritual freedom of the people. This desire was strengthened by Fichte's work on national education, and by his intercourse with Middendorff and Langethal. After the war Fröbel was appointed assistant inspector of the Royal Museum of Mineralogy, at Berlin. In 1826 he published his work on "Human Education." After laboring some years in the education of the children of a deceased brother, and at a special institution in Keilhau, (1817 to 1828,) he undertook the reorganization of a popular school in Switzerland, where he laid the basis of his reputation as a practical educator, in the institution he established in the castle of Waldensee, placed at his disposition by the generous owner. As a result of the first public examination in this school, he was invited by a deputation from the canton of Bern to the position of director of a new orphan home to be established in Burgdorf, which he accepted.

Fröbel's experience of life and his conversations with teachers lead him again to the conviction that school education was without its true foundation until a reformation in the family and home education could be effected. The importance of the earliest education and the necessity of training competent mothers rose vividly before his mind. He resolved to apply his new idea of education, the realization of which had been prevented by unavoidable obstacles, at least to the training of earliest youth, and to replace his "Book for Mothers" by a theoretical and practical instruction for women. With this intent he relinquished his charge in Burgdorf and went to Berlin, where the idea of an infant school matured in him. At Burgdorf and in Berlin it had become Fröbel's firm conviction that to excite the desire for learning must precede all instruction, and that to educate is a human function, springing from the inner life, but also reacting, in a developing and progressive manner, on this source; that the family is

* Pestalozzi wrote in Fröbel's album, October 7, 1805:

Man forces the way to his aim
By the flame of thought
And the bolt of eloquence;
But he accomplishes his task
He perfects himself,
Only by silence and action.

the centre, on the health of which depends not only the health of the state, but without the prosperity of which no real progress in education can take place. At Blankenburg these ideas became reality. In his infant-garden (kindergarten) Fröbel undertook to give life and form to his pedagogic views.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

The infant-garden, as Fröbel says, leads the child back to nature, into nature, through the garden, that it may early know, what God united man shall not part. He occupied himself with the child under school age, and made it his object to develop all the powers and faculties of the child, which are necessary to a full realization of instruction in school. In the first years of life, when a child learns quickest and easiest, and lays the foundation to his entire intellectual life, to withdraw the young mind from a home in which, left to itself, it falls into moral and mental decay; to bring the children of families in which exists a healthy life for some hours every day into communion with their equals, and to give them a common employment, so necessary to the development of the mind, and which can be executed only by a number of children of the same age—such is the purpose of the infant-garden.

On the four-hundredth anniversary of the invention of the art of printing Fröbel founded his infant-garden, which was to embrace four institutions: 1st, a model institute for the care of children; 2d, a training school for nurses of children; 3d, an institute for suitable plays and amusements of children; 4th, an establishment with which all parents, mothers, educators, and especially future infant-gardeners, should be in constant relation by a published periodical. Fröbel called his institution infant-garden (kindergarten) because he thought it necessary that a garden should be connected with it, and because he wished symbolically to indicate by this name that children resemble the plants of a garden, and should be treated with similar care. He declares the object of his first infant-garden, begun in Blankenburg, near Rudolstadt, to be: "It shall not only take under its care children under school age, but also give them occupation suitable to their nature, to strengthen their bodies, to practice their senses, and to keep busy the awakening mind—to make them, in a pleasant manner, familiar with nature and man, by properly directing their minds to the first cause of all life, to harmony with themselves."

The adequate means for the realization of this object is, according to Fröbel, play; for it was clear to him that the revival of intellectual activity in the first years of life cannot be brought about by instruction, but only by activity—which means, by an activity peculiar to the child. "In the occupation and play of a child, especially in its first years, is formed, in union with its surroundings and under their quiet and unperceived co-operation, not only the germ but also the heart of its future life, in regard to all which we must acknowledge as belonging to germ and heart—inner life, self-reliance, and future individuality. From the first occupation results not only the exercise and invigoration of the body, limbs, and exterior organs of the senses, but, above all, the development of the heart, the culture of the spirit, and the waking of inner feelings and instinctive judgment." An inward and outward activity in and through play is the aim of Fröbel—instead of words to induce the child to action, instead of books to give him means of employment, to bring life where hitherto only abstractions were ruling. By regulated means of occupation to offer suitable food to the desire of activity striving for development—this is the task of the infant-garden. By self-employment the child shall be induced to free activity, to labor in its highest sense; and, in truth, the ethic and economic value of labor is here recognized, because it becomes manifest that it not only develops the physical power but promotes intelligent attention, devotion, and endurance; also, the child is made conscious of the value of labor; the enjoyment to be able to become use-

ul, is created; finally, the way in which labor culminates and is ennobled in ırt is shown to the child, and in him to mankind in general. As the Creator :reates ever since the beginning, so his image, man, wants activity from his first :xistence.

The infant garden and its plays are based on the laws of human nature. In ;hem Fröbel has laid the foundation for the scientific treatment of the infant age; ɔy a faithful observation of nature and a devoted attachment to infant life, he has discovered its psychologic laws and applied them with great insight to the gifts of play. All intellectual functions find in them occasion to utter themselves; the longing for motion finds nourishment in the gymnastics of play, the desire of knowledge is regulated and developed by the exercise of the senses and faculties of observation; the wish for activity obtains an opportunity for normal cultivation by voluntary employment; ideality is excited and sustained by the formation of beautiful forms, by singing, drawing, &c. In this manner the infant garden makes use of play as a conscious and fertile means of education. It takes hold of the truly childish nature and gives to the infant mind a suitable nourishment; it allows the child to remain a child and keeps away what belongs to a riper age. Its main employments are plays, its means of education the instruments of play. To begin with natural development, Fröbel went back to the first education by the mother. In his "caressing songs of the mother" he gives a clue to the manner in which the child is to be treated during the first two or three years of life. In the "first gift of play," the box with six balls, which contain three primary and three mixed colors, he offers the first toy, the simplest body, by which a harmonious impression is made on the child when the box is held before its eyes. If then the mother hangs the various balls, alternately, on a string over the bed of the infant, it will, in fixing its eyes upon the object attracting its look, learn to understand the circumscription of the form and the distinction of color; will also see the law of contrast when the intermediate color is placed between two primary colors; as, also, in the motion of the ball, in the three directions of length, breadth, and depth, with accompanying song of "up and down," "to and fro," &c., it will receive an impression of motion, while, in encircling the ball in its hands, it will strengthen the muscles of the hand and have its sensation directed to one point.

From the ball the "second gift of play" passes over to the cube, the simplest regular body with even surfaces, and adds next the intermediate between ball and cube, the cylinder. With ball, cylinder, and cube, the three normal forms, are now executed various plays, by moving and spinning them on a thread or needle. By quickly turning the cube, as the needle or thread is fastened in the surface, corner, or edges, appear the different axes, and the three fundamental forms of mechanics are shown—cylinder, wheel, and double cone. By perceiving that the cylinder—in the disappearance of the corners of the cube in turning—is contained in the cube, and the ball in the cylinder, the law is demonstrated how all succeeding is contained in the preceding form. Thus the infant mind is impressed with the first laws of space, form, and motion. When the child has seen in the ball the dimensions of time and space, it has, in the second gift, experienced the idea of motion, always hearing the corresponding little songs; and when, by these plays and its total surroundings, it is so far developed as to express the various forms and begins to busy itself more independently with the different ideas, to inquire into the cause of things, and desires to analyze the whole into its parts and to unite again the parts into a whole, it receives the "third gift of play"—the cube, divided through the centre, parallel to all sides. With this gift the child begins to invent. It discovers that unity becomes a plurality, that the many parts are similar to the whole and equal among themselves; it realizes similarity, equality, and inequality of objects; it distinguishes the whole and its parts by the division, the size and form, and takes an idea of a whole, a half, a quarter, an eighth, of above, below, inside, and

outside. The play with this gift will answer the threefold desire for activity in the child; it will represent with the eightfold divided cube, the forms of perception, life, and beauty, by making of the cube two halves, four quarters, &c.; by building chairs, benches, tables, &c.; by laying out circles, stars, flowers, &c. And as in this manner it can form and invent, by aid of the eight cubes, more than 300 forms, it prepares the action of reason by the forms it recognizes, the practical in human society by the forms of life it imitates, and the world of feeling by the forms of beauty. In this, as in all plays of Fröbel, attention should be given to the following:

1. In building the child has a small slate, divided into squares of equal size, with the surfaces of the cubes to build on, that it may from the beginning accustom itself to regularity, care and precision, exactitude and beauty.

2. To create in the child at once, clearly and distinctly, the impression of the whole, the play should be handed him for his free use, opening the cover of the box a little, then turning it upside down, then placing it right before the child, who should move the cover from underneath the box, so that the cubes in it, after lifting off the box, lie on the table in the form of one large cube. With this cube the child begins to play, as long as it wishes quietly to itself, until, by look and voice, it invites your aid, when words are given to his doings.

3. In no play should the child be allowed to destroy; it should always add to the given form or create something new, &c.

In each formation the child should use up all the cubes, in order to become accustomed to reflection, to have always a distinct aim before his eyes, to look at the object to be represented in many relations and regards—which is necessary when, for instance, a cube left over must be put into connection with the object represented—to make use of all the material at his disposition, and to pass over nothing unnoticed nor leave anything unused.

The "fourth gift of play" is the cube divided into eight tablets, by which, instead of contents, the extent of surface appears, and not only space-filling forms of beauty, life, and perception, but also space-encircling hollow forms may be executed; the law of equilibrium—in laying on the small side of one tablet another with its broad side—and the law of continued motion—by placing all tablets in a line, so that the falling of the first will cause all others to fall also—are presented to the child's view and comprehension.

Thus far the child plays to his fourth year of life. For the play from the fourth to the sixth year serve the fifth and sixth gifts of play. The "fifth gift" contains the cube divided twice in every direction, by which 27 small cubes are made, of which three are again cut in halves and three in quarters. This serves as a fundamental view into algebraic geometry and trigonometry. The child sees the triangle produced by the division, which as a body surrounded the prism; it constructs the parallelogram and trapezoid and builds the Pythagorean problem. Beside these forms of perception, a great wealth of forms is given, which, indeed, introduce to the architecture of life and beauty.

The "sixth gift of play" contains cubes twice divided through all sides, into tablets, of which six are again cut in height and width, by which the square and form of column is represented. Parallel with these gifts are given small plates, as the surfaces of regular bodies, to bring into view their various figures. They consist in plates of triangles, showing the right, the acute, and the obtuse angle; and of squares, beginning with four and doubling to 64. With them the child constructs regular figures, *i. e.*, squares and rectangles, which, by diagonals are divided into right angles, triangles, &c. Little wooden sticks serve to indicate the lines. In the play with sticks the child learns to know the perpendicular, horizontal and diagonal line; to find them again in nature, and to apply them to practical life. Involuntarily it seizes the pencil to draw on the squares of the slate the forms made by the sticks while they are yet before its mind. Meanwhile children of three or four years work at *plaiting*, forming the prettiest

;ures in their plays, in accordance with the laws vividly before their spirit om the plays in which they previously engaged. Those who *draw* pass from ıe simplest to more complicated forms by way of contradistinction. Others 'e employed in *carving*, which goes hand in hand with drawing, when the child, ith a pin, first makes the same figures and forms on square ruled paper. The ırved flowers, birds, &c., are preparatory to plastic formations, in which the ı is exchanged for pencil and chisel. Auxiliary to plastic formations is the aking of figures by so-called cross-sticks, of forms and figures in sticks and ɜas, and the art of coupling and pinching, which constructs little boats, boxes, ıips, &c., from square pieces of paper. *Singing* enlivens and beautifies many ' these plays, and conducts the child into the world of harmony. At the same me it is brought to nature and its life; the constant dwelling in the free air ives a familiarity with the life of nature. The child learns the care of aniıals, of birds, rabbits, &c., which are given to its charge, and understands work ı the garden by sowing and planting, digging, and watering a little bed of its wn, while in such little work the name, form, and life of plants and animals is ıld him. *Physical exercise* is not neglected. The various plays of motion are lapted to the different degrees of development of the child. In the "caressıg songs of mothers," such plays, which aim at a harmonious development of ıe body and all its limbs, are arranged in an ascending scale, and in part ttached to imitations of motion in nature and life, which, in their execution, re accompanied by suitable little songs.

While in this multiplicity of plays the choice is generally left to the child, is liberty is conceded, while, on the other hand, when the infant gardener desires ɔ direct his attention more permanently to one certain play the child becomes ccustomed to endurance and self-control. The will of the child is restrained nd forced to join the thoughts and aims of a greater number, and to this end it ften engages in one play with several children, lays out one figure, so that ach brings in a particular part, &c.

Finally, this infant play is not without its religious consecration. True, the hild is not introduced to religion by committing to memory unintelligible Bible erses or hymns; but when the child on Christmas beholds a representation of 'hrist in the manger it connects a joyful impression with the appearance of the ıaviour of humanity. In such and other similar ways is laid in their tender hearts deep foundation of religious sensibility. The infant garden should not neglect he cultivation of a consciousness of God in the infant heart; on the contrary, it hould nurse the same. By taking the child into a God-pervaded nature—to he flowery sea of spring, the terrible magnificence of the storm, to the life of he rose, and the insect sporting out its joyful little life—there the child should ɜel God and find him in every flower and every star. From its relations to ıarents it should realize the Father of all the children in heaven and earth, and earn to love him and to keep his commandments by giving honor to truth, by loing the right, loving and practicing the good. The child should be influenced o express his feelings toward God, to excite and strengthen them by praying ıefore him and with him in holy moments of life. "He who will early know he Creator," says Fröbel, "must practice his power for a conscious exercise of he good, for doing good is the bond between the Creator and his work, and the onscious good action is the living union of man and God, the final point and ternal aim of all education."

While the principles of Fröbel's system were not approved by the Prussian ninister of education, the Duke of Meiningen placed the castle of Marienthal at ıis disposal, in which, to his death, Fröbel instructed teachers of infant gardens. The scholars received instruction in physiology, psychology, natural history, especially botany,) history of education, the arts and plays for children, as lrawing, plaiting, building, cutting, folding, coupling, &c.

Fröbel died June 21, 1852, but not his work. To the activity of Midden-

dorff, and Bertha de Bülow after him, it is due that infant gardens flourish in the north and south of Germany. They exist in Hamburg, Altona, Gotha, Sondershausen, Weimar, Frankenhausen, Erfurt, Meiningen, Eisenach, Ohrdruff, Apolda, Altenburg, Lübeck, Dresden, Görlitz, Leipzig, Berlin, Stuttgart, &c. In Switzerland they have been revived since 1859; in Belgium they were introduced in 1857; in Holland they became known in 1858; in France they gained Marbeau—who founded the *crèches*—and Madame Mallet; in Spain, (Bilbao,) England, (London, Manchester, Dublin,) North America, (New York, Boston, Philadelphia,) and Russia, especially Finland, great interest is shown in the infant gardens. The "*Manuel Pratique des Jardins d'Enfants de Frederic Froebel,* à l'usage des institutrices et des mères de famille, composé sur des documents allemands, par J.F. Jacobs, avec une introduction de Madame la Baronne de Marenholtz, (Bruxelles, 1859,") gives a complete insight into the infant garden; the "Erziehung der Gegenwart," a pedagogic periodical, by Carl Schmidt, as well as the "Education Nouvelle," of Lausanne by Raoux, are devoted, since 1861, to the diffusion of Fröbel's system.

Michelet also recognized that the principles of Fröbel are those upon which education must progress, when he says in his work, "La Femme:" "By a clear spiritual eye and his grand simplicity Fröbel has found what the wise have hitherto sought in vain: the secret of education. Fröbel's doctrine is the educational truth of the age. His system is neither exterior nor prescribed nor arbitrary; it is drawn from the child itself; the child begins the history and creative action of humanity anew."

In Fröbel's infant garden are the ideas of present and future education in a circumscribed sphere; for the first time the material of education is arranged in an organic manner, so that the future has only to add to Fröbel's means of employment, which especially have regard to mathematics, mechanics, and drawing, the experimental physic, chemistry, and physiology—of course in accord with the pupil's degree of development—and that the popular school (and this is the great task of the future) should intimately connect itself in an organic relation to the infant garden. From the time in which this is done a new era in the development of popular schools will begin—a truly national education.

The main principles of infant culture, as inculcated by Fröbel and set forth by his admirers, are not new to thoughtful educators; and similar methods and means, not so completely systematized or so early applied, have been tried in this country, but not always with due caution or with proper understanding of the infant nature. These views have already greatly modified the exercises and methods of our primary schools; but there is still room for a lower or earlier grade of schools, and for places, methods and material aids of instruction similar to those of the Kindergarten. Mrs. Horace Mann and Miss E. P. Peabody, in their treatise on the subject (Boston, 1863) entitled "*Moral Culture of Infancy and Kindergarten Guide,*" and recent letters of Miss Peabody, published in the "Herald of Health," have already inaugurated some movements in this direction.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Until quite recently the public elementary schools of Berlin did not compare favorably with schools of the same grade in other large towns. The attendance was smaller and was confined to the poorer families, and private schools of different grades abounded. In 1827 a thorough reform was made, and since then no better specimen of school organization, management, and instruction could be found in the kingdom. Of these schools such full accounts have been published and widely circulated in the reports of Stowe, Bache, Mann, Key, and others, and as a complete survey of the growth and condition of the system will be included in a report of the Commissioner of Education on national education in Germany and Switzerland, that notice will be taken of only two features of the

ystem, viz: the compulsory school attendance of children between the ages of i and 14, and the systematic training and continuous improvement of teachers n their professional work. The first of these features we shall present in the anguage of an English observer, of the highest reputation as a scholar and an ducator. Professor Mark Patterson, B. D., rector of Lincoln College, Oxford, n a report as special commissioner to a parliamentary commission appointed to nquire into the state of popular education in England, and which submitted a eport to Parliament, in 1861, in six large volumes.

COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

Compulsory school attendence is the corner-stone of the system of primary ducation throughout Germany; it is all but universal, though the mode of nforcing it may be variable. In every state of Germany, with the exception, [believe, of Hamburg and Frankfort-on-the-Main, all the children of both sexes between certain ages are required to be at school. In this legislation we must listinguish two degrees, which are often confounded but are really widely apart: 1. Where the law requires that the education of the children shall be properly cared for but leaves the parents the choice of the method; they may send them to what school they please or may employ a private teacher at home. This was the law in Prussia until 1857, and is still so in many states. 2. Where the parents are restrained from sending their children to any other school than that for which they are registered. The first regulation is viewed as a necessary protection for the child's interests; the second is a measure of police for facilitating the control of the school attendance. The first is often called, colloquially, schulzwang, but that term, in its legal and correct sense, is used to denote the second only. In this, its proper sense, schulzwang is the law of Saxony, Würtemberg, Bavaria, Baden, and some other states. In 1857 it was introduced into Prussia, and in the spirit of that period the power of granting dispensations was vested in the landrath. It is complained of, among other things, for the invidious distinction created in administering it between poor and rich, no attempts being made to enforce it in the case of the latter. Where a dispensation is obtained from attending the district school, parents must state the motives of the application, and the school to which they propose to remove the child, and in some cases continue to pay the school fees or a part of them. The usage of the several countries varies but little as to school age. The Prussian code fixed the completion of the child's fifth year as the period when its attendance should begin, and in the Saxon province it is customary to go at that age. In other provinces attendance is not compelled till the end of the sixth, though allowed at the end of the fifth—a distinction which is marked by the words schulpflichtig and schulfähig. Generally, I believe, no use is made of the permission, as the schools are mostly already overfilled. The masters are not favorable to children beginning to learn too young, and experience and physiology condemn it. The new Würtemberg law of November 6, 1858, has removed its term from *aet.* 6 to *aet.* 7, and the new Saxon law from *aet.* 5 to *aet.* 6, and it might not be impossible that the practice of Hamburg, where the children begin at *aet.* 8, would be more generally followed were it not that there is another tendency, viz., the claims of labor, making itself felt and pushing in the opposite direction, to get the school age to begin earlier in order that it may end the sooner.

The duration of the period of school attendance is in most countries eight years; in some parts of Prussia usage extends it to nine; in the new Saxe-Coburg law of June 15, 1858, it is reduced to less than seven years. It is much less by law than by the manners of the people that school time is universally terminated by confirmation, (einsegnung,) a rite which, with its accompanying first communion, obtains in the Lutheran population the same social importance as in the Roman Catholic.

It is not enough to bring the children to school or to enter their names in the school register, unless their regular attendance is also secured. This point is accordingly guarded in the German system with as much vigilance as the former. To take a single province of Prussia, Silesia, *e. g.*, it is the duty of the pastor and the schoolmaster to use all their moral influence with the parents to make the children come punctually and regularly. But this moral persuasion can be enforced, if need be, by an appeal to the police. The police office of the place makes out the list of the children as they arrive at the school age. This list is put into the hands of the school board, which, from that moment, becomes responsible for the attendance of all whose names are inscribed in that register. The master keeps the book of absences, marking them as "excused" or "inexcused," and it is one of the duties of the school board, in its periodical meetings, to watch this book. The board, through the inspector or some other of its members, admonishes the parent or guardian. If the offence be repeated they send in the offender's name to the police office and he is mulcted in a small fine for each day of the child's absence. In case of non-payment he is sent to jail for a period corresponding to the amount of the fine. In some towns a messenger is attached to the school and at the end of the first hour the master marks off the absent names and despatches the messenger around to the houses to inquire the cause of absence, which is duly entered in the book. In Berlin the control of attendance is undertaken by the school delegacy, which employs as its organ for this pupose bodies called by the name schulcommission. Former arrangements for securing attendance having been found insufficient this new system was organized in 1845. Berlin was divided for this purpose into 35 districts; or rather, the division already existing for the purpose of the poor's commission was adopted. In each of these districts a schulcommission was appointed. This body consists of a chairman, vice-chairman, and a number of members, varying, with the population of their district, from 6 to 10. The members are elected for three years by the common council and confirmed by the magistrat. It is usual to ask the lay members of the school boards to serve as members of the school commission of the district in which their school is situated. As the office is an unpaid one, and the duty thankless, the city has great difficulty in getting any one to serve. The commission meets once a month, on a fixed day, three members forming a quorum. Its proceedings are minuted, and the minutes may be called for by the school delegacy. It has but one business, that of controlling the school lists and school attendance. For this purpose it employs as its organ the royal police in the same way as the school board in a country town employs the town police. The police commissary of the district—bezirk—sends in to the commission the list of the schulpflichtig children. The members of the commission are expected individually to visit the parents to urge upon them the moral obligation of seeing that their children attend regularly. Only when this private influence is ineffectual an official admonition is given to the parent or guardian. If within a month from this monition a second "inexcused" absence occurs, a written notice issues from the commission, reminding the defaulting party that he makes himself liable to a penalty. This notice is registered. If a third "inexcused" absence occurs within a month the commission sends notice to the school delegacy, adding from the record a copy of the previous notice. This notice is handed to another committee of the school delegacy, which is charged with the enforcement of the fines. This committee inquires into the case, assesses the fine, and orders payment within eight days. It is open to the condemned party to appeal during these eight days to the magistrat. The sentence of the magistrat is final. The fine may be levied by execution. If there are no effects the offender is punished by imprisonment.

These measures were at first attended by a steady diminution of the irregu-

larities they were intended to subdue. To compare, *e. g.*, the year 1850 with 1847—omitting the exceptional years 1848–'49—

1850.	1847.
Number of fines, 302.	Number of fines, 540.
Amount of fines, 100 thalers 5 grains.	Amount of fines, 245 thalers 2 grains.
Amount paid, 57 thalers 20 grains.	Amount paid, 71 thalers 10 grains.

Since 1850 a turn has taken place in an opposite direction. Factory labor and pauperism are both gaining ground, and irregularity in the attendance at the common schools is on the increase. In 1856 the number of children employed in factories, and therefore withdrawn altogether from the common schools, showed, as compared with 1855, an increase of 411. The number of convictions for inexcused absence had grown out of all proportion with the increase of population, viz., from 950, in 1855, to 1,780 in 1856. In the absence of more specific returns, it would not be safe to speculate on the causes of this falling off in the attendance. It may be said, in general, that there is more of that pauperism and demoralization generally supposed to be inevitable in great cities in Berlin than in any other town I visited in Germany, and that most of those with whom I spoke on the subject agreed that it was not the claims of labor but the sunken condition of the parents which interfered with the school attendance.

Compulsory attendance must be discriminated from the government organization of inspection, superintendence, management, and legislation. It is this bureaucratic organization of the school system by which the school is almost wholly removed from the sympathies of the population whose children must attend it. The compulsory attendance by itself is now so entirely adopted into their habits that it has quite lost its involuntary character. It is as much a matter of course that the children of the peasant, the farmer, the artisan, and the laborer should take their daily road to school as that those of the tradesman, the merchant, the banker, or the judge should. This is a consequence of the universal prevalence of day schools. In attending the day school the child is but doing what all the children in the place, rich as well as poor, are doing. Boarding schools have been hitherto little known; they are said to be now on the increase, as well as home education by private tutors. If this be the case, it will undoubtedly embarrass the enforcement of school attendance by destroying its universality and giving it the appearance of a burden laid by the rich upon the poor, not to speak of other ill effects, the fostering a spirit of class exclusiveness, and endangering the preservation of that air of courtesy and good breeding now so generally diffused through the poorer classes. This habit of universal attendance at the day school is one of the most precious traditions of German family life. There is, I believe, a general impression in this country that compulsory attendance is a creation of the modern despotic system, dictated by philosophical sovereigns, on the ground of some abstract theory of the right of the state over the child. M. Cousin has given currency to this notion by his comparison of the schulpflichtigkeit of the child with the dienstphflichtigkeit of the youth. But the existing Prussian military system dates only from 1814, and, whatever its merits may be, is entirely a creation of central authority. The compulsory school attendance dates from the earliest period of the reformation, and was a recognized religious duty long before it became a law of the state. From the time of Luther's address to the municipal corporations of Germany, 1524, this has been so recognized, whether it was enforced by enactment or not. It was the distinction of the Protestant child that it should be taught to understand the doctrines and practice the duties of its religion; it was the business of the church to see that all its youth did so. If the consistorial edicts which were issued to this effect (*e. g.*, that for the mark of Brandenburg, 1573,) were issued in the name of the prince they were not the less church ordinances.

When, in the beginning of the eighteenth century, Frederich Wilhelm began to issue royal ordinances for the regulation and improvement of elementary schools, we find these ordinances assuming, not enacting *de novo*, universal school attendance of all unconfirmed persons. The usage, as part of the duty of a Christian parent, had even survived the ruin of the thirty years' war. In Würtemburg it has existed by legal enactment ever since the year following the peace of Westphalia, (1649.) The edict of 1716, which is popularly regarded as the source of the Prussian compulsory system, does really nothing more than give the sanction of a royal ordinance to an existing practice. (This edict is printed in full in Beckeldorf, Jahrbücher, ii. 39, &c.) The Allgemeineslandschulreglement of 1763, for the first time exactly defines the age, viz., from 5 to 14; but this was only defining an obligation universally admitted as one of the first duties of the citizen and the member of the church. If there was any novelty in the ordinances of the eighteenth century it was in adding writing and arithmetic to the religious instruction given in the village schools. Compulsory education in Protestant Germany never had to contend with an adverse public opinion, not because the spirit of personal liberty is wanting, but because, since Protestantism began, there has never been a time when it was not thought a part of parental duty to have the children properly instructed. In Saxony every day a child is absent without excuse is marked, and these missed days must be made good in the total school attendance of eight years, before he can be confirmed and dismissed from school.

CHILDREN EMPLOYED IN FACTORIES.

No child under 12 years of age can be employed in any factory labor; and no young person under 16 can be employed without a certificate of having regularly attended school for at least three years, or a certificate stating that the bearer can read and write. This regulation does not apply where the mill-owner supports a school at his own expense, which the children in his employ attend at such hours as the school councillor shall sanction. The maximum number of hours for children under 14 is now reduced from 10 hours to 6, and their employment between the hours of 8 p. m. and 5.30 a. m. prohibited. They must attend school for at least three hours daily. Every child has its labor book. These books are supplied gratis, in blank, to the parents or guardians of the children. The provisions of the factory laws are printed in the beginning, and they contain—

1. Name, age, and religion of the child.
2. Name, calling, and residence of the parent or guardian.
3. Copy of the certificate of school attendance, (if any.)
4. A column for date of entering present employment.
5. A column for date of quitting the mill.
6. A column for school attendance.
7. A column for inspector's *visas*.

The mill-owner has to take charge of these books for each child in his employ, to produce them to the inspectors or the commissary of police whenever called for, and to return them to the children on quitting his employment. Special inspectors of factories are appointed only here and there, though they can be sent to any factory. Whether or not any factory be under the supervision of a special inspector, the ordinary inspectors, local and departmental, are required to visit its school, if any, as they do the ordinary schools. A manufacturer may be fined for employing persons under 16, without conforming to the prescriptions of this law. A repetition of the offence three times in five years renders him liable to have the permission to employ children's labor withdrawn. He must send in the names of all persons under 16 years of age in his employ twice a year to the public office.

SUNDAY SECULAR INSTRUCTION.—FURTHER-IMPROVEMENT INSTITUTES.

In Berlin and other large cities, independent of the regular school organization, there are two classes of organizations—1st, for apprentices and other young persons who have learnt imperfectly what has been taught in school; 2d, those who wish to carry their education further. For the first class are designed the Sunday schools, which are held in the school-rooms of various city schools, between the hours of 2 and 5 p. m., for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic. Every apprentice, at the time of his being apprenticed, is examined by the guild of the trade to which he is destined, and if found deficient he must attend the Sunday-afternoon school till he is able to do so. For the second class there are "further-improvement" institutes, held on Sunday, or evenings in the week, and are taught by masters in elementary or real-schools, who receive a small fee from each pupil, which is augmented by a grant from the municipality. In these schools, of which there are three in Berlin, 2,398 pupils attended in 1859. Of these, six were master-workmen, 1,155 journeymen, 722 apprentices, 198 mechanics, 132 merchants' and tradesmen's clerks, 32 school-masters who wished to extend their knowledge of drawing. The ages ranged from 14 to 40 years. The cost to the city was 4,000 thalers. In these schools drawing is assiduously cultivated by all enterprising mechanics.

THE TEACHERS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Berlin enjoys the advantage of being the chief educational centre not only of Prussia but of Germany, and would naturally draw the élite of the profession to its schools. But, not relying on this advantage, for each grade of schools and every branch of study, from the infant garden, and even the nursery, to the professorships in the university, seminaries for training young candidates in the art of teaching and managing classes and schools are established. After giving these opportunities of acquiring the necessary knowledge and practice, the state prohibits any one found unqualified to teach either a public or a private school, and to test his fitness a commission of experts is provided to conduct the examination.

1. *The teachers' seminaries or normal schools.**—Of these there are (1865) 54, under the care of the provincial school board. In all the pupils are required to live in the premises, except in Berlin, where the pupils may reside with their parents. The discipline is strict, the fare simple, and work hard. The pupils wait on themselves, take care of their rooms, and must not indulge in even the national habits of beer-drinking and smoking. The course occupies three years, much of the third year being given to the practicing school, which is the point around which the whole of the instruction centres. These schools are not model schools, except under exceptional circumstances. An ordinary school of the town is preferred. The pupil-teacher first draws, then writes down, his observations, and, before giving a lesson, must prepare a sketch of his plan; and a trial lesson forms part of his final examination. In some of the seminaries the young teacher remains as an assistant in the practicing or other school of the town for a year.

2. *Training preparatory to the seminary.*—In Berlin, as well as in other parts of Prussia, there are not only preparatory schools for the seminaries, but experienced teachers who take private pupils to train; and young teachers are encouraged to seek the society of educated men. There is also a six-months' course to help young teachers in a review of the subjects on which additional examinations are to be held.

3. *Examination for the office of teacher.*—There are two examinations of

* An account of these seminaries in detail is given in the American Journal of Education.

candidates. 1. The first takes place on the completion of the course, and is conducted with great ceremony by the director and professors of the seminary, each examining in his own subject, under the superintendence of the government commissioner, who is the school councillor of the province. Certificates are given for three degrees of merit: No. 1, "very well qualified;" No. 2, "well qualified;" No. 3, "sufficiently qualified." 2. The second examination takes place at the expiration of three years after the first, and up to that time he has been permitted to act only as assistant. He must present himself, without waiting for notice, at the time appointed, at the seminary of his graduation. With the record of the first examination before them. the examination turns mainly upon professional skill, and is conducted by the departmental school councillor, with the aid of the director. It is more a review of conduct than a test of attainment. He is allowed four hours to write an essay on some point of school management. Part of his work is written and part oral. If this examination is satisfactory, he receives a certificate of qualification for a full-class town elementary school; if the result is only good, the certificate limits his chance to a village school.

Local committees may claim a competitive examination where there are several candidates for a vacant mastership; and in Berlin the school authorities can narrow down the competitions by designating the persons to be examined; but the examination takes place before a permanent board, of which the provincial officer is president.

4. *The progressive improvement of teachers.*—After obtaining a mastership of a school the young teacher must extend his professional knowledge by taking part in one or more of the five conferences which are held in every province, viz: of all the teachers of a *parish*, which are held only in the winter months: of a *district*, which are held only in the summer; of a *circle*, which are held twice in the year, in an alternate month with the district conferences; of the *department*, which are held once a year; of the *seminary*, which all who live within a certain number of miles of the seminary must attend, whose schools it is the duty of the director of the seminary to inspect. These conferences discuss professional questions, and keep up a professional attachment. Besides these frequent conferences there are *book societies*, of which each teacher is required to be a member and pay a small fee for some school journal and other educational literature. There is also, occasionally, a brief course for review of professional subjects, at the seminary of the department, when the occupation of the teaching itself will admit.

Nearly every teacher in all the elementary schools of Prussia has been thus trained and examined, and also required to continue his professional improvement.

MATTERS TAUGHT IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The contest which found a settlement in Prussia in the "Regulations of October, 1854," did not practically affect the elementary schools of Berlin as much as the village and rural schools, inasmuch as many subjects and methods which these regulations were intended to exclude from the schools are more scientifically and thoroughly treated in the secondary and special institutions. Still. the repression felt in the public elementary schools has helped to increase the number and popularity of private schools, which still aim to impart a "knowledge of common things" and to develop the powers of thought by the formal exercise of them. The matters now taught in the one-class (ungraded) village school in the 26 hours in the week are, religion, occupying 6 hours; reading and writing, 12 hours; ciphering, 5 hours; singing, 3 hours. In the upper division one hour a week, taken from writing, is devoted to drawing; and explanation of natural phenomena is given in connection with the reading lesson. The great objects now are limitation of the subjects taught and more tho-

oughness in the handling of the same. Mastery over the instruments of future ultivation—the mother tongue, the organs of speech and song, the relations of umbers, the pen and the pencil—is aimed at and accomplished.

But the first and staple matter of elementary instruction is religion. The primary school of Germany in its origin was Protestant, and its main work was o impart to the poor the ability to read the Scriptures and repeat the catechism, nd was originally under the supervision of the pastor or subordinate church fficer. The first general school regulation of 1763, drawn up by Hecker and ssued by Frederick II, enforces the older practice, where it directs that "the people shall be religiously taught in reading, praying, chanting, writing, and rithmetic, catechism, and Biblical history." In 1794, when "the public school" was declared "to be an institution of the state," it continued under the superntendence of the clergy; when Prussia aggregated to itself large masses of Catholic subjects in Silesia, Posen, and Westphalia, the Catholic schools were ontinued under the supervision of the Catholic clergy; and it was to meet the lifficulty of religious instruction in schools composed of the children of different eligious confessions, that the code of 1794, provided that "admittance to a public school shall not be refused to any one on the ground of diversity of religious confession," and that children should not be compelled to attend the eligious instruction which their parents did not accept. In 1801 the school egulation for the province of Silesia provides that, while "all the children must ttend the common prayer or hymn," the books must not contain anything ffensive to the religious convictions of parents; and that while the teacher, on ertain hours in the week, is giving distinctive religious instruction to children f his own faith, the children of the other side can absent themselves to attend n the religious teachings of their own pastor. After much discussion and many plans, it was ordained in the constitution of 1851, "that religious instruction in he peoples' schools is under the conduct of the respective religious bodies." By various provincial regulations, and by the ministerial "*regulation*" of October, 1854, it is proclaimed that "the life of the people is to be remoulded nd built up on the foundation of christianity," and to effect this a course of religious instruction is prescribed with adaptation to different religious confessions. The substance of this famous regulation seems to be: 1. The school is opened nd closed every day with prayer, which consists of the Lord's prayer, the norning and evening benediction, and sometimes the prayer for the church niversal. 2. The historical contents of the Old and New Testament in chronoogical order. 3. The Bible is never to be used as a text book for teachers' reading, although selections are read by the older pupils in a religious course. 3. The maller catechism of Luther, the Lord's prayer, the creed, the Ten Commandments, nd the words of institution in the sacrament are to be committed to memory. 4. A certain number of hymns (30 out of a list of 80) are to be committed.

MODE OF SUPPORTING SCHOOLS.

It is not at the option of a commune whether it shall have and maintain a chool or not, or what number of masters it shall have in its school. Every commune is obliged by law to find school-room and teaching for all the children vho belong to it, as every parent, on the other hand, is bound to send his child o some school, public or private. Each department fixes the minimum of salry, which varies with the population, cost of living, and years of service. The chools are not free or gratuitous, and their support is derived, 1st, from the evenue of any charitable bequests, fines for non-attendance, collections in church, nd donations; 2d, the school fees (schulgeld) paid by the children; 3d, a ocal rate; 4th, the general taxation of the country. Each commune must provide a house for the school and teacher, and a certain quantity of land, and fixes ts own rating or tuition-book—on the principle of the ability of the parents to pay the fees, which are collected by the local school authority. As this fee is

from Latin to give to it. Arithmetic or mathematics have 4 hours a week in *secunda* and *prima*, 3 in *quinta*, *quarta* and *tertia*, and 4 again in the lowest class. French begins in *quinta*, and is the only modern language except their own which the boys learn as part of the regular school work; it has 3 hours a week in *quinta* and 2 in all the classes above. Many gymnasiums offer their pupils the opportunity of learning English or Italian, but as an *extra*. Geography and history have 2 hours a week in *sexta* and *quinta* and thenceforward 3 hours. The natural sciences get 2 hours in *prima* and 1 in *secunda*. In the rest of the school they are the most movable part of the work, the school authorities having it in their power to take time from them to give to arithmetic, geography and history, or to add time to them when there is no *Real-schule* in the place and the boys in the middle of the gymnasium wish to study the natural sciences in preference to Greek. Drawing is a part of the regular school work in the three lower classes of the school, and has 2 hours a week. *Sexta* and *quinta* have 3 hours a week of the writing master.

Every class has religious instruction; *sexta* and *quinta* for 3 hours a week, the four higher classes for 2. All the boys learn singing and gymnastics, and all who are destined for the theological faculty at the university learn Hebrew in *secunda* and *prima*; but these three matters do not come into the regular school hours. I have said that in places where there is no *Real-schule*, boys in the middle division of a gymnasium may substitute other studies for that of Greek. Where there is a *Real-schule* accessible this is not permitted, and in the upper division of a gymnasium it is nowhere permitted. In general the gymnasium is steadily to regard the *allgemeine wissenschaftliche bildung* of the pupil, the formation of his mind and of his powers of knowledge, without prematurely taking thought for the practical applicability of what he studies. It is expressly forbidden to give this practical or professional term to the studies of the pupil in the highest forms of a gymnasium, even when he is destined for the army.

2. *Progymnasien.*—Progymnasiums are merely gymnasiums without their higher classes. Most progymnasiums have the lower and middle divisions of a gymnasium, four classes; some have only the lower division and half of the middle, three classes; some again have all the classes except *prima*. The progymnasium follows, so far as it has the same classes, the *Lehrplan* of the gymnasium. In the small towns, where it is not possible to maintain at once a progymnasium and a *Real-schule*, the progymnasium has often parallel classes for classical and for non-classical studies. But in general the tendency within the last five years has been for the progymnasium to develop itself into the full gymnasium, and when I was at Berlin Dr. Weise, a member of the council of education there, to whom I am indebted for much valuable assistance,* pointed out to me on the map a number of places, scattered all about the Prussian dominions, where this process was either just completed or still going on.

3. *Real-schulen.*—To reform the old methods of teaching the classics, to reduce their preponderance, to make school studies bear more directly upon the wants of practical life, and to aim at imparting what is called "useful knowledge," were projects not unknown to the 17th and 18th centuries as well as to ours. Comenius, a Moravian by birth, who in 1641 was invited to England in order to remodel the schools there, and in the following century Rousseau in France, and Basedow in Germany, promulgated, with various degrees of notoriety and success, various schemes with one or other of these objects. The Philanthropinum of Dessau, an institution established in pursuance of them, was an experiment which made much noise in its day. It was broken up about 1780, but its

* Dr. Wiese has written an interesting work on the English public schools, but his book on those of Prussia, *Das höhere Schulwesen in Preussen*, Berlin, 1864, (pp. 740,) is a mine of the fullest, most authentic information on the subject of which it treats, and is indispensable for all who have to study this closely.

mpulse, and the ideas which set this impulse in motion, continued; and bear fruit in the *Real-schulen*. The name *Real-schule* was first used at Halle; a school with that title was established there by Christoph Semler, in 1738. This *Real-schule* did not last long, but it was followed by others in different parts of the country. They took a long time to hit their right line and to succeed. It is said to be only from June, 1822, that the first really good specimen dates. This one was at Berlin, and though it did not begin to work thoroughly till 1822, it had been founded in 1747, and had been in existence ever since that time. Its founder's name was Johann Hecker, who was a Berlin parish clergyman. The government began to occupy itself with the *Real-schulen* in 1832, and as the growth of industry and the spread of the modern spirit gave them more and more importance, a definite plan and course had to be framed for them, as for the gymnasium. This was done in 1859. *Real-schulen* were distinguished as of three kinds: *Real-schulen* of the first rank, *Real-schulen* of the second rank, and higher Burgher-schools. For *Real-schulen* of the first rank the number and system of classes was the same as that for the *gymnasien;* the full course was of nine years. The Lehrplan fixes a rather greater number of hours of school work for them than the gymnasium have: 30 for the lowest class, 31 for the class next above, 32 for each of the four others.

All three kinds of *Real-schulen* are for boys destined to callings for which university studies are not required. But Latin is still obligatory in *Real-schulen* of the first rank, and in the three lower classes of these schools it has more time allotted to it than any other subject. In the highest class it comes to its minimum of time, three hours; and in this class and in *secunda* the time given to mathematics and the natural sciences amounts altogether to 11 hours a week. As the *Real-schule* leads not to the university but to business, English becomes obligatory in it as well as French. French, however, has most time allotted to it. Religious instruction has the same number of hours here as in the *gymnasien*. Drawing, which in the *gymnasien* ceases after *quarta* to be a part of the regular school work, has in the *Real-schule* two hours a week in each of the five classes below *prima*, and three in *prima*. It is found that after *quarta*, that is, after three years of school, many of the *Real-schulen* boys leave, and an attempt is therefore made to render the first three years' course as substantial and as complete in itself as possible.

The *Real-schulen* of the second rank have the six classes of those of the first, but they are distinguished from them by not having Latin made obligatory; by being free to make their course a seven years' course instead of a nine; and, in general, by being allowed a considerable latitude in varying their arrangements to meet special local wants. A *general*, not professional mental training, is still the aim of the *Real-schule* of the first rank, in spite of its not preparing for the university. A lower grade of this training, with an admixture of directly practical and professional aims, satisfies the *Real-schule* of the second rank.

Where a gymnasium and a *Real-schule* are united in a single establishment, under one director, the classes *sexta* and *quinta* may be common to both, but above *quinta* the classes must be separate.

4. *Höhere Bürger-schulen.*—The term *Bürger-schule* was long used interchangeably with that of *Real-schule*. The regulations of 1859 have assigned the name of higher Burgher-school to that third class of *Real-schulen* which has not the complete system of six forms that the *gymnasien* and the other two kinds of *Real-schulen* have. The higher Burgher-school stands, therefore, to the *Real-schule* in the same relation in which the *Progymnasium* stands to the *gymnasium*. Some Burgher-schools have as many as five classes, only lacking *prima*. The very name of the Bürger-schulen indicates that in the predominance of a local and municipal character, and in the smaller share given to classics, they follow the line of the *Real-schulen* of the second order. Still Latin has three or four hours a week in all the best of these schools. They are, however, the

least classical of all the higher schools; but several of them, in small places where there cannot be two schools, have gymnasial classes parallel with the *real* classes, just as certain *gymnasien*, in like circumstances, have real classes parallel with their classical classes.

As the elementary schools pursue a course of teaching which is not specially designed as a preparation for the higher schools, it has become a common practice to establish *vorschulen*, or preparatory schools, as in France, to be appendages of the several higher schools, to receive little boys without the previous examination in reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and Scripture history, which the higher school imposes, and to pass them on in their tenth year, duly prepared, into the higher school. These *vorschulen* have in general two classes. These are the higher or secondary schools of Prussia. Before the recent war the population of Prussia was 18,476,500. The latest complete school returns are those for the year 1863. In 1863 Prussia possessed 255 higher schools, with 3,349 teachers in them, and 66,135 scholars. She had 84 *vorschulen*, or public preparatory schools, with 188 teachers and 8,027 scholars. Of the 255 higher schools 172 were classical schools, gymnasiums, or progymnasiums, with 45,403 scholars; 83 were non-classical schools, belonging to one or the other of the three orders of *Real-schulen*, with 20,732 scholars.

All these schools have a public character, are subject to state inspection, must bring their accounts to be audited by a public functionary, and can have no masters whose qualifications have not been strictly and publicly tried. The commissioners will recollect that we found in the secondary schools of France, with 38,067,094 inhabitants, 65,832 scholars in the year 1865. They will recollect also that we found, in all the schools which by any straining or indulgence can possibly be made to bear that title in England, 15,880 scholars in a population of 18,949,930. In the public higher schools and preparatory schools of Prussia, we find 74,162 scholars, with a population of 18,476,500.

To this general view of the institutions which belong to the system of secondary education in Prussia, and of each of which excellent specimens can be seen in Berlin, we add from Schmidt's *Pädagogische Encyclopädie*, a more full historical development of the Real-school, which is now moulding the character of secondary education throughout Europe.

REAL-SCHOOLS.

Real-schools, frequently called higher Burgher-schools, are institutions differently organized and arranged to suit the condition of their location, which have for their object to give a *general scientific* education for the higher vocations of practical life which do not require the professional course of the university. They are distinguished from gymnasiums, whose main object is to prepare for academic studies, i. e., for independent treatment of the sciences, and also from the industrial or trade schools, which have for their exclusive object the acquisition of knowledge and of abilities for a special trade. If they are in contrast to the former, in which the ancient languages and literature form the real and formal basis of general scientific labor, by employing as means of instruction the elements, which in modern times are constantly gaining in importance, mathematics and natural sciences, as well as modern languages and literature, and in this more or less agree with industrial schools, they yet differ from the latter, by combining such elements with their programme of instruction that a *general superior* knowledge is offered, and not one merely designed for the practical wants of some special trade. In this their peculiarity they are a product of our age, and owe their strong development, in regard to their number as well as to the inner perfection of their organization, to the last three or four decades. Yet their roots lie further back, and in order to understand their character it is well to review the chief periods of their history.

The causes are twofold which called Real-schools into life—the discovery of the

high significance of the natural sciences, and the wants of practical life. Only when both had arrived at full power and influence, was it possible that the Real-schools could develop themselves in their peculiarity, and at last so shape themselves that they could take their place, as in Prussia, beside the older sister, the gymnasium, which had for centuries alone enjoyed the privilege of conferring a higher education.

The impetus from the increased value of natural sciences became at first apparent. It is well known that the sciences of nature had gained an independent position, much different from their former insignificance, under the lead of Francis Bacon. He taught in a decided and clear contrast to the education hitherto pursued, depending on the study of the ancients, that "the science of nature must be taken as the great mother of all sciences," and pointed out the way it should progress to due power and importance. It is not our province to show here the influence of these new opinions on science. We only recall the fact that Newton and Leibnitz appeared not long after his death, and, together with a number of men more or less renowned, promoted the new direction of the spirit, indicated by Bacon in a surprising manner by a series of fruitful discoveries. "It seemed," says Herschel, "as if the genius of science, so long kept back, now plunged into nature, to disclose with a united strength the virgin soil and bring to light the hidden treasures." Bacon exercised a deep influence on Amos Comenius, the greatest pedagogue of his age, and one of the greatest of all ages, as appears from his entire didactic system. (Raumer's Pedagogy, vol. ii, p. 65.)* For though he lays great stress upon the study of the Latin language, partly on account of the formal culture flowing from it, partly on account of its practical utility, yet he was so opposed to the preference given to antiquity and classical studies, that he not only wanted the basis of all instruction, to the twelfth year of age, to be laid in the exclusively German school, but even in reference to higher institutions, after some wavering, he decided against the use of classics in the instruction of youth. As everywhere in teaching, so also in the languages, he demands to begin with the object, not with the words, so in the higher degrees of instruction he lays greater stress on real sciences, history, (in the highest sense of the word, as history of nature, of discoveries, of religion,) natural philosophy, mathematics, &c. Thus the school he plans is a real-school in the best sense of this word, since he aims at higher cultivation by a thorough and profound study of real science, not offered in his time by the gymnasiums. Truly, the plans of Comenius were never realized; even the *schola pansophica*, established at Patak by himself, under the patronage of Prince Ragotzki, never advanced beyond the three lower classes, in which Latin, from books of instruction of realistic principles, occupied the chief part. At this we cannot be astonished. Beyond errors committed by himself, as all innovators in the sphere of pedagogy would have done from excess of enthusiasm, the age in its total scientific and social development was not ripe for the execution of such plans. Yet the authority he enjoyed perpetuated his ideas, and his Latin books of instruction, which for many years were in use, principally the *Orbis Pictus*, contributed to keep them alive. This appears most interesting in the expressions of Mr. Feuerlein, rector of the Nuremberg gymnasium. There mathematics were already taught in five classes, after Sturm's method, which contained the elements of mathematics pure and applied, and in which distinct regard is taken in considerations of practical life.

Much more was this the case, and in a more lasting and effective manner, in Halle, as first in the institutions created by A. H. Francke. The peculiar character of these institutions consisted in this—that, as all proceeded from special wants, the satisfaction of which presented itself to Francke as most pressing or desirable, all aimed at filling, as completely as possible, each of these wants.

*Reproduced in American Journal of Education. Vol. V., p. 275 to 298.

In this he acted with perfect freedom, and with the clear energy which distinguished all his actions, exclusively and only in conformity to the objects he had in view, and hence all schools organized by him had a character entirely different from everything undertaken before, so as to create an epoch in many respects, especially by the introduction of real sciences into the schools. It was of importance in this regard, that at the commencement of his pedagogical enterprises he was charged with the education of three boys of noble descent, which led to the establishment of his *pedagogium*. Here the question was, so to arrange the instructions as to give an education due to a man of liberal means. Therefore, from the free and general knowledge possessed by himself, he often, beyond the usual instruction in religion, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, selected other objects of instruction, as French, German oratory, mathematics, geography, history, even astronomy, botany, anatomy, and natural science, for which purpose he founded a museum, which had never been done in schools before. However, these latter sciences were treated with a certain freedom, not in regular lessons, more as a recreation, as well as by the visitation of various workshops and the practice of technical abilities, in turning, cutting glass, &c. So the real branches were received into the sphere of means of education, by the demands of practical life. These demands, it is true, were far from those which now serve the real-schools, as much as the above institution differed in its character from the latter. Francke intended to found a school which would have been very similar to the real-school, as Professor Naseman has proved from a publication of Francke from the year 1698, hitherto unknown. Among the great number of various schools (he enumerates 17 of them) which at that time were organized, or being organized, he calls one a "special pedagogium for children, who shall be instructed in writing, ciphering, Latin, French and economies only, and not continue their studies, but become secretaries, clerks, merchants, administrators of estates, or learn useful arts." He designates this school as one which should "for a time be connected with the pedagogium, but in the end be separated from it." If this had been done it would have had much analogy to the present real-schools; but the institute never was realized, and there is no further remark in regard to it in numerous later publications of Francke. The time had not yet come to make such a school possible. After all this it must be seen that Francke, by what he actually established, contributed essentially to the introduction of real sciences into the system of instruction, though not at all in the sense of real-schools of this day.

Of a different kind, though also proceeding from the wants of practical life, was the enterprise of Mr. Chs. Semler, which was begun in 1706 in Halle, under the name of a "mathematical and mechanical Real-school." In the publication in which one year before he had presented his views under the title, "useful propositions," he calls it a mathematical trades-school, a name which better designated the matter under consideration, for it was destined for boys from 10 to 14 years who intended to learn a trade. These children, during some lessons in the week, "the poor on Wednesdays and Saturdays from 11 to 12, those who paid something from 2 to 3 in the afternoon," were shown various models, "by a person well versed," at the house of Semler, with explanations and many useful observations, without, however, following any regular order of instruction. An accurate description is given of this school by Semler in his "New Mathematical and Mechanical Real-school," (1709,) from the preface of which the above information has been taken. The new name of this school, which appears here for the first time, owes its origin clearly to the fact to which Semler ascribed great importance, "that the subjects of instruction were shown, presented, and explained in their details." They dealt, above all, with *things, realities*, in the extremest sense of the word. The proposition of Semler had found ready approbation from the government of Magdeburg, as well as from the recently founded society of science in Berlin, whose opinion had been solicited, "since

the introduction of this method had to some appeared too difficult," and he received such support that he was enabled to carry out his plan. However, this first attempt lasted only 2½ years. With the death of the teacher the school ceased; still it was the first weak germ, from which the real-schools, as such, proceeded. Semler himself resumed the idea about 30 years later, in opening (in 1738) the real-school again in "solemn manner." But he enlarged its organization and named it "a mathematical, mechanical and economical real-school." It should have satisfied "those who wished and those who wished not for study." Undoubtedly this does not mean that he saw in these subjects of instruction a preparation for academical studies, but he gives only an intimation of different classes of scholars, as "one lesson was for the *honoratiores*, and another for 24 poor children." The arrangement was like the previous, notwithstanding the increase in objects of teaching. It was a completion or repetition school, in which, besides many useful branches, a preparation for various trades could be given. Instruction was generally in connection with models and instruments—with *things*. The death of Semler (1740) dissolved the school.

But the principle on which it had been erected, and which, as Semler said, had been his rule for 40 years, that well-known *non scholae sed vitae discendum* appeared again and in a more distinct form. Not only several publications urged its adoption to provide special classes for children who wished not to enter on professional studies, but many schools were reorganized under the influence of these views. Thus the gymnasium at Weimar in 1733 received a new organization, very little successful it is true, by which those should receive special attention who, as is said in the order of the school, "will serve God and the fatherland in other than political offices, principally in the military, the police, economy, or commerce and other things, chiefly as cantors." The pupils should obtain a "praegastum in military and economical matters; they should learn Italian, French, and music; moreover the gymnasiasts should have opportunity gratuitously to profit in civil and military architecture." In a similar though superior sense Duke Charles I established in 1745, at Brunswick, the "Collegium Carolinum," which was to give the youth who wished to study a more complete preparation for the university than had hitherto been given; and on the other hand should offer to future military men, merchants, &c., who for their future position desired to acquire a general superior education, an opportunity to be instructed in the natural sciences, history, geography, statistics, &c.

Much more important and of greater consequences was the real-school established 1747 by J. J. Hecker. With great zeal, this man, after he had been called as pastor of Trinity church, Berlin, in the manner of A. H. Francke, took to heart the interests of the poor children of his charge, and so advanced them that it soon surpassed the limits of a poor school. He gradually adopted into the programme of instructions the first elements of the Latin and French language, and the practice of much knowledge demanded by civil life. After he acquired in March, 1747, a house of his own, (the means came from the profits of a lottery, in which, beside several amounts in money, the Bible formed a number of the premiums distributed) he gave to the school a greater extent and more definite organization. Next he published in the programme, by which he invited to the examination in May, a notice of an "economical mathematical real-school," which would be opened in the schools of Trinity church at the commencement of the month of May, and then proceeded directly to the execution of his plan. As the name he gave to his school is the same as the one adopted by Semler, so he also started from the same principle. In a petition to the supreme authority on schools, in which he presented his plan, he expressly refers to the precedent of Semler, and points out the same object, the same means, which the other had before his eye. But in his programme he goes much further and fixes his aim in a much larger sphere. He places the new school at the side of the Latin and German schools, and pledges to all its pupils such a preparation as will

facilitate their entry into any trade they may choose. He promises to arrange eight different classes: 1, of mathematics; 2, of geometry; 3, of architecture and building; 4, of geography; 5, of natural philosophy and natural sciences; 6, of manufacture, commerce, and trade; 7, of agriculture; 8, a class of curiosities and extras. Moreover, drawing shall be practiced. All this could not be realized at once, but Hecker labored for the realization of his plans with an unabated zeal. He was encouraged in this by the approbation of the superior school authorities, by the King Frederic II himself, who not only promoted the interests of this school but granted it also the name of "Royal Real-school," and by the increasing popularity with the public, which was shown in considerable donations and the growing number of pupils. The method of instruction in the real classes rested mainly on the principle adopted by Semler, in connection with models, for the purchase of which J. F. Hälm, who presided over the school as inspector from 1753 to 1759, was specially active. An interior principle, uniting the various objects of instruction, did not exist, and notwithstanding many changes under different directors, which the school experienced in the course of the century, was not developed till a later time. The school was rather a combination of various technical schools, by which he sought to satisfy the many demands of life. This appears from the different plans of instruction communicated by Schulz, and more from that of A. J. Hecker, a nephew of the founder, who in 1784 became director of the school. Besides several general lessons, as religion, German, Latin, French, history, and geography, natural philosophy, drawing, we find some special branches, such as practical geometry, subterranean measurements, artillery, fortification and art of war, practically applied mathematics, machines and architecture, agriculture, forestry, commercial science, book-keeping, elements of anatomy. Naturally the pupils had a choice of these subjects; not all were taught at a time, some in the summer course, others in the winter. Finally, much may have been very imperfect, especially as the school had continually to struggle against financial difficulties. Notwithstanding these drawbacks it was of great importance to many who obtained their education in it, and for the development of pedagogical views in general. It contributed largely to the solution of the problem of instruction for purposes of practical life.

By the appearance of Rousseau and the philanthropists, the attention to this subject was awakened in larger circles, though in another more general manner. Publications treating it specially became more numerous and found active sympathy. Above all deserves to be named the writing dedicated to Frederic the Great by Resewitz, abbot of the convent of Bergen, which has the title: "*The education of the citizen for the use of sound reason and common usefulness,*" which appeared at first in 1773, and in a second edition in 1776. The sketch he gives of a "public institute of education in the capital," corresponds in its essential features, aside from the difference in the scientific point of view and the religious opinions of that time, to the object of our present real-schools. Of a similar character are the publications appearing shortly afterwards by Gedike, "*on the nature of a burgher-school;*" by Snetlage, "*on the transformation of so-called gymnasiums into real-schools;*" by Lachman, "*on the practical organization of burgher-schools;*" the latter a successful prize essay. Thus the conviction of the importance and necessity of these schools became more and more general, and many attempts were made to establish them, as in Austria and other countries.

The powerful changes in consequence of the French revolution towards the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th century, prevented the further development of such thoughts and plans, but gave on the other hand a mighty aid by modifying all the conditions of social life. The necessity of developing all the powers vested in different classes of the people, of increasing them, presented itself everywhere, and led to an extraordinary activity in everything

relating to the education of youth. This was increased by the enthusiasm caused by Pestalozzi, though at first directed to elementary education only, but going far beyond its limits. Thus, before a lasting peace had been re-established by the dethroning of Napoleon, new attempts were made in several parts of the country to organize schools in which the citizens could acquire an education for the practical duties of their vocation. This was done principally in Prussia, where at the period of great outward humiliation began the greatest development of spiritual strength. "Higher Burgher-schools" were established in Kœnigsberg, Danzig, Frankfort on the Oder, &c.; and in Halle, at the time belonging to the kingdom of Westphalia, a real-school was organized in the Francke Institute. All these arrangements proceeded mostly from the middle class of citizens without any essential co-operation of the government. The new regulations for schools in Bavaria, promulgated in 1808, established real-schools near the gymnasium, which however did not succeed.

A better support was given to the development of real-schools after the end of the war and the restoration of peace. An activity never known before unfolded itself from year to year in an increasing degree in all the spheres of human enterprise. In close connection with this, the attention to and care of the various classes of schools increased nowhere in a higher degree than in Prussia, where, as in almost all other fields of public life, so in this, an extra ordinary progress took place, and became perceptible in the matter of real-schools. The time had now come when the conditions under which alone they could prosper and attain a strong development existed, and were appearing in an increasing measure—a powerful industrial life on the one hand, and a deeper interest and distribution of the exact sciences on the other, and finally a rising intermixture of both. Through this the demand for training youth in the elements of these sciences not only appeared more and more on the surface, but it became possible better to distinguish the manner in which this could be done with greater success than heretofore. It being impossible to combine the character of real-schools with the gymnasium, steps were taken for the establishment of special schools, and in the first decades after the war a great number of real-schools of greater or less extent and perfection were established, generally by the municipal authorities, in reference to local interests. Other German states followed herein Prussia. In the course of time arose a great enthusiasm for this new class of schools, of which many had high hopes for the future as being more suitable to the times than the old gymnasiums. This led to unpleasant rivalries between the two classes of schools, which lasted for a while, but are now happily forgotten, since the real-schools have obtained a distinct and well-founded organization and position.

In reference to the inner organization of real-schools the example of Prussia was of decisive importance in their development and consolidation It will be well to describe more definitely what was done there. The Royal Real-school at Berlin again created an epoch by the reorganization it received through A. G. Spilleke in 1822. Since 1820 the latter had been appointed director of the schools, united since the days of J. J. Hecker, and by his sensible and energetic administration they were soon elevated to an efficiency till then unknown. After having dissolved the original interior connection between the gymnasium and the real-school, Spilleke sought to form each of these schools according to their inner nature and the object resulting from it. The thoughts which led him to this he presented in the first programme of his administration; the second, which appeared in 1822, treats on the "*nature of the burgher-school.*" Far above merely outward objects, which had been followed with such preponderance in these schools, he proceeds from the idea that the desire for knowledge is as original and founded in the constitution of the human mind as the instinct of perception, and that the highest aim in the education of a people is to develop both principles to equal perfection in its members. The contrast offered in the

sphere of outward life between spirit and nature, must not only be banished from science, but also in all practice, so that by human art nature should gain the impress of the human spirit. In the recognition of this desire and calling of man, schools should be preferred in which this object is aimed at, in which all is taught by which outward life may gain a superior, ennobled and moral form. He therefore calls the real-schools, as well as the gymnasiums, scientific schools, to indicate that they also aim not only at technical skill, but at spiritual culture, and that nothing should be more guarded against than a mechanizing of instruction. They give a general scientific preparation for the special callings of higher practical life as the gymnasium gives for the university, and therefore should not be subordinate to the gymnasium, but have an equal rank and dignity. With this end in view the plan of instruction deviated in a high degree from the former plan. The essential subjects of instruction, after religion, were now natural sciences and mathematics in its different applications, German, and the two modern languages most important to practical life and distinguished for their literature, the French and English, history and geography, drawing. In this a model was given, after which the many schools, founded in the following years, in the main organized themselves with such modifications as the local wants and desires made necessary.

The government left to these schools, as they gradually had appeared without being fostered by authority, a certain freedom of action, which served essentially to clear the views on their nature, object, and conditions of successful existence. The privileges granted successively to the pupils of entering the service of the state under certain conditions, and of one year's military service, contributed much to their development and consolidation. From the year 1827, when the pupils of the real-school, who were dismissed from the first class with a certificate of maturity, first obtained the privilege of admission into the bureaus of civil administration, chiefly those of the revenue, the mail and the judiciary, new privileges were granted, and material aid to a greater amount was given to several real-schools on the part of the state. Of greatest importance in this regard, as well as for the existence of these schools, was the "preliminary instruction on the final examinations of the higher Burgher and Real schools" of March 8, 1832. Not only were the privileges formerly granted now extended to forestry and architecture, but further, and which was of more general importance, a distinct object was given to them by the demands for the final examination, which every school had to attain. Of great significance were the regulations in regard to Latin, (whose position in the real-schools had become very indeterminate,) by which every one who applied for admission into the service of the state must have attained a certain degree of knowledge of this language. A consequence of this was that instruction in this language was resumed in almost all schools of this class, at least so as to offer pupils an opportunity of studying the same. After the issue of the above regulations the number of the real-schools increased in all the provinces in rapid succession, and the enthusiasm for this new form of instruction rose to the highest degree. They reached their climax between 1845 and 1850, in the period of manifold spiritual excitement and struggle. This zeal not only was shown in the many periodicals and journals which discussed the questions in regard to real-schools, but also in the first assembly of German real-school teachers in 1845 in Meissen, and that of the next years in Mayence and Gotha, in which lively discussions of the various interests of these schools took place. The year 1848, as in all other fields of public life, so also in that of higher schools, brought an extraordinary fermentation and manifold plans of reorganization which aimed at merging the gymnasiums and the real-schools into total gymnasiums. On this idea, within narrow and practicable limits, rested the plans laid before the general conference called together at Berlin in April, 1849, for advising on the reorganization of higher schools, which were adopted by them, and after which both classes of

schools should have a common pedestal in the three lower classes, and be divided in the upper classes as upper gymnasium and real gymnasium to pursue their special ends. However, after the return of peaceful times this idea was nowhere carried out, except perhaps where it recommended itself to local conditions; nor was any effect given to the resolution of the conference on the "admission to the lectures of the philosophical faculties at universities" of pupils provided with the certificate of final examination of a real-school. In the years next following, by repeated decrees, more difficult conditions were attached to the privileges formerly granted to real-schools, or they were diminished, whereby their further prosperity became endangered. Many complaints arose against this, which were satisfactorily adjusted in the "order of instruction and examination of real-schools and higher burgher-schools" of October 6, 1859. This decree, the fruit of all the experience made in this field, in a full appreciation of the rights of all conditions of life, regulates the forms of a harmonious connection and solid organization of these schools, without excluding liberties of modification in the plan, on account of provincial or local circumstances or of further experience. It forms for Prussia a period in development which will undoubtedly be normal for some time to come, and exercise great influence beyond the limits of that state. Of most decisive importance in it is the distinction between Real-schools of the first and of the second order, and higher Burgher-schools, according to the completeness of the course and the equipment in powers and means of teaching. In the same measure differ the privileges of these different schools; those of the Real-schools of the first order being, of course, the highest, and equal to those of the gymnasium, except in relation to the university. For all schools, of which the interior or exterior organization did not correspond on all sides to the demands of the law, the privileges formed a powerful incentive to summon all the powers in order to reach the standard of the first order, and thereby to secure to their pupils a participation in those privileges. In consequence of these efforts the number of schools belonging to this class—which at the time of the regulation was 26—increased to the end of the year 1866, consequently in seven years to 56, in the Prussian provinces, while there were in that country only 10 Real-schools, second order, and 26 higher Burgher schools. This shows how much that law has furthered the development of these schools; but not only exteriorly. The views set forth on the position of these schools in the organism of superior instruction, which form the basis, and are fully expressed in these regulations, are so wise and practical that they may be presented without hesitation as perfectly to the purpose in itself without local or national limitations. In these regulations they say:

The Real and higher Burgher-schools have this object, to give a scientific preparation for the higher vocations in life which do not require an academic course. Not the nearest want of practical life should decide their organization, but the object, to bring the mental abilities of youth, confided to these schools, to that degree of development which is the necessary condition to a free and independent exercise of their future duties in life. They are not technical schools, but, like the gymnasium, they work by general means of instruction and fundamental knowledge. There is no contrast in principle between a gymnasium and real-school but a relation of mutual completion. They divide among themselves the common task of offering the foundation to a complete superior education for the main branches of the different professions. The division has become necessary by the development of science and of public life, and the real-schools have gradually adopted a co-ordinate position to the gymnasium. Only in proportion as the object of general and ethic culture is recognized and realized by the real and higher burgher-schools can they correct the erroneous impression that they could or would prepare for practical life or impart knowledge quicker and easier than the gymnasium, and gain ground for the conviction that just then they would not benefit the school, but life, and attain a higher degree of usefulness, when the powers necessary for the objects of life are trained by themselves according to their nature and future use. The school is subservient to life and listens to its demands. This is proved by the existence of real-schools and the arrangement of this plan; but they work on youth, and can only lay the general and lasting foundation to the education necessary for the various callings in life. All professional education must be based on a free human cultivation of the mind and spirit.

The peculiar instruction of the real-school is principally directed to the objective and positive, and demands its acquisition. For the prosperity of the real-schools they should rightly understand this and avoid the danger which lies in the occupation with the wealth of real life and empiric science, if the knowledge is not sharpened thereby, that the deeper ground of all realities lies in the spiritual contents and value of the things, and that the visible and sensual world rests upon the invisible and spiritual. That man should acquire a dominion over the earth and subject to himself the powers of nature, belongs to his divinely ordained destiny and honor. The instruction of the real-school shall do her share in this, so that the growing generation the ability to fulfil this destiny may be developed; but it shall also make known that the object of life is not enclosed therein, and shall give, in the freeing power of true cultivation, a protection against spiritual servitude, to which a false conception of the great object would lead.

The peculiar superiority aimed at by the real-school consists in training and sharpening in its pupils the habit of correct observation and of understanding natural phenomena, and of discovering the law of their existence; that it therefore, particularly in the mathematics and natural sciences and in drawing, aims at more than is prescribed for the gymnasium, and also gives a more thorough knowledge of modern literature and life. This will be valuable only if a love of science is awakened in the pupils of a real-school, and if their acquaintance with the material world is accompanied by a reverence for true science and a knowledge of Him who bears and rules all life.

The course of instruction of the real-school closes the scientific preparation for most of its pupils; the gymnasium points beyond itself to the university. From this results the necessity for the pupil of the real-school, because he has not the university before him, before he enters into practical life to gain an interest and acquire an ability for independent self-study and progress in science. This object the school can only fulfil in the measure with which it gives not only knowledge for use, but a genuine scientific education, through which a love of science is secured through the years of after life.

From the same reason the real-school, the sooner its pupils must be surrendered to the demands and progress of public life, should so much the more seriously fulfil the duty of making them familiar with that, which in all the change of appearance is the eternal and imperishable, and with truth which is superior to reality. If this true reality of life is overlooked by the real-schools, there is no gain to hope from them for the life of the nation; they would not afford a scientific and moral culture of the mind, but only be serviceable to the material spirit of the age, which would be contrary to their destination and object.

In these extracts is contained the highest idea which this class of school permits, by which it would be elevated to a place of true culture of the youthful mind, and be withdrawn from the danger which indeed threatens it of serving materialism. At the same time these observations terminate the complaints made against these schools, often not without reason; the peace between the gymnasium and the real-school and their different ways of education is established, and wherever these schools shall reach the object thus selected, it will be on the plan indicated above.

If the object fixed for the real-school is be reached, then its organization must be in accord with the same; it cannot be reached with a course of a few years, but demands a longer time of continued labor. Therefore, the course of instruction in a Prussian real-school of the first and generally also of the second order has been fixed at from eight to nine years, under the supposition of admittance with the tenth year; and that of a higher burgher-school at six to seven years; and it will be but just to say that all real-schools which, as many in Austria, Wurtemburg, and elsewhere, have a shorter course of instruction, cannot reach the proper object, and are more or less for a lower, if not a technical education. A great many pupils who enter the real-schools of Prussia do not go through all its classes; on the contrary, the two upper classes are but thinly attended, and the number of pupils who pass the final examination is but a small percentage of the total attendance. It is specially remarked in the "order of instruction and examination," that with the end of the third class a relative complete course of entry into practical civil vocation for the middle classes should be reached. Many pupils advance only to that degree which secures them the privilege of one year's military service, that is to the second class of a real-school, first order; and to the first class of a real-school, second order. But these lower classes of a complete real-school do not correspond to real-schools of an inferior order, which aim at a more limited general education. The total

result of a school depends on its last aim and object, and the endeavor to attain that pervades all degrees of instruction, even that of the middle and lower classes, their teachers, and pupils. Thus the high aim of Prussian real-schools has a stimulating and reviving effect on all pupils belonging to them, though many only advance partly towards it.

In regard to the subjects of instruction, by which the end of real-schools is to be realized, there is unanimity of opinion that they should be adapted to the one aim, a preparation for the higher vocations of practical life, and be in close relation to the same. Beyond the technical abilities of *penmanship, drawing,* and *singing,* so important for the training of the æsthetic sense and in part for many of those vocations, and beyond the true foundation for all education, instruction in *religion* and the *mother language,* they teach the various branches of *natural science* and *mathematics,* the more important of the modern languages of European civilization, *French* and *English,* and finally the two studies by which alone life in the present can be understood in its innermost nature and in the fulness of development, *history* and *geography.* And no real-school could be found in which these subjects are not taught with a greater or less degree of perfection. In Austrian real-schools the two modern languages are not obligatory; in general the relative proportion of subjects of instruction varies in the different countries according to the demands of utility and local wants. In looking back on the views which in the progress of time gradually developed themselves, it cannot be denied, that in its early stages before other objects, much stress was laid upon the practice of mathematics and natural sciences, as is done to this day in the Austrian real-schools; but afterwards the languages gained more importance, as appears in the order of instruction and examination of Prussia of 1859. And this appears right. For if the real-schools, as much as they are called upon to prepare for practical life, shall give not only knowledge and ability, but like the gymnasium, a superior education, then languages and literature, the free products of the human mind, ought to receive due consideration. They are most suitable to give spiritual culture, as they employ the mind in the most direct and varied manner in its sensibility, thought, and reflection, and at the same time, from the earliest beginning, offer the safest opportunity for the application and understanding of knowledge in regard to this study, as well as for practice in the free use of mental power. Mathematics and natural sciences, though of high value, and of great importance for practical life in this nature, are less suitable to co-operate for that general culture; mathematics on account of their abstract relations to the formula; natural sciences on account of the mass of material, dividing itself into numerous details, which to connect and to survey is above the powers of youth.

But if the study of language is to have a cultivating influence, it must not be limited to the mother tongue. By acquiring foreign languages, and by the exercise of the mental powers connected with their study, those advantages are gained which can and should be acquired in this field. The real-schools, from these motives, are devoted to the cultivation of the two most important foreign languages of the present time, French and English; and herein they have, if properly attained, the means for the development of a manifold and rich culture. Yet they offer but very little material for the elementary training of the power of language, on account of their poverty in organic forms, and the apparent random rules introduced by custom. Therefore it has been urged from many sides that the Latin language, more than any other, is adapted to grammatical development, and ought to find a place in the real-schools, if they are to fulfil their object completely. In this respect, also, the development of this school in Prussia is of special interest. The peculiar conditions of the Royal Real-school at an earlier period, when it was connected with the Latin school, have been presented above. When Spilleke became its director he thought, at first, not to allow a place to Latin, but soon became convinced that it was neces-

sary, to reach the degree of culture aimed at. Following his example other real-schools, established in Prussia afterwards, included Latin in their instructions, or made it a voluntary study for their pupils. A good deal of discussion on this subject took place in periodicals and teachers' conferences. The government at first left the matter to its own free development, but the more privileges it granted to these schools in reference to the entry of pupils into the service of the state the more it attached importance to the study of this language. In the conference of 1849, where a common foundation in three lower classes was concluded for the gymnasium and the real-school, Latin was recognised as obligatory for the latter; in the higher classes it was left to the choice of the pupils. By the order of instruction, &c., it was declared an essential and integral part of the programme of the school. "This position," it says in the observations to this order, "is due to the Latin language, not only for its importance to the knowledge of the connection of European culture with antiquity, but also as a foundation to the grammatical study of languages in general, and that of modern languages in particular, which, without a knowledge of Latin, always remains superficial. In this respect the Latin language is pre-eminently appropriate, to convey the knowledge of the distinction of forms and of the laws of language in general."

To these motives, decisive in themselves, are added some important exterior reasons, namely: that for almost all offices in the service of the state a knowledge of Latin is required; further, that a connection with the gymnasium is maintained by the study of Latin in the lower classes of the real-school, which, for many reasons, appears advantageous. Wherever local circumstances make it desirable both schools can be established on a common foundation, or be distinct sections of one institute. It may be questionable whether these reasons render it necessary to carry instruction in Latin through all the classes, or only to a certain degree, in order to gain more time and strength for the study of modern languages in the higher classes. The latter may be recommended, as a deeper penetration into the spirit of the Latin language and literature in the few lessons which could be set apart for it, seems improbable, and the results will always be inferior, while a simple and concentrated instruction at this stage is desirable. If the hours given to Latin were added to the two modern languages the pupils would more perfectly acquire a practical use of the same, and also penetrate deeper into the spirit of the classic writers. This would be a compensation for the great gain which the pupils of the gymnasium draw from a continued occupation with the master works of Greece and Rome. It would be a greater advantage than to be able to read a more easy Latin author with greater facility.

In general, it must be granted that the gymnasiums, in their material of instruction and in the greater adhesion and connection of the same, have a superiority over the real-schools for the acquisition of a more profound scientific education. Again, the real-schools offer other advantages in training the faculties for a sharp observation of the objective world—for understanding and penetrating it. It would be useless to discuss the greater or lesser value of the respective schools, while it is of the highest importance that each should reach its aim in the fullest sense and measure. It cannot be denied that the real-schools have greater difficulties to overcome; the material of instruction is more manifold and varied than that of the gymnasium, and, to a certain degree, more difficult to master, especially the natural sciences and modern languages.

In regard to the first point, a centre has been looked for, though in vain, around which, as in the gymnasium around classical antiquity, all other branches may concentrate. Some have chosen mathematics, others the natural sciences, others the mother-language, as such centre; but the branches of instruction in the real-school, except religion and technical objects, belong to two great and different spheres—on one side languages and history, on the other mathematics,

natural sciences, and geography; and these two spheres have not a dominating centre; much less has mathematics, though of so great importance. To arrive at the necessary co-operation in instruction, in furtherance of the general plan, great care is demanded in the arrangement of the different branches in the general plan for the different degrees of instruction, as well as in the time allotted to each within each class.

The other difficulty, arising from the nature of some of the subjects of instruction, in the manifold material less easy to manage, must be lessened by basing the method of instruction on just pedagogic principles. Some excellent observations on this point are contained in the conclusion of the "order of instruction, &c.," of Prussia. "Before the restless motion in the sphere of scientific and technical research and discovery, and the fulness of material, the fundamental conditions of the human soul and the wants of spiritual diet, particularly in youth, remain always the same: comprehensive and thorough knowledge is only possible in concentration, and pedagogy verifies anew the maxin that with too thick sowing the harvest will be small. To do few things thoroughly will awaken a lasting interest in the majority of pupils, while overcrowding them with many, especially with detailed information blunts the sensibility of the mind, and will result in dead knowledge. A real-school in which all communication of knowledge is not associated with its practical application, so that all knowing becomes ability of doing, mistakes and neglects an essential part of its peculiar destination." How to treat the different parts of instruction cannot here be minutely described. The "order of instruction and examination" contains many valuable suggestions also on this point. Not only must each individual teacher labor with care, but, more than in schools of any other kind, it becomes important that a mutual reference of analogous subjects should be effected by a sincere co-operation of all the teachers.

The desirable concentration of instruction in the real-school lies in the limitation of its objects of instruction in contents and extent, in the proper succession of objects and exercises, in the living connection between them, and in the scientific and pedagogic spirit of the method of teaching. It may be promoted by arranging the plan of instruction so as to have different branches less separated from one another, which, however, in practice presents many difficulties.

Furthermore it is of greatest importance that in the treatment of these sciences the error should be avoided that the knowledge which they afford is the only true or the highest object, an error held by many in our day. All teachers of real-schools should bear in mind the words of Raumer, in his history of pedagogy, when referring to the instruction in natural science under the head of "Mysteriously Revealed." (Part III, p. 169.) At the conclusion he says: "The recognition of the wonderful union of the mysterious and the revealed in nature, a most clear insight into the limit of both, will exercise a great influence on the character of the teacher and his study of nature. The mysterious will humble him and point him to eternity, while he will search out with a conscientious and enduring diligence all that can be understood, and thank God for each joy that comes to him in the discovery of the beautiful, solid, divine law. Must not such insight and feeling of the teacher have a most salutary influence on his manner of instruction? Whoever doubts of this, would be convinced by seeing the desultory influence of teachers who are without such insight, and think—there is no mystery for them—they can explain all," &c. These are golden words of a man who with the enthusiasm of his soul devoted himself to the research of nature, but kept his eye and spirit open for a superior world, like those great heroes of natural science, Bacon, Kepler, Newton, Haller, Cuvier, &c. Nobody will misunderstand this, as if it demanded a religious observation at every opportunity. Far from this! Only the acknowledgment of the different realms, and the extraordinary significance of describing and guarding their limits.

In regard to the exterior position of the teachers of real-schools, they are in all

considerations treated as of equal rank and dignity with teachers of the gymnasium, in public acknowledgment as well as salary. In Prussia the examination of secondary teachers takes no regard of their future engagement at a real-school, higher burgher-school or gymnasium; they are examined by the same commission and after the same regulations, and the latter fix the ordinary salary of a director of a Real-school; first grade not below 1200 thaler, inclusive of free residence, and from this amount, down to 400 thaler for the lowest ordinary teacher.

In the same measure all other conditions for the prosperity and success of these schools have been fulfilled: suitable school-houses with ample accommodations for the various instructions, natural collections, chemical laboratory, physical apparatus and other means of demonstration, without which no natural sciences can be taught.

In conclusion the relation of real-schools to the university deserves some attention. In the teachers' conference at Berlin, in 1849, it was resolved that the real-schools should prepare students "for the faculty of philosophy of a university, but the continued study of Latin to the final examination was a condition" to the privilege of full admission by matriculation at the university. Afterwards, when the principles of the "order of instruction and examination" were adopted, though the latter had not yet been issued, Minister Von Bethman-Hollweg replied in the house to petitions in regard to the position of real-schools, that if the latter fulfilled their object, "the universities could not be closed to the culture represented by the real-schools, and no department would refuse the powers offered in these schools;" and Director Heinen, at the close of his "review on the development of real-schools," draws from the above the sure hope that the privileges indicated in the words of the minister (in a vague manner) would be granted. The "order of instruction and examination" occupies an entirely different point of view, in defining, at its beginning, the object of real-schools to be "the preparation for such vocations *which do not require a course at the university.*" If superior scientific education shall not be endangered, the studies at the university, even in the various shades of the faculty of philosophy, can only be successful on the basis of a historical and linguistic preparation, which renders possible a more profound and more liberal scientific character than can be reached by the course of the real-school. The continuation of Latin, in a few weekly lessons, cannot materially change this; that preparation can only be attained by the scientific training of the mind on the historical basis of these sciences, by a fundamental knowledge of antiquity, its languages and literature, which is only given by the gymnasium. Mathematics and the entire realm of natural sciences have to this day but little direct connection with antiquity; yet it would result to their disadvantage if they should be withdrawn from the scientific basis of the gymnasium, and the depression of the general spiritual culture in those practical circles, in which persons so trained would officiate, would be a necessary consequence. The real-schools would suffer most, if they had to receive as teachers of mathematics or natural science, persons who received their scientific training at real-schools, and are therefore without that deeper foundation of general scientific culture. In their own interest real-schools should never have this privilege. But this does not prevent that in exceptional cases of talent and distinction a full admission to the university should be permitted; much less that pupils of real-schools should not visit the university for the purpose of acquiring a more finished superior education, or to prepare for a special profession. The "order of instruction," &c., has made ample provision for such cases.

LEAVING EXAMINATION IN GYMNASIEN.

I believe that the public schools are preferred, in Prussia, on their merits. The Prussians are satisfied with them, and are proud of them, and with good reason; the schools have been intelligently planned to meet their intelligent

wants. But the preponderance of the public schools is further secured by the establishment in connection with them of "leaving examinations," (*Abiturientenprüfungen, Maturitätsprüfungen, Entlassungsprüfungen, Abgangsprüfungen,*) on which depends admission to the universities, to special schools, (*Fachschulen,*) like the *Gewerbe-Institut* or the *Bauakademie*, and to the civil and military service of the state. The learned professions can only be reached through the universities, so the access to these professions depends on the leaving examination. The pupils of private tutors or private schools can present themselves for this examination; but it is held at the public schools, it turns upon the studies of the upper forms of the public schools, and it is conducted in great part by their teachers. A public schoolboy undoubtedly presents himself for it with an advantage; and its object undoubtedly is, not the illusory one of an examination test, as in our public service it is employed, but the sound one of insuring as far as possible that a youth shall pass a certain number of years under the best school-teaching of his country. This really trains him, which the mere application of an examination test does not; but an examination test is wisely used in conjunction with this training, to take care that a youth has really profited by it. No nation that did not honestly feel it had made its public secondary schools the best places of training for its middle and upper classes, could institute the leaving examination I am going to describe; but Prussia has a right to feel that she has made hers this, and therefore she had a right to institute this examination. It forms an all-important part of the secondary instruction of that country, and I hope the reader will give me his attention while I describe it.

Before 1788 admission to the Prussian universities was a very easy affair. You went to the dean of the faculty in which you wished to study; you generally brought with you a letter of recommendation from the school you left; the dean asked you a few questions and ascertained that you knew Latin; then you were matriculated. The *Ober-Schulcollegium*, which was in 1788 the authority at the head of Prussian public instruction, perceiving that from the insufficiency of the entrance examination the universities were cumbered with unprepared and idle students, determined to try and cure this state of things. In December of that year a royal edict was issued to the public schools and universities directing that the public schools should make their boys undergo an examination before they proceeded to the university; and that the universities should make the boys who came up to them from private schools undergo an examination corresponding to that of the public schoolboys. Every one who underwent the examination was to receive a certificate of his ripeness or unripeness for university studies, (*Zeugniss der Reife, Zeugniss der Unreife.*) The candidates declared to be unripe might still enter the university if their parents chose; but it was hoped that, guided by this test, their parents would keep them at school till they were properly prepared, or else send them into some other line. No plan of examination was prescribed, but the certificate was to record, under the two heads of *languages* and *sciences*, the candidate's proficiency in each of these matters.

The *Allgemeine Landrecht*, promulgated in 1794, after complaints had been rife that the universities had still a number of unprofitable students, and that young men went there merely to escape military service, made yet stricter regulations. It ordered the examination held at the university for boys coming from private schools to be conducted by a commission; and it forbade the mariculation of any one who did not obtain a certificate of his ripeness.

But the omitting to prescribe a definite plan for the examination, and the intrusting them to two different bodies, the schools and the universities, caused the intentions of the government to be in great measure frustrated. There was no uniform standard of examination. The schools made the standard high, the universities made it low; and numbers of young men, leaving the public schools without undergoing the *Abiturientenexamen* there, waited a little while,

and then presented themselves to be examined at the university, where the examination was notoriously much laxer than at the school.

The great epoch of reform for the higher schools of Prussia is Wilhelm Von Humboldt's year and a half, (1808–1810,) at the head of the Education Department. The first words of a memorandum of this date on a proposal not to require Greek except of students for orders: *Es ist nicht darum zu thun, dass Schulen und Universitäten in einem trägen und kraftlosen Gewohnheitsgange bleiben, sondern darum, dass durch sie die Bildung der Nation auf eine immer höhere Stufe gebracht werde,**—might be taken as a motto for his whole administration of public instruction. It was Wilhelm Von Humboldt who took the most important step towards making the *Abiturientenprüfung* what it now is. He was the originator of a uniform plan of examination obligatory on all who examined candidates for entrance to the university. Schleiermacher, who, as I have said, was a member of the education council, wished to take away this examination from the universities, and to give it entirely to the schools. This was not done, but the course of examination was strictly defined, and a form of certificate, fully indicating its results, was prescribed. The certificate was of three grades: No. 1 declared its possessor to be thoroughly qualified for the university, No. 2 declared him to be partially qualified, No. 3 to be unqualified, (*untüchtig*) But this plan of reform, which was brought into operation in 1812, could not produce its due fruits so long as the double examination was maintained. After the peace of 1815 there was a great flow of students to the universities; many of them were very ill prepared; but the universities, with the natural desire to get as many students as possible, eased the examinations to them as much as they could, and admitted the holders of any certificate at all. even of No 3, to matriculation. At Bonn, in 1822, out of 139 certificates for that year, 122 were of No. 3, declaring the holder unqualified for the university; 16 were of No. 2, declaring him partially qualified; only one was of No. 1, declaring him thoroughly qualified. The provincial school Boards reported to the minister that the efforts of the schools were frustrated by the laxity of the university commissions, which got more and more candidates. The schools in their turn were inclined to make the first grade of certificate a reward of severe competitive examination, which was by no means what those who instituted it intended. The admission to the universities of young men declared to be unqualified, the two kinds of examining bodies with differing views and standards, and the three-fold grade of certificate, were found fatal obstacles to the successful working of the reform of 1812.

All three obstacles have been removed. The regulations at present in force date from 1834 and 1856.† The leaving examination is now held at the *Gymnasien* only. The threefold grade of certificate is abolished, and the candidate is, as in old times certified to be either *reif* or *unreif*. No one, as a general rule, can without a certificate attend university lectures at all; and no one without a certificate of ripeness can be regularly matriculated in any faculty. The examining body is thus composed: the director of the gymnasium and the professors who teach in *prima;* a representative of the *Schul-Curatorium*. where the gymnasium has a *Curatorium;* the Crown's *Compatronats Commissarius*, (joint patronage commissary,) where there is one; and a member or delegate of the provincial school Board. The representative of the provincial school Board is always president of the examining commission. The *Abiturient*, or leaving boy, must have been two years in *prima*. The examination work is to be of the same pitch as the regular work of this class, though it must not contain passages that have been actually done in school. But neither, on the other hand, must it be such as to require any *specielle Vorstudien*. It embraces the mother

* "The thing is *not* to let the schools and universities go on in a drowsy and impotent routine; the thing is, to raise the culture of the nation ever higher and higher by their means."
† *Reglement vom* 4 *Juni*, 1834, completed by *Verfügung vom* 12 *Januar*, 1856.

tongue, Latin, Greek, and French; mathematics and physics, geography, history and Divinity. An *Abiturient* who is going to enter the theological faculty at the University is examined in Hebrew. The examination is both by writing and *viva voce*. The paper work lasts a week, and the candidate who fails in it is not tried *viva voce*. The examination papers are prepared by the director and teachers, but several sets have to be in readiness, and the president of the examining commission, who represents the provincial school board and the state, chooses each paper as it is to be given out. He also, at the *viva voce* examination, chooses the passages if he likes, and himself puts any question he may think proper. The provincial school board have at any time the power to direct that the same examination papers shall be used for all the gymnasiums of the province. Each performance is marked *insufficient*, *sufficient*, *good* or *excellent*, and no other terms, and no qualifications of these are admitted. A candidate who is fully up to the mark in the mother tongue and in Latin, and considerably above it either in classics or mathematics, is declared *reif*—passes—though he may fall below it in other things. If the commission are not unanimous about passing a candidate, they vote; the youngest member voting first and the president last. If the votes are equal the president has a casting vote. But the president may refuse to pass a candidate though the majority have voted for him. In this case, however, the candidate's papers must go to the highest examining authority, the *Wissenschaftliche Prüfungscommission* in whose district the province is, for their decision upon them. To this same high commission all the papers of half the gymnasiums of each province are each half year referred for their remarks; their remarks, if they have any to make, are addresed by them to the provincial school board, and by the provincial school board transmitted to the gymnasiums concerned.

The examination takes place six weeks before the end of the half year. The certificates are given out to the successful candidates at the solemnity which takes place in the *Aula* of a German public school at the end of a half year or *Semester*. Each member of the examining commission signs the certificate, which, besides defining the candidate's proficiency in each of the matters of examination, has three additional rubrics for *conduct*, *diligence*, and *attainments*, which are filled up by the school authorities as he deserves.

The candidate who is considered *unreif*, and not passed, is recommended, according to his examination and his previous school career, either to stay another half year at school and then try again, or to give up his intention of going to the university. If he still persists in going there at once he may; but he must carry with him a certificate of his present unfitness (*Zeugniss der Nichtreife*,) a certificate with the same rubrics as the other, and signed in the same way. With this certificate he holds an exceptional, incomplete position at the university; he cannot enter himself in any faculty except that of philosophy, and then he is entered in a special register, and not regularly matriculated. He can, therefore, attend lectures; but his time does not count for a degree, and he can hold no public benefice or exhibition. He may be examined once more, and only once, going to a gymnasium for that purpose; the three or four years' course required in the faculty which he follows only begins to count from the time when he passes.

The reader will recollect that for the learned professions—the church, the law, and medicine—and for the post of teachers in the high schools and universities, it is necessary to have gone regularly through the university course and to have graduated.

Candidates who have not been at a public school, but who wish to enter the university, must apply to the provincial school board of their province for leave to attend a certificate examination. They have to bring testimonials, and a *curriculum vitæ* written by themselves in German, and are then directed by the school board to a gymnasium where they may be examined. They have to pay

an examination fee of 10 thalers. If they fail, the examining commission of the gymnasium is empowered to fix a time within which they may not try again, and they may only try twice. They may, however, if they fail to pass, go up to the university on the same condition as the public school boys who fail. These *externi*, as they are called, are not examined along with the *Abiturienten* of the gymnasium, though they are examined by the same examining commission; but the boys who come from private instruction are by the minister's directions to have allowance made for their not being examined by their own teachers, and, so far, to be more leniently treated in the examination than the *Abiturienten*. On the other hand, boys who have been at a gymnasium and who have left it in order to prepare themselves with a private tutor, are not entitled to any special indulgence. Indeed a public school boy, who to evade the rule requiring two years in *prima*, leaves the gymnasium from *secunda*, goes to a private school or private tutor, and offers himself for examination within two years, needs a special permission from the minister in order to be examined. So well do the Prussian authorities know how insufficient an instrument for their object—that of promoting the national culture and filling the professions with fit men—is the bare examination-test; so averse are they to cram; so clearly do they perceive that what forms a youth, and what he should in all ways be induced to acquire, is the orderly development of his faculties under good and trained teaching.

With this view all the instructions for the examination are drawn up. It is to tempt candidates to no special preparation and effort, but to be such as "a scholar of fair ability and proper diligence may, at the end of his school course, come to with a quiet mind and without a painful preparatory effort tending to relaxation and torpor as soon as the effort is over." The total cultivation (*Gesammtbildung*) of the candidate is the great matter, and this is why the two years of *prima* are prescribed, "that the instruction in this highest class may not degenerate into a preparation for the examination; that the pupil may have the requisite time to come steadily and without overhurrying to the fulness of the measure of his powers and character; that he may be securely and thoroughly formed, instead of being bewildered and oppressed by a mass of information hastily heaped together." All *tumultuarische Vorbereitung* and all stimulation of vanity and emulation is to be discouraged, and the examination, like the school, is to regard *das Wesentliche und Dauernde*—the substantial and enduring.* Accordingly, the composition and the passages for translation are the great matters in German examinations, not those papers of questions by which the examiner is so led to show his want of sense, and the examinee his stores of cram.

LEAVING EXAMINATION IN REAL-SCHOOL.

The same course is followed with the *Real-schulen* and with the higher Burgher-schools. For entrance to the different branches of the public service, the leaving certificate of the classical school had up to 1832 been required. For certain of these branches it was determined in 1832 to accept henceforth the certificate of the *Real-schule* or the higher Burgher-school instead of that of the gymnasium. Different departments made their own stipulations; the minister of public works, for instance, stipulated that the certificate of the candidate for the *Bauakademie* (School of Architecture) should be valid only when the candidate's *Real-schule* or higher Burgher-school had been one of the first class, or with the full number of six classes, and when he had passed two years in each of the two highest classes. I mention a detail of this kind to show the English reader how entirely it is the boy's school and training which the Prussian government thinks the great matter, and not his examination. Since 1832 the ten-

* *Perverse studet qui examinibus studet*, was a favorite saying of Wolf's

dency has been to withdraw again from the *Real-schule* certificate its validity for the higher posts in the scientific departments of the public service; for these posts, the gymnasial leaving certificate is now again required. But for a very great number of posts in the public service the certificate of the *Real-schule* is still valid, and for a still greater number of posts in the pursuits of commerce and industry employers now require it. The Education Department issued in 1859 the rules by which the examination for this certificate is at present governed. They are the same, *mutatis mutandis*, with those for the *Maturitätsprüfung* at the gymnasium. The examining commission is composed in precisely the same way; the examination and the issue of the certificates follow the same course. The subjects are: divinity, the mother tongue and its literature, the translation of easy passages from Latin authors, but, in general, no Latin writing; French and English, in translation, writing, and speaking; ancient history; the history of Germany, England, and France, for the last three centuries; geography; physics and chemistry; pure and applied mathematics, and drawing. Excellence in one subject may counterbalance shortcomings in another, but no candidate can pass who absolutely fails in any. *Externi* who want the certificate are admitted to examination on the same terms, and at the same fee, as in the *Gymnasien*. In *Real-schulen* of the second rank the examination is easier than in those of the first, but the certificate has not the same value. The *Abgangsprüfung* and *Abgangszeugniss* of a higher Burgher-school, again, are still more easily passed and won, but still less valuable. The *Abgangszeugniss* of a higher Burgher-school entitles the holder to enter the *prima* of a first-rate *Real-schule;* often a very important opening to a clever boy in a small country place, who for one year can afford to go to a school away from home, but could not have afforded to get all his schooling there.

To the passage from the *tertia* and *secunda* of the gymnasium or of the *Real-schule*, examinations are also attached, for which certificates, if the boy leaves after passing one of them, are given, declaring his ripeness at that stage. For many subordinate employments in the civil service these certificates are accepted. To be a teacher of drawing in a public school, for instance, a certificate of ripeness for *secunda* of a gymnasium or of a first rank *Real-schule* or higher Burgher-school is required; this if the candidate has not been at a public school and has to be examined as an *externus;* if he has been at a public school, the certificate of his having passed the examination out of *secunda* at a second rank *Real-schule* is sufficient. One important employment of school certificates is to entitle the holder to shorter military service (*Zulassung zum einjährigen freiwilligen Militairdienst.*) Young men who volunteer to serve for one year, arming and clothing themselves, the term of military service to be then at an end, must, to be accepted, produce a certificate of a certain value, either from a gymnasium or a *Real-schule.*

It shows how many more gymnasium boys there are who go through the full school course than *Real-schule* boys; that whereas from the *Gymnasien* in 1863 there were 1,765 *Abiturienten* from *prima*, from the *Real-schulen* in the same year there were but 214. Adding to the 1,765 *Abiturienten* 40 *Externen* who passed at the same time, we have 1,805 boys who got the classical certificate of ripeness in 1863. Of this number 1,563 went in that year to the Prussian universities. Of the 214 *Abiturienten* from the *Real-schulen* (to whom are to be added three *Externen*, making 217,) 124 went into the public service, 92 into the pursuits of commerce or industry; one went to prepare for the gymnasial leaving examination, that he might go into a learned profession. Evidently the mass of those who go into business leave the *Real-schule* before *prima*, and the majority of those who stay for *prima* stay with the hope of public employment. But the minor certificates accessible to those who leave *secunda* and *tertia* promote an attendance at school longer than that which boys going into business would without the attraction of these certificates be willing to give; and they promote,

too, a wholesome return upon the school work done, and a mastering of it as a whole, which tend, the school work having in the first instance been sound and well given, to make culture take a permanent hold upon the future tradesmna or farmer.

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

To insure that the school work, which so much is done to encourage, shall indeed be sound and well given, it is not in Prussia thought sufficient to test the schoolboy and the candidate for matriculation; the candidate for the office of teacher is tested too. This test is the famous *Staatsprüfung* for schoolmasters, *(Prüfung der Candidaten des höheren Schulamts,)* and is the third great educational reform I have enumerated (the *Lehrplan* and the *Maturitätsprüfung* being the other two) which owes its institution to Wilhelm Von Humboldt. Before 1810 a certificate of having proved his fitness was not required of a candidate for the post of schoolmaster. Municipal and private school patrons in particular made their nomination with little regard to any test of the kind. There was generally in their school a practice of promoting the teachers by seniority to the higher classes, and this practice had very mischievous results. A project was canvassed for giving to the authorities of public instruction the direct appointment to the more important posts in schools even of municipal or private patronage. This project was abandoned. "But," said Wilhelm Von Humboldt, "the one defence we can raise against the misuse of their rights by patrons, is the test of a trial of the intending schoolmaster's qualifications."

This test was established in 1810. An examination and a trial lesson were appointed for all candidates for the office of teacher. It was made illegal for school patrons to nominate as teachers any persons who were not *geprüfte Subjecte.* As time went on, the security thus taken was gradually made stronger. The trial lesson was found to be an inutility, as any one who has heard trial lessons in our primary normal schools can readily believe, and a trial year in a school (*Probejahr*) was in 1826 substituted for it. In the following year it was ruled that the *pädagogische Prüfung*, which forms part of the examination of candidates for orders, and which had hitherto been accepted in lieu of the new test, was insufficient; and that persons in orders, as well as others, must go through the special examination for schoolmasters. This regulation gave full development to a policy which had been contained in the reform of 1810, a policy which Wolf had long before done his best to prepare and had declared to be indispensable if the higher schools of Prussia were to be made thoroughly good—the policy of making the schoolmaster's business a profession by itself, and separating it altogether from theology.

The rules now in force for this examination date in the main from 1831. It is held by the high examining commissions *(Königliche Wissenschaftliche Prüfungscommissionen)* of which I have already described the composition, and which are seven in number. The candidate sends in his school certificate of fitness for university studies, and his certificate of a three years' attendance at university lectures. With these certificates he forwards to the commission a *curriculum vitæ,* such as used to be required from candidates for the Oriel fellowships. The candidate for the gymnasium writes this in Latin; the candidate for the *Real-schule* may write it in French. The certificate given takes the form of a *facultas docendi*, or leave to teach; and this is *bedingte* or *unbedingte*—conditional or unconditional. The matters for examinations are grouped under four main heads, *(Hauptfächer:)* first, Greek, Latin, and the mother tongue; secondly, mathematics and the natural sciences; thirdly, history and geography; fourthly, theology and Hebrew. This last *Hauptfach* concerns especially those who are to give the religious instruction in the public schools.

The unconditional *facultas docendi* is only given to that candidate who in his *Hauptfach* shows himself fit to teach one of the two highest forms, and suffi-

ciently acquainted with the matters of the other *Hauptfächer* to be useful to his class in them. The candidate who in one *Hauptfach* is strong enough for any class up to *secunda* inclusive, but falls altogether below the mark in other sciences, receives a *bedingte "facultas docendi,"* for the middle or the lower forms, according as his capacity and the extent of his performance and of his failure seem to merit.

All candidates are required to be able to translate French with ease, and they must know its grammar. All must show some acquaintance with philosophy and pædagogic, candidates for the unconditional *facultas docendi* a very considerable acquaintance; and all must satisfy the examiners that they have some knowledge of the natural sciences.

The candidate for a *Real-schule* or a higher Burgher-school need not take Greek, but he must pass in Latin. His *Hauptfächer* are: mathematics, natural sciences, history and geography, the mother tongue, modern languages. His examination in all the non-classical matters is even more stringent than that of candidates for the gymnasium, because of his comparative exemption from classics.

The trials *pro loco* and *pro ascensione* are examinations imposed when the nominee to a place has not yet proved his qualifications for that place. For instance, the holder of a conditional *facultas docendi* cannot be appointed to a class in the highest division without being re-examined, and the holder of an unconditional *facultas docendi* cannot teach another matter than the *Hauptfach* in which he has proved his first-class qualification, without being re-examined.

A special *facultas docendi* is given to the foreign teacher of modern languages; but even he, besides the modern language he is to teach, must know as much Latin, history, geography and philosophy as is required of candidates who are to teach in the middle division of a gymnasium. This provision guards against the employment of subjects so unfit by their training and general attainments to rule a class, as those whom we too often see chosen as teachers of modern languages.

The high commissioners send yearly to the provincial school board of each province a report of these examinations for that province, with the necessary remarks. The candidates for masterships present themselves, with their certificates, to the school board of the province in which they wish to be employed. In certain exceptional cases candidates may be employed two half-years running without a certificate; but at the end of that time, if they have not passed the examination, they must be dismissed.

Those who at the university have taken, after examination, the degree of doctor, and have published the Latin dissertation required for that degree, are excused from the written part of the schoolmaster's examination. When this examination was first instituted, both Schleiermacher and Wolf, being then members of the education section, declared themselves strongly against allowing any university title to exempt candidates for the *höhere Schulamt* from going through the special examination. Probably they were right, for the seriousness of the degree examination, and the value of the degree, is not the same in every German university. They were overruled, however; but little or no inconvenience does in fact arise from the allowance, in this case, of an equipollent title; because if a candidate brings the degree of doctor from a university whose degrees are not respected, and if he inspires any suspicion, the patrons who are to nominate him, or the provincial board which is to confirm him, invite him to go through the special examination first; and if he refuses, or if he cannot pass, his appointment is not proceeded with.

The *Probejahr*, or year of probation, must, as a general rule, be passed at a gymnasium or a *Real schule*, not at a pro-gymnasium or a higher Burgher-school. In this way the schoolmaster of the lower class of secondary schools is a man who has known the working and standards of the higher. The probationer is

commonly unpaid, but if he is used in the place of an assistant master the school which so uses him must pay him. The schools are, however, expressly directed not to treat the probationer as a means of relieving an overtasked staff, but to give him an opportunity of learning, in the best way for himself, the practice of his business, and to let him therefore work with several different classes in the course of his year. At the end of his year he receives a certificate from the school authorities as to the efficiency which he shows.

NORMAL SEMINARIES FOR TEACHERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The normal seminaries (for secondary schools) in Germany are connected with the different universities, and designed, in general, to give the future schoolmaster a more firm and thorough grasp on the matters he studies there. The pædagogical seminaries have not been so important or so fruitful to him as the philological seminaries, where this design has been applied to what has hitherto been the grand matter of his studies, *Alterthumswissenschaft*, the systematic knowledge of classical antiquity. It was as the head of the philological seminary at Halle that Wolf gave that impulse to the formation of a body of learned and lay schoolmasters of which Germany has ever since felt the good effects. This seminary was opened in 1787, and Wolf was its director for nearly twenty years, till the University of Halle was closed by Napoleon after the battle of Jena, and Wolf went to Berlin to be a member of the Department of Education there. During the latter part of Wolf's time at Halle he was assisted in the seminary by Immanuel Bekker. There were 12 seminarists, with a small exhibition of 40 thalers (6*l.*) a year each; the exhibition was tenable for two years. No one was admitted to an exhibition who had not already completed his first year's course in the university, but students from any of the faculties might attend the seminary lectures. They attended in great numbers, and for the exhibitions themselves there were at the first examination 60 candidates. The seminary lessons were interpretation lessons and disputation lessons, the former being, as the name implies, the interpretation of a given author; the latter being the discussion, between two or more of the seminarists, either of a thesis set long beforehand and treated by them in written exercises, or of a thesis set by Wolf at the moment and then and there treated orally, in Latin, by his pupils. Wolf's great rule in all these lessons was that rule which all masters in the art of teaching have followed, to take as little part as possible in the lesson himself; merely to start it, guide it, and sum it up, and to let quite the main part in it be borne by the learners. The more advanced seminarists had some practice in the Latin school of the Orphan House at Halle. The more recent statutes of this philological seminary have set forth in express words, as the object of the institution, the design which Wolf always had in his mind in directing it, the design to form effective classical masters for the higher schools. Every Prussian university has a philological seminary, or group of exhibitioners much like that which I have described at Halle, not more than 12 in number, with a two years' course following one year's academical study, and *Alterthumswissenschaft* being the object pursued. There are generally two professors specially attached to the seminary, one for Greek, the other for Latin. Besides the ordinary members or seminarists, a good number of extraordinary members, and a yet much larger number of *Auscultanten*, attend the lessons. The staff of the philological seminary at Berlin has this constellation of names, from 1812, when this seminary was founded, to the present time: Boeckh, Buttmann, Bernhardy, Lachman, Haupt. The philological seminary of the University of Bonn was founded in 1819, and has had on its staff Professors Näke, Welcker, Ritschl, Otto Jahn. The mouth of the student of *Alterthumswissenschaft* in other countries may indeed water when he reads two such lists as these.

At the University of Bonn there is also a *Naturwissenschaftliches Seminar*, founded in 1825, on the express ground that qualified teachers of the natural sciences in the secondary schools were so much wanting. Bonn has, too, a *historisches Seminar* founded in 1861 for the promotion of historical studies, and also to provide good history teachers for the secondary schools. Dr. Von Sybel, the well-known historian, is at present one of its professors. The universities of Breslau, Greifswald, Königsberg, have likewise historical seminaries, serving either by statute or in practice the same end, of preparing specially qualified teachers of history for the public schools. Berlin, Königsberg, and Halle have also seminaries either for mathematics, or for mathematics and the natural sciences together; these, too, serve, in their line of study, the same end as the philological and historical seminaries serve in theirs. Berlin has also travelling fellowships of a year's duration, to enable Germans, who are to teach French in the public schools, to study the French language and literature in France itself. Two exhibitions of *45l.* a year each are attached to the Royal French School in Berlin, with the like object of enabling the future teacher of French to learn French practically and thoroughly. These are Crown foundations; the Crown, associations, and private individuals, are all founders of seminaries. The estimate of none of those which I have named exceeds 1,000 thalers (150*l.*) a year. It is astonishing how much is done in Prussia with small supplies of money.

Special pædagogic seminaries (*pädagogische Seminarien*) exist at Berlin, Königsberg, Breslau, Stettin, and Halle. Of these the assigned business with their seminarist is "to introduce him to the practical requirements of the profession of schoolmaster;" but this introduction is still to be carefully accompanied by a continuance of his general intellectual culture. In general, the seminarist here must have passed the examination *pro facultate docendi*, and instead of the *Probejahr* in a school he spends two or three years in the pædagogic seminary. Each seminarist has a certain number of hours' practice (six hours a week at Berlin) in a secondary school; he is present at the conferences, or teachers' meetings, of the school to which he is attached, and he lives with one of its older masters. The Berlin *pädagogische Seminar* was founded in 1787, at first with a single gymnasium (the *Friedrich-Werdersche*) assigned as its practicing school; since 1812 all the gymnasiums of Berlin have served in common for this purpose. There are now ten regular exhibitioners, but the exhibitions here are good, and the estimate for the seminary is much larger than that for any other seminary I have named; it is 2,390 thalers a year. Dr. Boeckh is the director of this seminary as well as of the philological one, and this joint direction well illustrates the close relation at present, in Germany as elsewhere, of the schoolmaster with philology. At Stettin the seminary has only four regular exhibitioners; they have good exhibitions, lasting for two or three years. This seminary is for the benefit in the first instance of the province of Pomerania, and the seminarists have to engage themselves to take, when their exhibition expires, any mastership the provincial school board offers them, and to keep it three years.

It is evident from what I have said that these exhibitions do not exist in sufficient number to provide seminary training for anything like the whole of that large body of teachers which the secondary schools of Prussia employ. It is found too that the directors and masters of great schools in large towns, who have a great deal to do and constant claims upon their attention, do not like being saddled with the care of seminarists either at their homes or in their classes. The same difficulties tell against their giving to probationers in their trial year due supervision. But it is the living for a time with an experienced teacher and the making the first start in teaching under his eye, that is found to be so especially valuable for promising novices. It is proposed therefore, instead of founding fresh pædagogic seminaries, to make arrangements for

selecting a certain number of good schoolmasters, who will take charge, for payment, of a batch of novices (not more than three) for a two years' probationary course before launching them independently; and a *Stipendium*, or exhibition, such as is given in the seminaries, is to be bestowed on those probationers whose circumstances require it. It is hoped in this way to provide a preliminary training of two years for all the most deserving subjects who go into the profession.

At the end of his term of probation the probationer gets his appointment. I have said before that for all appointments to masterships in the secondary schools the intervention of the state authority is necessary. In schools of Crown patronage the appointment is called *Bestallung;* in schools not of Crown patronage it is called *Vocation;* the state can give *Installation*, absolute occupation; other patrons can only nominate, and their nominee, if an improper person, is rejected, with reasons assigned, by the state authorities. The Crown, exercising its patronage through the education minister, appoints, in all Crown patronage gymnasiums and *Realschulen*, the director. The provincial boards, in the minister's name and by commission from him, appoint the upper masters *(Oberlehrer)* in these schools, and the rector in all Crown patronage progymnasiums and higher Burgher-Schools. The other masters in Crown patronage schools the provincial board appoints by its own authority. The nomination of a director in schools of municipal or private patronage requires the Crown's assent and the minister's confirmation. The nomination of an *Oberlehrer* in such schools requires the minister's assent and the provincial board's confirmation. The nomination of other masters in such schools the provincial board is empowered to confirm without the assent of the minister. All directors and masters, whether appointed by the state or only confirmed by it, take an *Amtseid*, or oath of office, by which they swear obedience to the Crown. In schools of Crown patronage, when the minister directs, on special grounds, the appointment, promotion, or transference of a master, the provincial board must comply.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

The two legally established forms of religion in Prussia are the Protestant *(evangelisch)* and the Catholic. All public schools must be either Protestant, Catholic, or mixed *(Simultananstalten.)* But the constitution of a mixed school has not been authoritatively defined, and though the practice has grown up, especially in *Realschulen*, of appointing teachers of the two confessions indifferently, yet these *Simultananstalten* retain the fundamental character of Christian schools, and indeed usually follow the rule either that the director and the majority of the masters shall be Catholic or that they shall be Protestant. In general, the deed of foundation or established custom determines to what confession a school shall belong. The religious instruction and the services follow the confession of the school. The ecclesiastical authorities—the consistories for Protestant schools, the bishops for Catholic schools—must concur with the school authorities in the appointment of those who give the religious instruction in the schools. The consistories and the bishops have likewise the right of inspecting, by themselves or by their delegates, this instruction, and of addressing to the provincial boards any remarks they may have to make on it. The *ordinarius*, or class-master who has general charge of the class, as distinguished from the teachers who give the different parts of the instruction in it, is generally, if possible, the religious instructor. In Protestant schools the religious instructor is usually a layman; in Catholic, an ecclesiastic. The public schools are open to scholars of all creeds. In general, one of the two confessions, Evangelical or Catholic, greatly preponderates, and the Catholics, in especial, prefer schools of their own confession. But the state holds the balance quite fairly between them. Where the scholars of that confession which

s not the established confession of the school are in considerable numbers, a special religious instructor is paid out of the school funds to come and give them this religious instruction at the school.

Prussia had, prior to the annexation of Hanover, &c., 11,289,655 Protestant inhabitants, 6,901,023 Catholic inhabitants. She has nearly 300,000 inhabitants who are classed neither as *evangelisch* nor as Catholic, and these are principally Jews. In her public higher schools, out of 66,135 boys, 46,396 are Protestant, (*evangelisch,*) 14,919 are Catholic. The rest, 4,820, are Jews.

The various denominations of Protestant Christians are thus harmoniously united in a common religious teaching. But the state, keeping in view the *christlichen Grundcharakter* of itself and its public schools, refuses to employ any masters who are not either Catholics, or, in the wide sense assigned to the term *evangelisch*, Protestants. Dissenters who are not Christians, and specially the *Lichtfreunde*, as they call themselves, (they would with us generally go by the name of Unitarians or Socinians,) are thus excluded from the office of public teacher, and so are Jews. In a country where the Jews are so many and so able, this exclusion makes itself felt. A Jew may hold a medical or mathematical professorship in the Prussian universities, but he may not hold a professorship of history or philosophy. France is in all these matters a model of reason and justice, and as much ahead of Germany as she is of England. The religious instruction in her schools is given by ministers of religion, and the state asks no other instructor any questions about his religious persuasion.

RANK, TITLE AND COMPENSATION OF TEACHERS.

A master on his appointment takes the title of *ordentliche Lehrer*, ordinary master, (the title of under-master is not used in the Prussian schools,) or of *Oberlehrer*, upper-master. The *Oberlehrer* is so either by post or by nomination. The posts conferring the title of *Oberlehrer*, posts in the upper part of the school, can only be held by a teacher whose certificate entitles him to give instruction in one of the two highest classes. *Oberlehrer* by nomination are masters of long standing, who as *ordinarii* or general class-masters have done good service, and have the title of upper-master given to them in acknowledgment of it; but the title so conferred does not enable them to give instruction in any class for which their certificate does not qualify them. The regulations direct that there shall be not more than three *Oberlehrer*, exclusive of the director, for every seven *ordentliche Lehrer;* but in schools with a larger staff of *ordentliche Lehrer* than this, the proportion of *Oberlehrer* to *ordentliche Lehrer* may become much larger. The minister confers the title of professor upon masters distinguished by their attainments and practical success. The directors rank as full professors of the universities, the masters with the title of professor rank as assistant professors of the universities. It should be said that in Germany the title of professor confers on its holder a fixed rank, as a few official titles do here in England. The director is more like one of our head-masters than he is like a French *proviseur*, but he does not, like our head-masters, give the whole of the instruction, or even the whole of the classical instruction, to the head class. Often he is not its *ordinarius*. He, like other masters, cannot give any part of the instruction for which he has not at some time proved his qualification. In general he has some special branch in which he is distinguished, and in this branch he gives lessons in *prima*, and usually in other classes too; governing also, as his name implies, the whole movement of the school, and appearing, much oftener than our head-masters, in every class of it.

Formerly few masterships had fixed incomes assigned to them, but it has more and more become a rule of administration in Prussia to give to all directors and teachers fixed incomes, and to do away with their sharing the school fees. Neither the proceeds of these, nor the proceeds of foundations, are in

any case abandoned to the school staff, to do what they like with. On the school estimates which I have described, all salaries appear, and all receipts from endowments or from school fees; the surplus of receipts over salaries and other school expenses is funded, and becomes available for enlarging or improving the school. There are few large endowments. In one or two cases, as at Schulpforta, the endowment is allowed to create for the director and the teachers a position above the average, and at Berlin, where the proceeds of the school fees are very great, the masters of the public schools have also a position above the average; but all this is kept within strict regulation, and is settled, as I have said, by administrative boards of public composition, or under public supervision, and is not left to the disposition of the school staff itself. Schulpforta has a yearly income of more than 8,000*l.*, but of this sum, less than 2,000*l.* goes in salaries to the rector and masters. The yearly sum funded, after all the expenses of this noble foundation are paid, is not much smaller than the sum spent in salaries.

By a *Normaletat*, or normal estimate, there is fixed for the staff of state gymnasiums the following scale of payments, which is above rather than below the average scale in *Real-schulen*, or in any kind of secondary school not of state patronage. The scale has three classes: the first class is for nine places in Prussia, exclusive of Berlin and Schulpforta, which stand on an exceptional footing of their own; the second class is for thirty-four places; the third class for fifty-eight. Of course the nine places in the first class, being the principal towns in Prussia except the capital, have far more than nine gymnasiums. In all the state gymnasiums of these nine places, the scale of salaries is, for the director, 270*l.* a year; for the masters, according to their post and their length of standing, from 90*l.* a year to 195*l.* In the thirty-four places of the second class, the scale is, for a director, 240*l.* a year; for the masters, from 82*l.* 10*s.* to 172*l.* 10*s.* In the fifty-eight places of the third, for a director, 195*l.*; for the masters, from 75*l.* to 150*l.* The salaries thus fixed are meant to represent the whole emoluments of the post. When a house is attached to a post the rule is that a deduction of 10 per cent. shall be made from the salary to balance the gain by the house. In some places there are special endowments for augmenting master's salaries. Thus the *Streitsche Stiftung* gives 455*l.* a year to augment the masters' salaries at the Greyfriars gymnasium in Berlin; but nowhere probably in Prussia does a school salary reach 350*l.* a year, and the rector of Schulpforta, whose post is perhaps the most desirable school post in the Prussian dominions, has, I understand, about 300*l.* a year, and a house. To hold another employment (*Nebenamt*) along with his school post, is not absolutely forbidden to the public teacher. Thus Dr. Schopen, the excellent Latin scholar at the head of the Bonn gymnasium, is at the same time professor in the philosophical faculty of the university there, but the *Nebenamt* must not interfere with his school duty, and the supervising authorities take good care that it shall not. So far as it does not interfere with his school duty, the public teacher may give private tuition, and in this manner increase his income; but to give private tuition for fee to the pupils of his own form in the public schools, he needs the director's consent. Even when every possible addition to it has been allowed for, the salary of a Prussian schoolmaster will appear to English eyes very low.

The whole scale of incomes in Prussia is, however, much lower than with us, and the habits of the nation are frugal and simple. The rate of schoolmasters' salaries was raised after 1815, and has been raised again since; it is not exceptionally low as compared with the rates of incomes in Germany generally. The rector of Schulpforta with his 300*l.* a year and a house, has in all the country round him, where there is great well-doing and comfort, few people more comfortably off than himself. He can do all he wants to do, and all that anybody about him does, and this is wealth. The schoolmasters of the higher school

enjoy, too, great consideration, and consideration, in a country not corrupted, has a value as well as money. As a class, the Prussian schoolmasters are not, so far as I could find out, fretting or discontented; they seem to give themselves heartily to their work, and to take pride and pleasure in it.

PROVINCIAL TEACHERS' CONFERENCES.

Distinct from the National School Conferences, which assembled, on the call of the Department of Education, in Prussia, and in Hanover in the years 1848 and 1849, to consider plans for the advancement of public instruction—not to be confounded with the voluntary conference conventions, or associations of elementary teachers, from a narrow or wider range of territory, assembling periodically—are the Provincial Conferences, in which are represented the universities and secondary schools, the highest and most vital members of the educational organism of the state, and whose deliberations and resolutions frequently determine the instruction issued by the minister respecting the studies and discipline of the highest institutions. By their action, since 1821 a good degree of uniformity in the classes, subjects, and methods has been secured throughout the higher schools of Prussia. In that year a pamphlet by Director Gotthold, of Königsberg, on "*the unity of the school*," was sent by the minister of public instruction, through the provincial counsellor, to all the principal directors and professors of the province of Westphalia, to gather their views on the differences pointed out and the remedies. To reconcile these views a conference was convoked, and in that and other provinces similar meetings have since been held, in which the great themes of gymnasial and university improvement are discussed, and by which the isolation and routine of these institutions in other countries have been broken up. All which has been experienced in this country by Teachers' Institutes, among elementary teachers, has been secured in a more quiet way; and, beyond the immediate results to individuals in attendance, the very organization, study plan, methods, and discipline of *gymnasien* and real-schools, as determined by ministerial instruction and by common interpretation and practice under them, have been wisely and widely influenced. The main subjects of discussion, such as the relative importance and plan of the Latin language and other subjects of study; the aim, plan, and method of examinations; the training of candidates for professorships; the code of discipline; the participation of the older students in secret societies; the utility of scholarships and free places; Latin composition and speaking; criticism of current pedagogical literature and independent discussion of the merits of new text-books; home preparation of lessons; the physical culture of students and the office of play, as well as of systematic gymnastics; the best method of teaching the mother tongue and German literature; the plan for history and geography combined; the reduction of the number of lessons per week; the depressing influence of poor diet; the exhilarating effect of frequent bathing and swimming; the time and place of religious instruction for students of different confessions; the mental discipline of mathematics and its one-sidedness, if pursued too far; the closing of the university to students who could not give evidence of good moral character; the codes of discipline of different German universities; the study of Italian and English literature as an equivalent for Greek in the higher classes; the time and place of æsthetics: these and other subjects, fully and ably discussed, and the decisions communicated to the minister of public instruction, have assisted gradually in forming a system of higher education, which may well challenge comparison with any other.

VISIT TO BERLIN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Berlin has four royal gymnasiums, one with a *Real-schule* annexed; four municipal gymnasiums, one with a *Real-schule* annexed; four other municipal *Real-schulen*, and one higher Burgher-school. All these are full; there were, in

1863, 6,874 scholars in them, without counting the children in the *Vorschulen*, or preparatory schools which several of them have as appendages; but the supply of higher schools in Berlin is not sufficient for the demand, and the municipality, which was spending in 1863 more than 40,000*l.* a year on the secondary and primary schools of the city, is about to provide several higher schools more. All through Prussia one hears the same thing; the secondary schools are not enough for the increasing numbers whom the widening desire for a good education *(der weiter verbreitete Bildungstrieb)* sends into them. The state increases its grants, and those grants are met by increased exertions on the part of the communes, but still there is not room for the scholars who come in, and the rise which has taken place in the rate of school-fee has in no degree stopped them. To obtain the state's consent to the formation of a new school with the name and rights of a public secondary school, a commune must satisfy the state authority both that its municipal schools for the poor will not be pinched for the sake of the new establishment, and also that it can provide resources to carry on the new establishment properly, and in conformity with the requirements of the *Lehrplan*. This is being done in all directions.

The Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium.—Perhaps the most remarkable of the higher schools in Berlin is the *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium.* The Grey-friars gymnasium *(Gymnasium zum grauen Kloster)* has about the same number of scholars, but with the *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium* is connected a *Real-schule;* a *Vorschule,* or preparatory school, common to the gymnasium and the *Real-schule* both; and a girls' school, called from the then crown princess of Prussia who gave it her name in 1827, *Elisabet-schule.* There were at the end of 1863, 2,200 scholars in the whole institution together; 581 in the gymnasium, 601 in the *Real-schule,* 522 in the preparatory school, and 496 in the girls' school. The gymnasium is remarkable as being the only higher school in Prussia, except the *Real-schule* on the Franck-foundation at Halle, where the receipts from the scholars cover the expenditure of the school. The annual expenditure for the gymnasium *Real-schule,* preparatory school and *Elisabet-schule* together, is in round figures 65,000 thalers; the receipts from the scholars' fees are in round figures 53,000 thalers. The property of the institution is very small, producing about 400*l.* a year only, so the deficiency is made up by a State grant of about 10,000 thalers; this deficiency, however arises not in the gymnasium, where the school-fees more than cover the expenses, but in the schools allied with it.

The history of this institution is the history of many public schools in Prussia. It owes its origin to the church, and has then in course of time passed under the superintendence of the State. I have mentioned the establishment by Johann Hecker, in 1747, of the first *Real-schule* at Berlin. Hecker was preacher at the Trinity Church in the Friedrichstadt, and he grouped together several small schools in his parish under the name of a *Real-schule.* The institution throve from the first; in 1748 it had 808 scholars, and 20 years afterwards it had 1,267. It was governed by the curators of the Trinity Church and by inspectors of their appointment; and it was supported, having no endowment except a very trifling house property, by voluntary contributions and by school-fees. The Latin school, which was one of the grouped schools, grew in importance, and at the 50th anniversary of the institution it received the name of *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium,* and in 1803 was rebuilt with a grant from the King of nearly 10,000*l.* towards the rebuilding. At the reforming epoch of 1800 it passed with the other public secondary schools of Berlin under the administration of the Education Department; this change being sanctioned, not only by public opinion but by the governing bodies of the schools themselves, with the view of giving to these great and important metropolitan establishments the benefit of a common and intelligent direction. The *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium* is now, therefore, both for *interna* and *externa,* under the School Board

f the province of Brandenburg, to which, as soon as the School Boards were onstituted, the central department transferred its direct charge to the public chools.

The gymnasium is by foundation Protestant, and out of the 600 boys whom I ound there, only 20 were Catholics, and 15 were Jews. The united schools ave a joint director and a joint administration of their affairs. They have ltogether 66 teachers, of whom 21 are for the gymnasium; of these 21, 11 are *Oberlehrer*, and of these 11, six or seven have the title of Professor. The irector is Dr. Ferdinand Ranke, a brother of the historian; he has been nearly 25 years director here, and more than 40 years in the profession. He and seven f the upper masters of the gymnasium are lodged in the school buildings, which are very plain; but in the school-court is one of those relics of the past, o far more common in the German schools, as in ours, than in the French, the nscription on Hecker's original school-house: *Scholae Trinitatis aedes in Dei honorem, regis gaudium, civium salutem, juventutis institutioni dicatae* There re no boarders, a boarding establishment which originally formed part of the nstitution having been done away in 1832. The scholars all through the chool pay the same fee, 26 thalers a year (3*l*. 18*s*.) In the *Vorschule* the fee s the same; in the *Real-schule* it is only two thalers a year lower. In one gymnasium at Berlin the scholars pay four thalers a year more than in the *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium;* in all the others they pay one thaler less. There is very considerable variety in the rate of school fees in Prussia, the circumstances of the school and locality being always taken into account in fixing it. The rate in the metropolitan schools is of course a comparatively high one, low as t seems to us. Many schools have a rate rising with the class or division; thus n the gymnasium at Wetzlar the boys in *sexta* and *quinta* pay 16 thalers, those n *quarta* and *tertia* pay 10 thalers, those in *secunda* and *prima* pay 20 thalers. In some schools the rate is as low as eight or ten thalers for the lower classes, and 14 or 16 thalers for the higher. As an average rate for all the gymnasiums of Prussia, 20 thalers (3*l*.) a year would certainly be rather above the mark than under it. The rates in the *Real-schulen* and the higher Burgher schools do not n general range below those of the classical schools. Moderate as these rates appear to us, they are much higher than they used to be; in the *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium* the school fee 20 years ago was only 16 thalers in *sexta* and *quinta*, and 20 thalers in the other classes. In many provincial schools it was astonishingly low, as low as two, two and a half, and three thalers. In the *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium* I found that 10 per cent. of the 600 scholars had free schooling. The number of free posts, as they are called, (*Freistellen*) varies in different schools; in some it goes up to 25 per cent.; but I think 10 per cent. may be taken as a fair average.

These free posts are given on the ground of need and public claim. There are also a few exhibitions in the *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium*, but it will be best to notice the subject of exhibitions when I am speaking of some older and richer establishment. Of course in the very large schools it is not possible to actually group and teach the scholars in six classes, nor yet is it always possible to observe the rule which enjoins that there shall not be more than 40 scholars in either *secunda* or *prima*, or more than 50 in any of the other classes. The supply of class rooms falls short, even more than the supply of teachers. The highest class, however, always remains *prima*, as in our great schools it always remains the sixth; and in the higher classes the Germans, as I have already mentioned, follow, when it is necessary, the plan of having an upper and lower division (*ober-prima, unter-prima,*) and in other classes both this plan and the plan of having two groups or assemblages at the same stage of school work, and advancing parallel to one another.

The first lesson I heard was Dr. Ranke's own lesson to *prima*, on the *Philoctetes* of Sophocles. He spoke Latin to his class and his class spoke Latin in

answer; this is still a common practice in the German schools, though not so common as formerly. The German boys have certainly acquired through this practice a surprising command of Latin; Dr. Schopen's lesson at Bonn to his *prima* in extemporaneous translation into Latin—a lesson which has a deserved celebrity—I heard with astonishment; a much wider command of the Latin vocabulary than our boys have, and a more ready management of the language, the Germans certainly succeed in acquiring. On the other hand, the best style of the best authors is not, to my mind, so well caught in Latin composition by their boys as by ours. This is more particularly the case in verse, where their best scholars often show, I cannot but think, not only a want of practical skill (that of course is nothing,) but a want of tact for what is uncouth and inadmissible, which one would not have expected of a people who know the Latin so well. The same is true, in a less degree, of their prose; the best scholars in the best schools of England or France, if set to write a speech or a character in the style of Cicero or Tacitus, would, I think, in general acquit themselves of the task more happily than the corresponding boys of a German school.

But the feeling which was strongest with me in the Berlin *Philoctetes* lesson was the feeling that one seemed to be back in the sixth form at Rugby again, as I remember it nearly 30 years ago. After the lecture rooms at Oxford, and the French *lycées*, and the Italian *licee*, here was at last a body of pupils once more who had worked at their lessons, had learnt Greek, and were at home in a Greek play. What the Berlin boys knew about the scope of the play, its chief personages and the governing idea and character of each, was more than the Rugby boys would have known; but the quantity of lines done, the style of doing them, and the extent of scholarship expected in the boys, and found in them, seemed to me as nearly as possible the same thing at Berlin and at Rugby. I thought the same in the afternoon when I heard Professor Zumpt (a son of the famous Latin scholar) take *unter-prima* in Cicero's speech *Pro Sex. Roscio Amerino*. The boys had been through the oration during the early part of half-year; now they were going very rapidly through it again, translating into fluent German without taking the Latin words. The master let the boys be the performers, and spoke as little as possible himself, but every good or bad performance was noticed. Just the same with lessons in Thucydides, Livy, and Horace, which I heard at other gymnasiums in Berlin; the lesson had been well prepared by the pupils, the master made few comments and only on really noteworthy matters or to cite some parallel passage which was not likely to have come within the pupils' reading; in general when he spoke it was to question, and he questioned closely. I was struck with the exact knowledge of the Horatian metres which *unter-prima* boys at Greyfriars showed when questioned on them. I found that the practice was to begin by taking eleven odes as specimens of metre, and carefully studying these before proceeding further. Then they commence the odes at the beginning and go right through them. The portion of a Latin or Greek author got through at a lesson is about the same as in the corresponding form in one of the best English schools, but either in school or by private study the boys have certainly read more than our boys or the French; it is the general rule that a boy who goes in for the leaving examination has read Homer all through. A large number of the boys, too, seem to have really benefited by the instruction, and to be in the first flight of their class, than with us. But the great superiority of the Germans, and where they show how much further they have gone in *Alterthumswissenschaft* than we have, is in their far broader notion of treating even in their schools the ancient authors as *literature*, and conceiving the place and significance of an author in his country's literature, and that of the world; in this way the student's interest in Greek and Latin becomes much more vital, and the hold of these languages upon him is much more likely to be permanent. This is to be set against the superior finish and elegance of the best of our boys in

Latin and Greek composition; above all in Latin and Greek verse. Greek verse, indeed, can scarcely be said to be a school exercise at all, so far as I could see or hear, in the foreign schools Instead of having to write Greek iambics, the boys in *prima* at the *Friedrich Wilhelms Gymnasium*, on one of the days when I was there, had had to write a summary of Lessing's essays on the epigram. The summaries were handed to the professor, who then made a boy stand up and give in his own words the substance of Lessing's essay, beginning at the beginning, the professor commenting and asking questions as the boy proceeded. Presently another boy was set on, and in this way they went through the essay. The lesson was as much out of the range of my English school experience as the lesson on the *Femmes Savantes* of Molière which I heard, as I have already said, with so much interest in the *Ecole Normale* at Paris. The Berlin lesson, like the Paris one, was very interesting.

In the lower division of *tertia* (about the middle of the school) I had another opportunity of observing a way, not, I think, in use in England, of practicing boys in Latin. The lesson was Ovid; the boys had to translate at home a certain portion of Ovid into German, and then to bring their translation with them to school. This they had then, in school, to turn back into Latin, not metrical. After this boys were called up one after another, as in England, to say a few lines of Ovid by heart; but then, again, each boy had also to say in German prose the passage he had just recited in Ovid's verse.

In *quinta* I heard the religious instruction. For boys still so near the primary school stage, religious instruction, as a part of the school lessons, seems to me to be still, as in the primary school, in place, and still useful; in the higher classes of the secondary-school it seems to me, I confess, unprofitable and inappropriate. Anything more futile and useless than the lesson in *Galatians* which I heard given to *secunda* at Bonn cannot possibly be imagined. In *quinta* here at Berlin, it was different; the boys were first questioned in Bible narratives from a text-book—a good text-book and good questioning; then they said Luther's Short Catechism, and then they repeated hymns. The two or three Catholic and Jewish boys belonging to the class did not come to this lesson.

Visit to Greyfriars or city Gymnasium.—Its history and endowment.—The history of Greyfriars is this: It occupies the site of a Franciscan convent abolished at the Reformation; in 1574 the third part of the convent premises was assigned by the elector, at the instance of the town magistracy, for use as a public school. The magistracy endowed it, and the elector made it over to them, but with an electoral *Schulordnung*.

Here from the earliest times of the school there was a *convictorium*, (the Italian *convetto*.) The robust appetite of the 16th century for the humanities appears in the original plan of work; Greek had thirteen hours a week, Latin ten, logic two, arithmetic two, singing five. In 1655 the school had 400 scholars. In the second quarter of the 18th century the mother tongue and its literature first appears as part of the school course; the German public schools having thus the start of ours in this particular, by about 125 years. In 1793 the school got the benefit of a great endowment, which I have already mentioned, the *Streitsche Stiftung;* the capital of this endowment is now 33,000*l.* It is administered by a *Directorium* composed, not of Sigismund Streit's descendants, but as follows: the provost of St. Nicholas, (parish minister,) the director and the protector of the school, a councillor of the Education Department, a merchant or tradesman, and a lawyer. The financial administration of this *Directorium* is controlled, in the manner I have already described, by the public finance officers of the *Regierung* or governmental district in which Berlin stands.

Streit's endowment maintains, at Greyfriars, teachers of the modern languages, of astronomy, and of music, provides a *Wohncommuniät* (lodging, bedding, fire and lights) for 12 scholars, and a *Freitisch* (board) for 24 more; and keeps improving the school library, (now 20,000 volumes,) the observatory, collections,

&c. It also augments the salaries of the director and a number of the masters. Other benefactions provide the widows of masters who die in office with a sum for their husband's funeral expenses, and a pension of 45*l.* a year. There is an endowment of nearly 450*l.* a year for exhibitions to be enjoyed at the school, and of 150*l.* a year for exhibitions at the Universities. Every two years is held a school-festival in honor of the founders and benefactors. The school-premises had an important enlargement by Crown grants of land in 1819 and 1831, and great additions have since that time been made to the buildings. I found about 550 boys, with a director and 25 masters. On an average 25 boys pass the *Abiturienten-examen* from this school every year. Here, too, as at the *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium,* the number of free posts is 10 per cent. They are provided by the municipality. The school gets a grant of about 100*l.* a year from the state and 1,000*l.* a year from the city of Berlin.

By original foundation and by endowment this school, too, is Protestant. Hardly any Catholic boys are here, but of Jewish boys there are 70 or 80. About a third of the whole number of the scholars are *auswärtige,* boys who come from a distance and cannot, therefore, live with their parents. The great *internats* of the French *lycées* are unknown in Germany; the *Alumnate* or *Convicte* of the German schools are properly establishments like *college* at Eton or Winchester, and are for foundationers; for establishments like the School House and the masters' houses at Rugby, or Commoners at Winchester, the strict designation would in Germany be *Pensionat, Pensionsanstalt,* and not *Alumnat.* The practice of having one's son live at home and go to school for his lessons only, obtains much more widely in Germany than with us; 40,000 of 66,000 boys in the Prussian higher schools are day scholars. Still this leaves 26,000 who are not; and of these the vast majority live with some respectable family in the place where they go to school. The household with which their son is to board or lodge is designated by the parent, but must by the school regulations of Prussia be approved by the director of the boy's school, who holds the householder responsible for the boy's conduct out of school. The family life in North Germany is generally decent, kindly, and God-fearing; and a boy is, I think, much better placed as a boarder in this way than as an *interne* of a French *lycée.* Still the school authorities in Prussia are of opinion that the provision of boarding establishments in immediate connection with the public schools needs increasing, and they design to increase it.

The patron at Greyfriars, for matters that do not come within the province of the *Directorium* of Streit's charity, is still as the Elector John George originally appointed, the city of Berlin, the municipality. The Commissioners will remember that for the *interna* of a Prussian Gymnasium the intervention of the Provincial Board always subsists.

The Joachimsthalsche Gymnasium.—I must give a word in passing to the great *Alumnat* of Berlin, the *Joachimsthalsche Gymnasium.* Here I found 404 scholars; 120 of them were collegers, *(Alumnen,)* 12 were boarders in the establishment, *(Pensionaire;)* the rest were boys who came for the lessons only, *(Hospiten.)* Ten per cent. of these have free schooling. The *Pensionaire* pay only 24*l.* a year; the *Alumnen* are not all of them free of all cost; 25 of them pay 8*l.* 14*s.* a year; 75 of them pay 4*l.* 10*s.*; there are 20 places with board, lodging, and instruction, all entirely free, for 20 proved scholars of the highest forms. The *Joachimsthalsche Gymnasium* is a royal foundation, endowed with lands by the Elector Joachim Frederick, in 1607. It is also Protestant. The school has now an income of over 3,000*l.* a year from land, and of over 2,000*l.* a year from money in the funds. The Crown is the patron; the property is administered, owing to its connection with the Crown domain, by the *Regierung* at Potsdam. This is an interesting school, for the list of its masters contains the names of Buttman, Schneider, Passow, Zumpt, Krüger, and Bergk. The Director is Dr. Kiessling, a son of the editor of Theocritus.

Constantly in the rolls of the German schools one is coming upon a well-known name of this kind; on the roll of former teachers at Greyfriars are to be found the names of Heindorf, Spalding, Droysen. Nor are other recollections, as interesting as any school in the world can boast, wanting to the Prussian schools.

The Joachimsthal school had a scholar of *quarta* who, like so many German schoolboys, joined the army in the great uprising against the French, in 1813. This boy was wounded at Leipzig, made the campaign of France, was at Waterloo, received the decoration of the Iron Cross, and finally, with the decoration on his breast, took his place again on his old school bench as a scholar of *quarta*.

Schulpforta—the Boarding Gymnasium at Pforta.—The Schulpforta, or the most renowned *Alumnat* of Prussia, dates from 1137, as the Cistercian Abbey of St. Mary's, at Pforta. It was secularized in 1540; and in 1543 Duke Maurice of Saxony established with the revenues of the Abbey, a school for 100 scholars. It stands near the Little Saal, 14 miles from Merseburg, in the pleasant county of Prussian Saxony, and the venerable pile of buildings rising among its meadows, hills and woods, is worthy of the motto borne on the arms of the old Abbey: "*Hier ist nichts anderes denn Gottes Haus, und hier die Pforte des Himmels,*" ("This is none other but the house of God, and this is the gate (porta, pforte) of heaven."—Gen. xxviii, 17. It has a beautiful restored chapel, regular commemorative services, and the host of loyal usages. A Latin grace is sung in hall every day before dinner by the whole body of the scholars. Every scholar has by ancient institution his *tutor*, every master his *famulus*. This is the German school where Latin verse has been most cultivated, and the *Musae Portenses*, like those of Eton, have been published.

The property is very large, and considerable Church patronage is attached to it. Up to 1815, when it passed into the possession of Prussia, the old Abbey estate had still its feudal privileges, and enjoyed full civil and criminal jurisdiction. The property is now entirely under the superintendence of the School Board of the province of Saxony, which appoints a procurator for it. The revenues of Pforta are from 8,000*l.* to 9,000*l.* a year.

The great head-master of Schulpforta was Ilgen, whose name every one who has read the Homeric Hymns ought to respect. Ilgen was rector for nearly 30 years, from 1802 to 1831, and his reforms make this period an epoch in the school's history. Few schools can show such a list of old scholars; *Graevius, Ernesti, Klopstock, Böttiger, Mitscherlich, Fichte, Disser, Thiersch, Spitzner, Döderlein, Spohn,* were all of them schoolboys here.

There are now about 205 pupils; 180 *Alumnen* proper, or collegers; 20 boarders, (*Pensionaire, Extraneer,*) and four or five half-boarders. (*Semi-Extraneer.*) These half-boarders have, in fact, all the advantages of collegers, except board, for a payment of 7*l.* 10*s.* a year; their board they get at a master's. The real *Extraneer* board and lodge with a master; they pay him about 45*l.* a year for their board and lodging, and the school 5*l.* 8*s.* a year for their instruction.

The *Alumnen* proper have all of them certain payments to make; those exacted, however, from the 140 who hold *Freistellen* are very trifling. There are 30 old *Koststellen*, or posts with board, the holders of which pay about 3*l.* a year each, and 20 new *Koststellen*, the holders of which pay 7*l.* As a general rule, a boy is not admitted at once to a *Freistelle*. The right of nominating to about half the posts on the foundation belongs to the Crown, that to the other half to different municipalities. Of the Crown appointments a certain number is reserved, by convention with the Saxon government when Pforta passed into Prussia's possession, for natives of the duchy of Saxony. The rest are given, on grounds of public claim, by the minister of justice and the home secretary. No boy is admitted till he is 12 years old; he must be able to pass for

tertia. The schoolboy begins with *tertia*, but it has six forms, because there is an upper and the lower division of each class. There are 77 boys in the two divisions of *tertia*, 79 in the two of *secunda*, 49 in the two of *prima*. For some of the posts several boys are nominated, and the one who passes the best examination gets admitted; but the candidates here, the commissioners will observe, must all of them be over 12 years of age. The school is well provided with exhibitions, in general of from 10*l*. to 15*l*. a year value to the universities.

The Studientag at Schulpforta.—There is a noteworthy usage here of making one day in the week a *Studientag*, in which the boy is free from all school lessons, that he may pursue his private studies. In the same spirit, in the *Gymnasien* generally, promising boys in *prima* are excused from certain school lessons, that they may work at matters which specially interest them. Results of this private study are to be produced at the *Abiturienten-examen*, and are taken into account for the leaving certificate. Nothing could better show the freedom of Germany, as compared with France, in treating school matters, than a practice of this kind, which to the French authorities would appear monstrous. In England the school authorities would have a belief, in general too well justified, that none of our boys have any notion of such a thing as systematic private study at all.

At Schulpforta they are very proud of their playing field, which is indeed, with the wooded hill rising behind it, a pleasant place; but the games of English playing fields do not go on there; instead of goals or a cricket ground, one sees apparatus for gymnastics. The Germans, as is well known, now cultivate gymnastics in their schools with great care. Since 1842 gymnastics have been made a regular part of the public school course; there is *Central-Turnanstalt* at Berlin, with 18 civilian pupils who are being trained expressly to supply model teachers of gymnastics for the public schools. The teachers profess to have adapted their exercises with precision to every age, and to all the stages of a boy's growth and muscular development. The French are much impressed by what seems to them the success of the Germans in this kind of instruction, and certainly in their own *lycées* they have not at present done nearly so much for it. This much can be said, that, if boys have long work hours, or if they work hard, gymnastics probably do more for their physical health in the comparatively short time allotted to recreation than anything else could. In England the majority of public schoolboys work far less than the foreign schoolboy, and for this majority the English games are delightful; but for the few hard students with us there is in general nothing but the *constitutional*, and this is not so good as the regular gymnastics. For little boys, again, I am inclined to think that the carefully taught gymnastics of a foreign school are better than the lounging shiveringly about, which used often at our great schools to be the portion of those who had not yet come to full age for games.

The Friedrichs-Wilhelms Gymnasium at Cologne.—All the schools I have hitherto described are denominational schools. Before I conclude I must describe a mixed *(simultan)* school, or the nearest approach to it to be found. Such a school is the *Friederich-Wilhelms Gymnasium* at Cologne. Cologne, as every one knows, is Catholic; up to 1825 it had only one gymnasium, a Catholic one. It has now two Catholic gymnasiums, one with 382 scholars, the other with 281; it has also a *Realschule* of the first rank, with 601 scholars. (Cologne is a town of 120,570 inhabitants.) Besides these schools it has a Protestant gymnasium with *real* classes, as we should say with a modern school forming part of it. This is the *Friedrich-Wilhelms Gymnasium*. An old Carmelite college, which had become the property of the municipality, was in 1825 made into a public gymnasium, in order to relieve the overcrowding in the Catholic gymnasium and provide special accommodation for the Protestants. In 1862 this school was, by the subscriptions of friends, both Catholic and Protestant, provided with *real* classes up to *secunda*, the two lowest classes

sexta and *quinta)* being common to both *classical* and *real* scholars. There re, therefore, in fact, three special classes for *real* scholars, or, as we should ay, a modern school of three classes. There are 356 boys in the classical chool and about 100 in the modern school. Of the boys in the classical school 25 only are Protestants, though this school is by foundation, *evangelisch;* 215 re Catholics and 16 are Jews. Nothing could better show how little the "*religious difficulty*" practically exists in Prussian schools than this abundance f Catholic scholars in a Protestant school, where the director and the maj rity f the 15 masters are Protestants. The regular religious instruction of the chool is of course Protestant; but the Catholics being in such numbers a pecial religious instructor has been provided for them, as, too, there is a special eligious instructor provided for the Protestants in the two Catholic gymnasiums. It will be remembered that when the boys not of the confession for which the school is founded are very few in number, the parents have to make he private arrangements for their religious instruction, and the school does not rovide for it. The school fee is from 18 to 22 thalers a year, according to the orm a boy is in. The property of the school brings in less than 200*l.* a year. The state contributes about 900*l.* a year. School fees produce almost exactly he same sum. The municipality gave in the first instance the school premises, nd now contributes about 50*l.* a year to keep them up. It is a Crown patronage school, but the *externa,* or property or names, of this school, as of all the gymnasiums and the school endowments of Cologne, are managed by a local *Verwaltungsrath* or council of administration. This *Verwaltungsrath* is composed of a representative of the Provincial School Board, the directors of the hree gymnasiums, with a lawyer, a financier, and an administrator and two itizens of Cologne, these last five chosen, on the presentation of the common ouncil, by the Provincial School Board. For the *Studienfonds,* which are ndowments general for education in Cologne, and not affected for particular nstitutions, a Catholic ecclesiastic is added to the *Verwaltungsrath.* These *Studienfonds* are very considerable, producing close upon 60,000 thalers a year, 9,000*l.*) The *Verwaltungsrath* has a staff of seven clerks, office keepers, &c., und both council and staff are paid for their services. The director was the ersonage already mentioned whose nomination to a school (the school was the gymnasium at Bielefeld) the Education Minister had refused to confirm because of the nominee's politics. I had much conversation with him, and he struck ne as a very able man. He said, and his presence in this Cologne school confirmed it, that the government found it impossible to treat their school patronage politically, even so far as the directors or head masters were concerned. The appointment of the professor and teachers, he declared, it never even entered nto the government's head to treat politically. We went through the school admission book together, that I might see to what class in society the boys chiefly belonged. We took a class in the middle of the school and went through his boy by boy, both for the classical school and the modern school. As it happened, the social standing of the *real* scholars was on the whole somewhat the highest, but there was little difference. There were few peasants' children, picked boys from the elementary schools in the neighborhood, but these were all of them bursars. There were a good many sons of government officials; but the designation I found attached to by far the greater number of parents' names was *Kaufmann,* "trader." I heard several lessons, and particularly noticed the English lesson in the third class of the modern school. This lesson was given by a Swiss, who spoke English very well, and who had been, he told me, a teacher of modern languages at Uppingham. I thought here, as I thought when I heard a French lesson at Bonn, that the boys made a good deal more of these modern language lessons in Germany than in England. The Swiss master at Cologne said this impression of mine was quite right. Even in France I thought these lessons better done with better methods, better

teachers, and more thoroughly learned than in England. In Germany they were better than in France. The lessons in the natural sciences, on the other hand, which in France seemed to me inferior to the mathematical lessons, I thought less successfully given in Germany than even in France. But of this matter I am a very incompetent judge, and England, besides, supplied me here with no standard of comparison, for in the English schools, when I knew them, the natural sciences were not taught at all. The classical work in the Cologne gymnasium was much the same that I had seen in other Prussian gymnasiums, and calls for no particular remark.

Dr. Jäger, the director of the united school—well placed, therefore, for judging, and, as I have said, an able man—assured me it was the universal conviction with those competent to form an opinion, that the *Real-schulen* were not, at present, successful institutions. He declared that the boys in the corresponding forms of the classical school beat the *Real-schule* boys in matters which both do alike, such as history, geography, the mother tongue, and even French, though to French the *Real-schule* boys devote so far more time than their comrades of the classical school. The reason for this, Dr. Jager affirms, is that the classical training strengthens a boy's mind so much more.

This is what, as I have already said, the chief school authorities everywhere in France and Germany testify. I quote Dr. Jäger's testimony in particular, because of his ability, and because of his double experience. In Switzerland you do not hear the same story, but the regnant Swiss conception of secondary instruction is, in general, not a liberal but a commercial one; not culture and training of the mind, but what will be of immediate palpable utility in some practical calling, is there the chief matter; and this cannot be admitted as the true scope of secondary instruction. Even in Switzerland, too, there is a talk of introducing Latin into the *Realschule* course, which at present is without it; so impossible is it to follow absolutely the commercial theory of education without finding inconvenience from it.

CONFLICT BETWEEN THE NEW AND OLD.

The conflict between the gymnasium and the *Real-schule*, between the partisans of what are called real or modern, or useful studies, is not yet settled, either by one side crushing the other by mere violence, or by one side clearly getting the best of the other in the dispute between them. We in England, behindhand as our public instruction in many respects is, are nevertheless in time to profit, and to make our schools profit, by the solution which will certainly be found for this difference. I am inclined to think that both sides will have, as is natural, to abate their extreme pretensions. The modern spirit tends to reach a new conception of the aim and office of instruction; when this conception is fully reached, it will put an end to conflict, and will probably show both the humanists and the realists to have been right in their main ideas. The aim and office of instruction, say many people, is to make a man a good citizen, or a good Christian, or a gentleman; or it is to fit him to get on in the world, or it is to enable him to do his duty in that state of life to which he is called. It is none of these, and the modern spirit more and more discerns it to be none of these. These are at best secondary and indirect aims of instruction; its prime direct aim is to enable a man *to know himself and the world*. Such knowledge is the only sure basis for action, and this basis it is the true aim and office of instruction to supply. To know himself, a man must know the capabilities and performances of the human spirit; and the value of the humanities, of the *Alterthumswissenschaft*, the science of antiquity, is that it affords for this purpose an unsurpassed source of light and stimulus. Whoever seeks help for knowing himself from knowing the capabilities and performances of the human spirit, will nowhere find a more fruitful object of study than in the achievements of Greece in literature and the arts during the two centuries from the birth of

Simonides to the death of Plato. And these two centuries are but the flowering point of a long period, during the whole of which the ancient world offers, to the student of the capabilities and performances of the human spirit, lessons of capital importance.

This the humanists have perceived, and the truth of this perception of theirs is the stronghold of their position. It is a vital and performative knowledge to know that the most powerful manifestations of the human spirit's activity for the knowledge of them greatly feeds and quickens our own activity; and they are very imperfectly known without knowing ancient Greece and Rome. But it is also a vital and formative knowledge to know the world, the laws which govern nature, and man as a part of nature. This the realists have perceived, and the truth of this perception, too, is inexpugnable. Every man is born with aptitudes which give him access to vital and formative knowledge by one of these roads; either by the road of studying man and his works, or by the road of studying nature and her works. The business of instruction is to seize and develop these aptitudes. The great and complete spirits which have all the aptitudes for both roads of knowledge are rare. But much more might be done on both roads by the same mind, if instruction clearly grasped the idea of the entire system of aptitudes for which it has to provide; of their correlation, and of their *equipollency*, so to speak, as all leading, if rightly employed, to vital knowledge; and if then, having grasped this idea, it provided for them. The Greek spirit, after its splendid hour of creative activity was gone, gave our race another precious lesson, by exhibiting, in the career of men like Aristotle and the great students of Alexandria, this idea of the correlation and equal dignity of the most different departments of human knowledge, and by showing the possibility of uniting them in a single mind's education. A man like Eratosthenes is memorable by what he performed, but still more memorable by his commanding range of studies, and by the broad basis of culture out of which his performances grew. As our public instruction gets a clearer view of its own functions, of the relations of the human spirit to knowledge, and of the entire circle of knowledge, it will certainly more learn to awaken in its pupils an interest in that entire circle, and less allow them to remain total strangers to any part of it. Still, the circle is so vast and human faculties are so limited, that it is for the most part through a single aptitude, or group of aptitudes, that each individual will really get his access to intellectual life and vital knowledge; and it is by effectually directing these aptitudes on definite points of the circle, that he will really obtain his comprehension of the whole.

Meanwhile neither our humanists nor our realists adequately conceive the circle of knowledge, and each party is unjust to all that to which its own aptitudes do not carry it. The humanists are loth to believe that man has any access to vital knowledge except by knowing, himself, the poetry, philosophy, history, which his spirit has created; the realists, that he has any access except by knowing the world—the physical sciences, the phenomena and laws of nature. I, like so many others who have been brought up in the old routine, imperfectly as I know letters—the work of the human spirit itself—know nothing else, and my judgment therefore may fairly be impeached. But it seems to me that so long as the realists persist in cutting in two the circle of knowledge, so long do they leave for practical purpose the better portion to their rivals, and in the government of human affairs their rivals will beat them. And for this reason: the study of letters is the study of the operation of human force, of human freedom and activity; the study of nature is the study of the operation of non-human forces, of human limitation and passivity. The contemplation of human force and activity tends naturally to heighten our own force and activity; the contemplation of human limits and passivity tends rather to check it. Therefore the men who have had the humanistic training have played, and yet play, so prominent a part in human affairs, in spite of their prodigious ignorance of the universe; because their training has powerfully fomented the human force

in them. And in this way letters are indeed *runes*, like those magic runes taught by Valkyrie Brynhild to Sigurd, the Scandinavian Achilles, which put the crown to his endowment and make him invincible. Still, the humanists themselves suffer so much from the ignorance of physical facts and laws, and from the inadequate conception of nature, and of man as a part of nature—the conduct of human affairs suffers so much from the same cause—that the intellectual insufficiency of the humanists, conceived as the one access to vital knowledge, is perhaps at this moment yet more striking than their power of practical stimulation; and we may willingly declare with the Italians that no part of the circle of knowledge is common or unclean, none is to be cried up at the expense of another. To say that the fruit is of classics, in the boys who study them, is at present greater than the fruit of the natural sciences. To say that the realists have not got their matters of instruction so well adapted to teaching purposes as the humanists have got theirs, comes really to no more than this: that the realists are but newly admitted laborers in the field of practical instruction, and that while the leading humanists, the Wolfs and the Buttmanns, have been also schoolmasters, and have brought their mind and energy to bear upon the school teaching of their own studies, the leaders in the natural sciences, the Davys and the Faradays have not. When scientific physics have as recognized a place in public instruction as Latin and Greek, they will be as well taught.

UNIVERSITY OF BERLIN, AND THE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM OF GERMANY.

The secondary school has essentially for its object a general, liberal culture; whether this culture is chiefly reached through the group of aptitudes which carry us to the humanities, or through the group of aptitudes which carry us to the world of nature. It is a mistake to make the secondary school a direct professional school, though a boy's aims in life and his future profession will naturally determine, in the absence of an overpowering bent, the group of aptitudes he will seek to develop. It is the function of the special school to give a professional direction to what a boy has learned at the secondary school, at the same time that it makes his knowledge, as far as possible, systematic—develops it into science. It is the function of the university to develop into science the knowledge a boy brings with him from the secondary school, at the same time that it directs him towards the profession in which his knowledge may most naturally be exercised. Thus, in the university, the idea of science is primary, that of the profession secondary; the special school, the idea of the profession is primary, that of science secondary. Our English special schools have yet to be instituted, and our English universities do not perform the function of a university as that function is above laid down. Still we have, like Germany, great and famous universities, and those universities are, as in Germany, in immediate connection with our chief secondary schools. It will be well, therefore, to complete my sketch of the Prussian school system by a sketch of the university system with which it is co-ordered.

Prussia has now six complete universities, with all the four faculties of theology, law, medicine, and philosophy, and two incomplete universities, with only the faculties of theology and philosophy. The complete universities are Berlin, Bonn, Breslau, Greifswald, Halle, and Königsberg; the incomplete ones are Münster and Braunsberg. In both of these last the faculty of theology is Catholic.

These eight Prussian universities had, in 1864, 6,362 students and 600 professors. But this number does not represent the number of Prussians who come under university instruction, because many Prussians go to German universities out of Prussia, such as Heidelberg, Göttingen, Leipzig, Jena. There is very free circulation of the German students through the universities of the father

land; and to estimate the proportion, in any German State, who come under superior instruction, the fairest way is to take the proportion which the whole number of students in Germany bears to the whole population; for else, while we get for Prussia but about 1 student to every 2,800 inhabitants, we shall get for Baden, and for the three Saxon duchies, (Weimar, Coburg, and Altenburg,) about 1 student to every 1,100 inhabitants; yet it is not that in these territories more of the population go to the university than in Prussia, but Baden has the university of Heidelberg, and the three Saxon duchies have in common the university of Jena, and to these two universities students from all parts of Germany come. Taking, therefore, the whole of Germany, exclusive of the non-German States of Austria, we get about one matriculated student for every 2,600 of population; and this proportion is probably pretty near the truth for Prussia and for most of the single States. In England the proportion is about one matriculated student to every 5,800 of population.

The universities of the several German States differ in many points of detail, but in their main system and regulations they are alike. I shall continue, in speaking of universities, to have Prussia in immediate view; but the commissioners will understand that what I say of the Prussian university system may be applied in general to that of all Germany.

The German university is a State establishment, and is maintained, so far as its own resources fall short, by the State. A university's own resources are both the property it has and the fees it levies. The two most important of the Prussian universities—Berlin with its 2,500 students and Bonn with its 1,000—date from this century, and foundations of this century are seldom very rich in property. For the year 1864, the income of the university of Berlin was 196,787 thalers, (£29,518;) of this sum, the real and funded property of the university produced 161 thalers, fees produced 7,557 thalers. The State gave all the rest, 189,069 thalers, (about £28,842.) And the State which does this is the most frugal and economical State in Europe.

The minister of public instruction appoints the professors of a university, the academical senate having the right of proposing names for his acceptance, and he has also his representative in each university—the *curator*—who acts as plenipotentiary for the State, and whose business it is to see to the observance of the laws and regulations which concern the universities. Thus, for instance, a full professor (*professor ordinarius*) is bound by regulation to give throughout the *Semester*, or half year, at least two free lectures a week on his subject: if he tried to charge fees for them, it would be the curator's business to interfere. And the university authorities cannot make new regulations for the government of the university without obtaining for them the sanction of the minister and of Parliament. Still the university authorities practically work, in Germany just as much as in this country, their own university; the real direction of the university is in their hands, and not, as in France, in those of the minister.

These university authorities are the following: First comes the rector, or, in cases where the sovereign is the titular rector, as at Halle and Jena, the prorector, who answers to our vice-chancellor, only he is elected for one year only, instead of four. His electors are the full professors. He is the visible head of the university, and is charged with its discipline. Like our vice-chancellor he has an assessor or judge who sits with him whenever there is a question of inflicting fines, or whenever one of the parties appearing before him is not a member of the university. The academical senate is also chosen by the full professors, and for one year, its members consisting of the actual rector (or prorector,) the outgoing rector, and a full professor of each faculty. In some universities all the full professors are members of the academical senate. The rector is president, and the internal affairs of the university are brought before it for its discussion and regulation of them.

Next come the faculties. The faculties in nearly all German universities are

four in number :* theology, law, medicine and philosophy. Philosophy embraces the humanities and the mathematical and natural sciences. As a university authority, a faculty consists only of its full professors, headed by the dean, whom these professors elect for one year. It is the business of the faculty thus composed to see that the students attend regularly the courses of lectures for which they are entered, to summon defaulters before it, to reprimand them, and to inflict on them, if it think proper, a slight penalty.

The last university authority to be mentioned is the *quæstor*. He has to collect from the students the fees for the courses for which they have entered themselves, and to pay those fees to the professor to whom they are due, a small deduction being made for the quæstor's salary and for the university chest.

And now to take the university, not as an administrative, but as a teaching body. Of the university, considered in this capacity, the *faculty* is a very different thing from the limited faculty above described. The university faculty, as a teaching body, comprehends not only all the full professors of that faculty, but all its professors extraordinary, or assistant professors, and all its *Privatdocenten*. The dean of the faculty ascertains from all the full professors, all the professors extraordinary and all the *Privatdocenten* of his faculty, what subject each of them proposes treat in the coming *Semester;* there is perfect liberty of choice for each lecturer, but, by consent among themselves, they so co-order their teaching that the whole field of instruction proper to their faculty may be completely covered. Then the dean calls together the full professors, who make the administrative faculty, and the programme of lectures is by them drawn up from the data collected by the dean, and is promulgated by their authority.

All full professors must have the degree of doctor in their faculty. Each of them is named for a special branch of the instruction of his faculty, and in this branch he is bound, as I have said, to give at least two public lectures a week without charging fees. He receives from the State a fixed salary, which is sometimes as much as £350, or even £400, a year; he has also a share in the examination fees, and he has the fees for what lectures he gives besides his public ones. The regular number of full professors in each university is limited, but the State can always, if it thinks fit, nominate an eminent man as full professor in a faculty, even though the faculty may have its complement of full professors, and the State then pays him the same salary as the other full professors. Both from the consideration which attaches to the post and from its emolument, a full professor's place is in Germany the prize of the career of public instruction, and no schoolmaster's place can compare with it. At Heidelberg several professors have an income, from fixed salary and fees together, of £1,000 a year, and one has an income of £1,500.

The professors extraordinary, or assistant professors, are also named by the State, but they have not in all cases a fixed salary. Their main dependence is on fees, paid by those who come to their lectures. They are in general taken from the most distinguished of the *Privatdocenten*, and they rise through the post of professor extraordinary to that of full professor.

Other countries have full professors and professors extraordinary. France, for instance, has her *professeurs titulaires* and her *professeurs suppléants*, but the *Privatdocent* is peculiar to Germany, and is the great source of vigor and renovation to her superior instruction. Sometimes he gives private lessons, like the private tutors of our universities; these lessons have the title of *Privatissima;* but this is not his main business. His main business is as unlike the sterile business of our private tutors as possible. The *Privatdocent* is an assistant to the professorate; he is as free to use, when the professors do not occupy them, the university lecture-rooms; he gives lectures like the professors, and his lectures count as professors' lectures for those who attend them. His appoint-

* In one or two universities there is a separate faculty for political economy; in general this science is comprehended in the faculty of philosophy.

nent is on this wise: A distinguished student applies to be made *Privatdocent* n a faculty. He produces certain certificates and performs certain exercises before two delegates, named by the faculty, and this is called his *Habilitation.* If he passes, the faculty names him *Privatdocent.* The authorization of the minister is also requisite for him, but this follows his nomination by the faculty as a matter of course. He is then free to lecture on any of the matters proper to his faculty; he is on his probation; he receives no salary whatever, and depends entirely on his lectures; he has, therefore, every motive to exert himself. In general, as I have said, the professors and *Privatdocenten* arrange together to parcel out the field of instruction between them, and one supplements the other's teaching; still a *Privatdocent* may, if he likes, lecture on just the same subject that a professor is lecturing on; there is absolute liberty in this respect. The one precaution taken against undue competition is, that a *Privatdocent* lecturing on a professor's subject is not allowed to charge lower fees than the professor. It does honor to the disinterested spirit in which science is pursued in Germany, that, with these temptations to competition, the relations between the professors and the *Privatdocenten* are in general excellent; the distinguished professor encourages the rising *Privatdocent,* and the *Privatdocent* seeks to make his teaching serve science, not his own vanity. But it is evident how the neighborhood of a rising young *Privatdocent* must tend to keep a professor up to the mark, and hinder him from getting sleepy and lazy; if he gets sleepy and lazy, his lecture-room is deserted. The *Privatdocent,* again, has the standard of eminent men before his eyes, and everything stimulates him to come up to it.

In the faculty of philosophy at Berlin the number of *Privatdocenten* is about exactly the same as the number of full professors. There are 28 full professors and 29 *Privatdocenten.* The professors extraordinary are more numerous than either. They are 33 in number. The whole number of teachers in the university of Berlin, (in 1865,) is 183.

Now I come to the students. The university course in theology, law, and philosophy takes three years; in medicine it takes four or five. A student in his *triennium* often visits one or two universities; seldom more. Lachman—to take an eminent instance—first went for half a year to Leipzig, to hear Herman; then he passed on to Gottingen, where he afterwards got his *Habilitation.* To become a member of a university, the student has to be entered on the university register *(Matrikel)* and then on the register of the faculty in which he means to follow lectures; for inscription on the university register, the production of the school-leaving certificate, *(Maturitätszeugniss,)* of which I have already said so much, is indispensable. You may get leave to attend lectures without being a member of the university, and without any school certificate, but such attendance counts nothing for any purpose for which a university course is by law or official rule required. The university entrance fee is about 18*s*. The matriculating student signs an engagement to observe the laws and regulations of the university. The penalties for violating them are enforced by the rector. These penalties are, according to the nature of the offence, reprimand, fine, imprisonment for a period not exceeding one month in the university *carcer, consilium abeundi,* or dismissal from the particular university to which the student belongs, but with liberty to enter at another, and finally *relegation,* or absolute expulsion, notice being sent to the other universities, which then may not admit the student expelled.

The lecture fees range from 16*s*. to 1*l*. 14*s*. for every course which is not a public and gratuitous one. They are somewhat higher at Berlin than in most German universities. In the faculty of medicine they are the highest; they go as high as 1*l*. 14*s*. a *Semester* for a course of about five hours a week. A course of the same length in theology or philosophy costs at Berlin about 17*s*. a *Semester.* The fees are collected, as I have said, by the university quæstor, and

they must be paid in advance. But every professor has the power to admit poor auditors to his lectures without fee, and often he does so. Poor students are also, by a humane arrangement, suffered to attend lectures on credit, and afterwards, when they enter the public service, (which in Prussia means not only what we in England call the public service, but the learned professions as well,) their lecture fees are recovered by a deduction from their salary. Each university has besides, for the benefit of poor scholars, a number of exhibitions, ranging from 12*l.* to 60*l.* a year; and it is common to allow the holders of school exhibitions, which are of smaller amount, and range from 6*l.* to 30*l.* a year, to retain them at the university.

Certificates of having followed certain courses of lectures are required both for the university degree and for the subsequent examination for a public career (*Staatsprüfung*) which almost every university student has in view. It is said that the professors whose lectures are very numerously attended have difficulty in ascertaining who is there and who is not, and that they give the certificate with too much laxity. In general, however, it is certain that a student who has his way to make, and who is worth anything, will attend regularly the lectures for which he has entered himself and paid his money. There are of course many idlers; the proportion of students in a German university who really work I have heard estimated at one-third; certainly it is larger than in the English universities. But the pressure put upon them in the way of compulsion and university examinations is much less than with us; the paramount university aim in Germany is to encourage a love of study and science for their own sakes; and the professors, very unlike our college tutors, are constantly warning their pupils against *Brodstudien*, studies pursued with a view to examinations and posts. The examinations within the university course itself are far fewer and less important in Germany than in England.

The requisites for entering the German universities are more than are required for the graduating degree of batchelor of arts in England, or in the United States. The second degree of licentiate, answering to our degree of master, is not much sought after. The great faculty degree of doctor, requiring a certificate of university studies, an oral examination, and another dissertation, costs from £17 to £22. But this degree is not the inspiring motive or final aim of university life. *Lehrfreiheit* and *Lernfreiheit*—liberty for the teacher and liberty for the learner—and *Wissenschaft*, science, knowledge systematically pursued and prized in and for itself, are the fundamental ideas of the German university system.*

The *Staatsprüfung*, to which only those who leave the university with the rector's certificate, and hold the diploma of a gymnasial and real course completed, conducted by a state commission of practical and scientific men, and extending through three or four days of paper work, and six or more hours of oral questioning, hold out motives for study and a test of attainment for all who propose to enter a professional or public career, of the most powerful and far-reaching character.

To the foregoing brief notice of the Prussian university, by Professor Arnold, we hope soon to add a full account of superior education, both college and university, in Europe and the United States.

* For an exposition of the aim and spirit of German university teaching, as understood by German scholars, see *Academic Discourse* by Professor Sybel, of Bonn, published in American Journal of Education for March, 1868, and *The Universities, as They Were and Are*, by Dr. v. Döllinger, rector of the University of Munich, 1867.

SCHOOL-COURSE OF THE FRIEDRICH-WILHELMS GYMNASIUM AND REAL-SCHULE AT COLOGNE, FOR THE YEARS 1863–'64.

I. PRIMA.

Religious Instruction.—1. *Catholic*, church history from the time of the Reformation, chiefly in biographical form; moral philosophy and dogmatics (2 hours a week.) 2. *Protestant*, church history, beginning with the main part of the Acts of the Apostles in the Greek; for the Reformation period, special attention paid to the writings in which the Lutheran creed is established (2 hours.)

German.—The *Wilhelm Tell* and *Walk* of Schiller read and explained The logical theory of conceptions, judgments, and conclusions. Discussion of the monthly German essays, one of which is done in class. (3 hours.)

Latin.—The *Pro Sestio* and *Orator* of Cicero, and the *Germania* of Tacitus, read in class. For private reading in connection with the Latin essays, Liv. XXIII, XXXIV, XXXV, and part of IV, with Cic. *Ad Lentulum.* 9. Latin essays and extemporary practice in Latin. Horat. *Carm.* parts of L, III, and IV; *Epod.* 2. *Epist.* I, 1, 2, 6, 19, 20. Eight Odes by heart, (8 hours.)

Greek.—Hom. *Il.* VIII–XIV, read in class; and for private reading under the master's superintendence, Hom *Il.* XV–XVII. Plato, *Apol. Socr.* and *Crito.* Demosth. *Pro Coroma* and Æschines *Contra Ctesiph.* from § 130 to the end, (the master having gone through the substance of the first half of the oration in the introduction to the Demosthenes lesson.) Grammar and extemporary practice in Greek, with a written Greek exercise once a fortnight, (6 hours.)

French.—Montesquieu, *Grand. et Déc. des R.* to chap. 12, Molière, *L'Avare.* Grammar and oral translation from an exercise book. A written French exercise once a fortnight, besides French composition in class, (2 hours.)

Hebrew.—Repetition of the accidence, with special attention to the irregular verbs; the most important points of the syntax. Passages from an exercise book, with several psalms and Isai. XV and XVI read, (2 hours.)

History.—German history during the middle age, and a cursory view of the history of the other states of Europe during the same period. Repetition of Greek history, with reference to the following original sources: Herod. IV, 130–142; V, 23, 24, 35–38, 49–52, 96, 97; VI, 94–120; VII, 176, 177, 208–229; VIII, 75–90. Thucyd. I, 1–20, 126–138, (3 hours.)

Mathematics.—Logarithms, trigonometry, equations of the second degree with more than one unknown quantity, indeterminate equations of the first degree, progressions with applications to compound interest and annuities, problems in plane geometry and trigonometry, (4 hours.)

Physics.—Mechanics of solid, fluid, and gaseous bodies, (2 hours.)

II.—OBER-SECUNDA.

Religious Instruction.—1. *Protestant*, introduction to the text of the Old and New Testaments, (2 hours.) 2. *Catholic*, history of revelation before Christ, and portion of history of Christian revelation, noticing points of apologetic where they come in, (2 hours.)

German.—*Nibelungenlied*, Aventiure I–XX, read and explained. Correction of monthly German essays. Practice in oral delivery and declamation, (2 hours.)

Latin.—In the winter half, Liv. II, III, (with some omissions,) IV, 1–4; in the summer half, Cic. *De Senect.*, *Pro Rege Deiot.*, *Pro Ligario.* For private reading, Cæs. *De B. G.* I., and Liv. V, portions of VI and XXI, by all the class; besides these Liv. XXII and portions of XXIII, by one part of the class; Liv. I, and either VI or VII, by the other part. Zumpt's grammar. Weekly exercises out of Süpfle's exercise book. Extemporary practice in Latin, writing, and speaking. Main points of the theory of style. From January onwards a Latin essay every four or five weeks. Virg. *Æn.* VIII, IX, by extracts; 80 lines

got by heart. Select passages from Sepert's collection; some passages got by heart. Practice in Latin metres, (10 hours.)

Greek.—Herod. VI. 94 to the end, and nearly all VII; the doctrine of cases from Halm's *Elements*, and exercises from the same; composition in class. Hom. *Od.* ε–μ, and for private reading, τ–υ; 150 lines got by heart, (6 hours.)

French.—Capefigue's *Histoire de Charlemagne* to Chap. 12. Knebel's grammar from the pronouns to the use of participles. Every fortnight a French task; oral and written translation and composition, (2 hours.)

Hebrew.—The accidence as far as the irregular verbs. Exercises in reading and translating from Brückner, (2 hours.)

History.—Romon history, (2 hours.)

Mathematics.—Proportion of figures; determination of areas; solution of plane geometrical problems; involution and evolution; equations of the first degree with more than one unknown quantity, and of the second degree with one unknown quantity, (4 hours.)

Physics.—In the winter half, theory of magnetism and electricity; in the summer half, theory of heat, (2 hours.)

III.—UNTER-SECUNDA.

Religious Instruction.—Same as in *Ober-secunda*,

German.—Cursory view of German poets from Friedr. von Spree to Klopstock, in Deyck's selection. Explaining poems of Schiller. Poems of Schiller and popular ballads got by heart. Practice in declamation. Every three or four weeks an essay, (2 hours.)

Latin.—Cic. *Pro Arch. Poet.*, *Pro Reg. Dei.*, *Pro Sex. Rosc. Amer.* and Liv. XXI, read and explained. Cic. *Pro Arch.* 1–8 got by heart. For private reading, Cæs *De B. C.* and Cic. *Pro Lig.* In Zumpt's grammar, *Syntaxis Congruentiæ*, the doctrine of cases to the dative inclusively, the doctrine of tenses, and of the indicative and conjunctive moods. Oral and written translations from Süpfle's exercise book. A theme weekly. Extemporary practice in Latin. Virg. *Æn.* I, II; 200 lines got by heart; practice in Latin metres, (10 hours.)

Greek.—Hom. *Od.* VIII–XI. Select passages by heart. Repetition of the irregular verbs. Syntax of the article and of the pronouns from Halm's practicing book, part 2. Every fortnight an exercise done either at home or in school. Xenoph. *Anab.* I, II. Two chapters by heart, (4 hours.)

French.—Syntax as far as the pronoun; translations from Probst's practicing book for higher forms. A task every fortnight. The first 10 chapters of Michaud's *Histoire de la Troisième Croisade* read, (2 hours.)

History.—Grecian history, (3 hours.)

Mathematics.—Decimal fractions, proportions, equations of the first degree, with one unknown quantity. Main properties of the triangle, the proposition of Pythagoras, (Eucl. I, 47,) proportion of lines, similarity of triangles, geometrical problems, (4 hours.)

IV.—TERTIA.

Religious Instruction.—1. *Catholic*, the means of grace according to the Ratisbon Catechism; lives of certain saints; explanation of the Sunday Gospels. 2. *Protestant*, the life of Christ from St. Matthew's Gospel; the Acts of the Apostles. The Epistle of James and the First Epistle of Peter explained; Bible passages learnt by heart, (2 hours.)

German.—Practice in reading and narrating. Recitation of poems got by heart. An essay every three weeks, with lessons on punctuation and the formation of sentences, (2 hours.)

Latin.—The syntax of the verb, from Siberti; repetition of the work of the

class below. Oral translations from Süpfle, extemporary practice in Latin, and a theme weekly. Cæs. *De B. G.* III–VIII, and Ovid *Metam.* VI, 146–312; VII, 1–300; VIII, 612–886; X, 1–219; XIII, 1–400, read. Practice in Latin metres. Cæs. *De B. G.* VI, 12 sqq., Ov. *Metam.* VI, 146–312; VII, 1–100, got by heart, (10 hours.)

Greek.—Repetition of work of class below. The verbs in μι and the *verba anomala*, with occasional lessons in etymology and remarks on syntax. Selections from Xenoph. *Anab*, I–III. the whole of IV, and V, 1–2, read. Translations from Dominicus's lesson book, and every fortnight a task from the same. From Easter onwards 1 hour a week of Homer, and 40 lines got by heart, (6 hours.)

French.—The pronoun and verb from Krebel's school grammar. Exercises from Probst's exercise book for middle forms, (2 hours.)

History and Geography.—Repetition of geography of the mountains and waters of Germany; political geography of Germany. German history to 1648, thence Prusso-German history to 1815, (3 hours.)

Mathematics.—Algebra in Heis's book to § 25 inclusive. Decimal fractions. Geometry to the properties of the circle, inclusive, (3 hours.)

Knowledge of Nature (Naturkunde.)—In the winter half, zoology; in the summer half, botany, (2 hours.)

V.—QUARTA.

Religious Instruction.—1. *Protestant*, Acts of the Apostles read and explained; many Bible passages and church hymns learnt by heart. 2. *Catholic*, the Apostles' creed from the Ratisbon catechism. Portions of the Lives of Saints, (2 hours.)

German.—Practice in orthography and punctuation. An essay every three weeks. Practice in the recitation of poems learned by heart, and in repeating the substance of prose narratives which have been read and explained, (2 hours.)

Latin.—The concords and the cases from Siberti, extemporary practice, and oral and written translation from Spiess's exercise book for middle forms; every week an exercise; about every three weeks a trial task. Corn. Nep. *Agesilaus, Phocion, Timoleon, Hannibal, Miltiades, Themistocles, Aristides, Datames, Epaminondas, Pelopidas*, read. Lessons on the hexameter, trimeter, and Latin prosody from Siberti; practice from Siebelis's *Tirocinium;* about 100 lines got by heart, (10 hours.)

Greek.—Accidence as far as the *verba contracta*, from Buttmann's small school grammar; Dominicus's *Delectus* and written exercises, (6 hours.)

French.—The regular verb from Knebel's French school grammar, oral and written translation into French from Probst's exercise book, (2 hours.)

History and geography.—Grecian history to the death of Alexander the Great. Roman history to the fall of the republic. Geography of the non-German states of Europe, the geography of their mountains and waters being continually repeated, (3 hours.)

Mathematics.—Elements of plane geometry as far as the work of *Tertia.* In arithmetic, the rule of three and its application to profit and loss, (*Vertheilungsrechnung,*) partnership, and interest, (3 hours.)

VI.—QUINTA A.

Religious instruction.—1. *Catholic*, Bible history of the New Testament; so much of the catechism as relates to the commandments and the church. 2. *Protestant*, Bible history of the New Testament from Zahn; repetition of Old Testament history. Several psalms and nine church hymns learned by heart, (3 hours.)

German.—In the winter half, every fortnight an exercise in orthography;

from Easter onwards, an essay. Explanation and repetition of pieces of prose and verse, with practice in declamation, (2 hours.)

Latin.—Going over again and finishing the accidence, with the *verba defectiva* and *verba anomala;* certain rules of syntax from Siberti's grammar; written and oral translations from Spiess's exercise book; every week a piece of Latin writing for correction; and every month a trial task, (10 hours.)

French.—French accidence as far as the regular verbs; written and oral translations from Ploez's book. From February onwards a task every fortnight. (3 hours.)

Geography and history.—Political geography of the southern and western countries of Europe; historical incidents taken in connection with this. Rivers and mountains of Europe again gone over, (2 hours.)

Arithmetic.—Fractions, rule of three with fractions.

Knowledge of nature.—In the winter half, description of birds from stuffed specimens; in the summer half, description of plants. Elements of the Linnæan system, (2 hours.)

VII.—QUINTA B.

Religious instruction.—Same as in Quinta A.

German.—In the winter half, every fortnight a dictation lesson; in the summer half, every three weeks an essay. Practice in delivery of poems learned by heart, and in relating the substance of prose pieces read; reading and explanation of verse and prose pieces from the reading-book, (2 hours.)

Latin.—Repeating and finishing the accidence in Siberti's grammar; the rules for the accusative with the infinitive and for participles, in Spiess's exercise book; oral and written translations from the same; an exercise weekly, (10 hours.)

French.—The accidence as far as the regular verb; oral and written translations. From February onwards a task every fortnight, (3 hours.)

Geography and history.—Repetition of the rivers and mountains of Europe; political geography of the western and southern states of Europe. Occasional mention of historical events, (2 hours.)

Arithmetic.—As in Quinta A, (2 hours.)

Knowledge of nature.—As in Quinta A, (2 hours.)

VIII.—SEXTA A.

Religious instruction.—1. *Catholic*, Bible history of the Old Testament. The devotional life of the Catholic church, with the passages of the catechism that apply to this and sanction it. 2. *Protestant*, Bible history of the Old Testament as far as Solomon; going over the Ten Commandments and explaining them; learning several church hymns by heart, (3 hours.)

German.—Practice in orthography; practice in reading and in the recitation of simple pieces of poetry, (2 hours.)

Latin.—The regular accidence from Siberti's school grammar and Spiess's exercise book, (10 hours.)

Geography.—Introductory notions; the five divisions of the earth, the seas, islands, and peninsulas; the principal countries; mountains and rivers of Europe, (2 hours.)

Arithmetic.—In the winter half, the first four rules with whole numbers. In the summer half, the elements of fractions, (4 hours.)

Knowledge of nature.—In the winter half, zoology; in the summer half, botany, (2 hours.)

IX.—SEXTA B.

Same work as in Sexta A.

I.—REAL-SECUNDA.

Religious instruction.—(Goes with Secunda of the gymnasial classes.)

German.—Explanation and recitation of poems from Deyck's collection; brief notice of the chief poets of the last century. An essay once a month; in connection with the essay, the proper mode of arranging and constructing such compositions is elucidated, (3 hours.)

Latin.—Cæs. *Comment.* I, II, read. Doctrine of the hexameter, pentameter, and iambic senarius, from Siebelis; doctrine of Latin prosody, from Siberti. Siberti's grammar: doctrine of cases gone over afresh, doctrine of tenses, of the conjunctive and of the infinitive mood, gone through up to section 674. A task once a fortnight. Oral translations from Spiess, in connection with grammar; composition, (4 hours.)

French.—(The lessons are given in French, and the pupils have to speak French.) The French expedition to Egypt (1798–1801) read from Thiers, in Jäger and Rhein's extracts, and the history of Sobiesky, in Goebel's collection. Every week a task; six essays of some length; a great deal of trial work and extemporary practice, (4 hours.)

English.—Most of the pieces in Schütz's characters from English history read. Gray's Elegy and other longer poems got by heart. Grammar in Degenhardt's school grammar up to section 265. Every week some written exercise, and a great deal of trial work, extemporary practice, and dictation, (3 hours.)

History and Geography.—History of Greece. Political geography of Germany, and its physical geography again gone over. View of the historical development of the several German states; British North America, (3 hours.)

Mathematics.—Conclusion of plane geometry; problems in plane geometry. Involution and evolution; equations of the first degree with more than one unknown quantity, and of the second degree with one unknown quantity. Harder problems from the different parts of arithmetic, (5 hours.)

Physics.—Introduction to physics; magnetism; electricity; heat, (2 hours.)

Chemistry.—Metalloids, (2 hours.)

Mineralogy.—Introduction; teaching of characteristics; crystallography in more detail, from Kopp; description of the chief minerals, (2 hours.)

II.—REAL-TERTIA.

Religious instruction.—(Goes with Tertia of the gymnasial classes.)

German.—Practice in reading and narrating. Doctrine of the five parts of the sentence. Every three or four weeks an essay; in connection with this, practice in declamation. Popular ballads got by heart, (3 hours.)

Latin.—Reading from Jacobs's second elementary book. Siberti's grammar; doctrine of the cases; the accidence again gone over. Oral and written translation of the passages in Spiess's exercises for quarta and tertia that illustrate the doctrine of cases. Every fortnight a task. Extemporary practice in Latin, (5 hours.)

French.—Paganel's *History of Frederick the Great,* in Goebel's collection. Many pieces from Ploetz's Chrestomathy got by heart. Ploetz's grammar, course II, to lesson 58. Every week a task; a great deal of trial work and extemporary practice, (4 hours.)

English.—Many chapters of Sir Walter Scott's *Tales of a Grandfather* read. Grammar in Degenhardt's elementary book to lesson 63 inclusive. Every week some written exercise; a great deal of trial work. Many poems learnt by heart, (4 hours.)

History and Geography.—History of the Middle Age, and chief points of Prussian history. Physical and political geography of the non-German States of Europe, (4 hours.)

Mathematics.—Main properties of the triangle; the proposition of Pythagoras; proportion of lines; similarity of triangles; area of a polygon. . Decimal fractions, proportions, equations of the first degree with one unknown quantity Interest, rule of three inverse, double rule of three, alligation, (*Mischungsrechnung*), (6 hours.)

Knowledge of Nature.—In the winter half, zoology; in the summer half, botany, (2 hours.)

III.—REAL-QUARTA.

Religious instruction.—(Goes with Quarta of the gymnasial classes.)

German.—Reading and explaining select pieces out of the reading book; poems of Uhland got by heart and declaimed; frequent practice in orthography. An essay once a fortnight, (3 hours.)

Latin.—Going over the irregular, anomalous, and defective verbs again; exercises in rules of syntax; oral and written translation from Latin into German from Jacob's elementary book, chap. I, 50–100, and from German into Latin from Spiess's exercise book; every week a piece of composition in class, and every month a trial task, (6 hours.)

French.—A number of passages from Rollin's *Les Hommes illustres de l'Antiquité* read in Goebel's collection. A number of poems from Ploetz's Chrestomathy learnt by heart. Grammar: going again over Ploetz's first course, and his second course to lesson 30. Every week a written exercise, with constant extemporary practice and passages translated from French, and then turned back into French again, (5 hours.)

Geography and History.—Thorough repetition of the geography of the mountains and waters of central Europe; political geography of Germany; Grecian and Macedonian history to the death of Alexander the Great; Roman history from Romulus to Augustus, (4 hours.)

Mathematics.—Exercises in arithmetic continued, particularly in the application of the rule of three to profit and loss, partnership, and interest. Plane geometry as far as the properties of the circle inclusive. Algebra in Heis's exercises as far as section 25 inclusive, (6 hours.)

Knowledge of Nature.—In the winter half, zoology; in the summer half, botany, (2 hours.)

TECHNICAL ACQUIREMENTS.

Drawing, (from Oberprima to Tertia of the gymnasial classes.)—Freehand drawing from studies by Calame, Ary Scheffer, Paul Delaroche, Schinkel, Hubert, and others; architectural and machine drawing; washing in of shadows with Indian ink; water-colour drawing, (2 hours.)—Quarta: Elements of perspective drawing, with use of the compass and ruler; drawing from wooden models, with hatching; explanation of the action of light on the surfaces of bodies; free-hand drawing from copies; outline of features and heads with the shadows indicated. Drawing of ornaments, leaf-forms, arabesques, &c., with the original enlarged; shading with the stump; colored drawings, (2 hours.) Quinta A and B: explanation of lines, angles, and figures, with exercises in them; commencement of perspective, (2 hours.) Real-Secunda: architectural and machine drawing. Free-hand drawing from copies and from plaster models. Line and shadow perspective. Drawing with two chalks and the stump. Water-color drawing, (2 hours.)—Tertia: Drawing from copies and from nature, (bodies,) in connexion with line and color perspective to the extent proper for the class, (2 hours.)—Quarta: As in Quarta of the gymnasium, (2 hours.)

Writing.—In Real-Quarta two hours a week; in the two Quintas and the two Sextas, 3 hours.

Singing.—2 hours a week throughout the school.

Gymnastics.—For these the school is in four divisions; the highest division has 2 hours' instruction a week, the other three have each 1 hour.

SUBJECTS SET AT THE LEAVING EXAMINATION (ABITURIENTEN-EXAMEN) OF THE YEAR.

Divinity Essay. 1. For Protestants: The difference between the slavish and the child-like fear of God, (Romans, 8, 15; and 1 John, 4, 18.) 2. For Catholics: How far is the decalogue binding under the new dispensation?

German Essay.—What are the grounds for the division of history into ancient, mediæval, and modern?

Latin Essay.—Romanos Cannensi calamitate accepta majores animos habuisse quam unquam rebus secundis, (Cic.)

Hebrew.—Gen. 26, 1–6.

Mathematics.—(a.) Two circles and a straight line being given, to find a point in the straight line from which the tangents drawn to both circles shall be of equal length. (b.) In a perpendicular parallel-truncated cone, given the radius of the larger surface $r=11$, the side line $s=10$, and the angle of inclination of the side line towards the larger surface $\varphi=42^{\circ}\ 11'$, to find the height, the radius of the smaller surface, the contents and the crown of the truncated cone, and what is the height of the cone required to complete it. (c.) To calculate the unknown quantities in the following equations:

$$x + y + x^2 + y^2 = 86$$
$$3xy\ 2\,x^2 + 2y^2 = 253$$

(d.) The base of a triangle is 14, the sum of the squares of the two other sides 394 and the contents 84. How great is the angle at the apex, and how great are the two other sides?

(The candidates had, besides the above, the regular papers in Latin, Greek, and French. Six obtained the certificate of ripeness. Two of the six proposed to study theology at the university; one, to study medicine; one, law; one, philology; and one had not yet decided what to study. Two did their paper-work so well that they were excused the *viva voce* examination.)

SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN THE FRIEDRICH-WILHELMS GYMNASIUM AND REAL-SCHULE AT BERLIN.

Subjects taught.	Gymnasium classes.							*Real-schule* classes.							United school classes.			
	Prima.		Secunda.		Tertia.		Quarta.	Prima.	Secunda.		Tertia.		Quarta.		Quinta.		Sexta.	
	I.	II.	I.	II.	I.	II.			I.	II.	I.	II.	I.	II.	I.	II.	I.	II.
Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3
German	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	3	3
Latin	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	3	4	4	5	5	6	6	10	10	10	10
Greek	6	6	6	6	6	6	6											
French	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	4		
History	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2				
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	5	5	5	6	6	6	6				
Physics	2	2	2					3	2	2								
Arithmetic															3	3	4	4
Natural history					2	2			2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Hebrew	2	2	2	2														
English	2	2	2	2				3	3	3	4	4						
Geography										2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Chemistry								2	2	2								
Handwriting													2	2	2	2	2	2
Drawing	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	5	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Totals*	38	38	37	35	32	32	30	31	22	34	35	31	32	32	30	30	28	28

* Gymnastics and singing have each two hours a week besides. The two hours of Hebrew are for those boys only who are going to study theology.

PLAN OF A YEAR'S SCHOOL-WORK AT SCHULPFORTA.

I.—PRIMA.

Religious instruction, (2 hours a week.)—In the summer half, the Epistle to the Romans in the original Greek; in the winter half, Church History, Part II.

Latin, (10 hours.)—In the summer half, Cic. *Brut.*, c. 21 to the end, with some omissions; Horat. *Ep.* II, 1–3; Tac. *Ann.* XIII, 1–33. In the winter half, Horat. *Carm.* I, *Sat.* I (parts omitted;) Cic. *De Fin.*, lib. V, and Tac. *Ann.* I–III (parts omitted;) essays, exercises, extemporary practice in Latin, and verse composition.

Greek, (6 hours.)—The three Olynthiac orations of Demosthenes, his oration on the Peace, and his second Philippic; Plato's *Protagoras*; the *Trachiniæ* of Sophocles; exercises, extemporary practice in Greek, and practice of Greek versification.

Hebrew, (2 hours.)—In the summer half, repetition of the grammar as far as the irregular verb in Gesenius, section 1–61; *Genesis*, c. IV–VI. In the winter half, repetition of the irregular verbs in Gesenius, section 61–77; *Psalms* 118–124. Exercises and trial work.

German, (3 hours.)—Review of the history of modern German literature from Opitz to the beginning of the 19th century. German essays and practice in elocution.

History, (in the summer half 2 hours, in the winter 3 hours.)—In the summer half, history of the Middle Age to the Hohenstaufen; in the winter, from the Hohenstaufen to the Reformation.

Mathematics, (4 hours.)—In the summer half, theory of equations of the first and second degree; extension of the properties of the circle. In the winter half, higher series, combinations, functions, the binomial theorem. Paper-work and extemporary practice.

Physics, (in summer 1 hour, in winter 2 hours.)—In the summer half, magnetism, electricity, electro-magnetism; in the winter half, heat, meteorology.

II.—OBER-SECUNDA.

Religious instruction, (2 hours.)—In the summer half, the First Epistle of Peter and the Epistle of James in the original. In the winter half, Church History, Part I,

Latin, (10 hours.)—Cic. *Verr.*, Act. II, L. IV, c. 32–67, and L. V; Virg. *Æn.*, II, III; Liv., I, II (parts omitted.) Essays, exercises, extemporary practice in Latin, and practice in verse composition.

Greek, (6 hours.)—In the summer half, Hom. *Il.*, X, XII; Plutarch, *Cleomenes.* In the winter half, Hom. *Il.*, V, VI; Herod., VII, 201 to the end; VIII, 74–100; IX, 50–76. Exercises and trial work.

Hebrew, (2 hours.)—Repetition of the irregular verbs in Gesenius, section 61–77. Exercises, trial work, and the history of Joseph in Gesenius's reading book.

German, (2 hours.)—In the summer half, the outlines of modern German prosody and versification. In the winter half, explanation of portions of the *Nibelungen Lied*. Essays, and practice in versification.

History, (3 hours.)—Roman history: in the summer half, second part from the second Punic war onwards; in the winter, first part.

Mathematics, (4 hours.)—In the summer half, progressions and compound interest; commencement of plane trigonometry. In the winter half, arithmetical work of previous half again gone over; quadratic equations and logarithms; previous geometrical work again gone over; working of problems on paper.

III.—UNTER-SECUNDA.

Religious instruction, (2 hours.)—In the summer half, Old Testament history, second portion. In the winter half, catechism repeated, and the first part of it illustrated; reading from the first half of the Old Testament; Bible passages and hymns by heart.

Latin, (in summer 12 hours a week, in winter 11.)—In the summer half, Cic. *De Cn. Pomp. Imperio*; Ovid. *Fast.* IV; Sallust, *Catalina;* Zumpt's *Syntaxis Ornata;* extemporary practice in Latin, exercises, trial work, and verse practice. In the winter half, Cic. *Pro. Sext. Rosc. Amer.;* Liv. V, (parts omitted;) Ovid. *Fast.* IV, V; *Syntaxis Ornata,* exercises, and verse practice.

Greek, (in summer 5 hours a week, in winter 6.)—In the summer half, Hom. *Od.* XX, XXI; Arrian. *Anab.* III, IV to c. 8 (with some omissions.) In the winter half, Hom. *Od.* XXII, XXIII; Arrian. *Anab.* IV, 8–12, and 17 to end, V, 2; doctrine of moods, exercises, and trial work.

Hebrew, (2 hours.)—Sounds of the letters, and accidence as far as the regular verb inclusive. Practice in reading and writing, paradigms, and easy exercises.

German, (2 hours.)—Outlines of the etymological part of German grammar, with a survey of the main epochs of the development of the language. Essays for correction.

History, (3 hours.)—Greek history: in the summer half, second portion; in the winter half, first portion.

Mathematics, (4 hours.)—In the summer half, theory of proportion and its application; theory of the similarity of figures. In the winter half, involution and evolution; principal propositions of the similarity of figures.

IV.—OBER-TERTIA.

Religious instruction, (2 hours.)—In the summer half, the third portion of the catechism; in the winter half, St. Mark's Gospel and the Acts of the Apostles.

Latin, (in summer 12 hours a week, in winter 11.)—In the summer half, Cæs. *De B. C.* III, (parts omitted;) Ovid. *Metam.*, VII, (parts omitted.) In the winter half, Cæs. *De B. C.* I and II, (parts omitted;) Ovid. *Metam.*, VII, (parts omitted.) Grammar: in summer, the tenses and moods; in winter, the cases and moods. Written exercises, trial work, and practice in Latin versification.

Greek, (6 hours.)—Xenoph. *Anab.* II, III, and Lib. VI skimmed; for private reading, Lib. VII. Grammar: irregular verbs and the cases. Written exercises and trial work.

German, (3 hours.)—Essays and practice in reading and recitation.

History and geography, (3 hours.)—In the summer half, the history of Brandenburg and Prussia to 1688; in the winter half, Grecian history to 404 B. C.

Mathematics, (4 hours.)—Further practice in Algebra and simple equations; theory of the equality of areas of rectilinear figures; extemporary exercises; correction of paper work.

V.—UNTER-TERTIA.

Religious instruction, (2 hours.)—In the summer half, Old Testament history, first portion. In the winter half, catechism repeated and the first part of it explained; reading from the second half of the Old Testament. Bible passages and hymns by heart.

Latin, (11 hours.)—In the summer half, Cæs. *De B. G.* VI, 21 to the end; Ovid. *Metam.* III, (parts omitted.) In the winter half, Cæs. *De B. G.* I, and Lib. IV skimmed; Ovid. *Metam.* IV, 55–166, 416–604. Grammar: in summer, accidence and the cases; in winter, the cases, and introductory lessons on the moods. Prosody and practice in Latin versification. Written exercises and trial work.

Greek, (6 hours.)—The mythological stories in Jacob's Greek *Delectus* read. Grammar: the accidence, verbs in full, the most important of the irregular verbs, and the prepositions. Written exercises and trial work.

German, (3 hours.)—Grammar: reading, exercise in the recitation of poems and prose narratives; correction of essays.

History and geography, (3 hours.)—Physical and political geography of Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Australia. Grecian history to 404 B. C.

Mathematics, (4 hours, 2 divisions.)—Div. II. Commencement of Algebra and its simplest application; comparison of triangles, and the theorems and problems immediately connected with it. Div. I. Going over work of division II again, and exercises in the application of what has been learned.

FRENCH.

In French the school is divided into five special classes. As a general rule only the boys of *Prima* and *Ober-Secunda*, compose these five French classes. The boys in *Ober-Tertia* and *Under-Tertia* are not admitted to this instruction unless they have some special qualification for it. Each of the five French classes has two hours' work a week.

First class.—Correction of written exercises, and criticism of extemporary work. In the summer half, Corneille's *Cid* read; in the winter half, Molière's *L'Avare.*

Second class.—Grammatical exercises, written and oral. In the summer half, the passages from Raynal, Marmontel, La Harpe, and Mercier in Ideler and Nolte's handbook read; in the winter half, the first four chapters of Ségur's *Histoire de Napoléon.*

Third class.—Repetition of the irregular verbs; the moods. Voltaire's *Charles XII*, Liv. II and III read. Written exercises and trial work.

Fourth class.—The pronoun, and the irregular and regular verbs. *Charles XII*, Liv. I and VIII read. Written exercises and trial work.

Fifth class.—Accidence to the regular verb, inclusive. Exercises in reading and translation from Leloup's French reading book. Trial work.

TECHNICAL ACQUIREMENTS.

Music and singing.—A select body of scholars, in two divisions of about twenty-five each, under two precentors, form the chapel choir. The rest of the scholars are divided into five singing classes, with one hour's instruction in each class weekly, and more if required. The school has a musical director who teaches instrumental music.

Drawing.—Two hours a week in all classes.

Writing.—Instruction given for one hour weekly, in German hand, Latin hand, and Greek hand. Limited to *Ober* and *Unter-Tertia*, each of which is formed into two divisions for this instruction. Very good writers are exempted from this lesson, and bad writers have to attend each division of their class.

Gymnastics.—Two hours a week. In the open playing-field in summer, in the large covered gymnasium in winter. The boys are also taught swimming. Botanical excursions during the summer half.

Composition subjects for the year.

A.—LATIN ESSAYS.

1. *Ober-Prima.* (In the summer half.)—1. Eloquentiæ Romanæ ætates. 2. Quæ bello Jugurthino rerum domesticarum in civitatem Romanam inductæ sint commutationes? 3. Quo animo (quo consilio) Tacitus Germaniam conscripserit? 4. Cæsaris de bello civili commentarios non sine quadam Pom-

peianarum partium obtrectatione conscriptos esse. 5. Cæsar Octavianus rectene ignaviæ arguatur. 6. Neronis crudelitas. 7. Eloquentiam rectiusne Cicero dicat (Brut. § 45) pacis otiique alumnam esso an Tacitus (Dian. 36) rerum publicarum perturbatione et licentia ali et exerceri? 8. Quales sub primis Cæsaribus mores Romanorum fuerint, secundum Taciti dialogum explicetur.

(In the winter half.) 1. Rectene Tacitus statuat Tiberium egregium vita famaque fuisse, dum privatus vel cum imperiis sub Augusto esset? 2. Quatuor ætates belli Punici secundi distinguantur. 3. Rectene Cicero propter orationem de Cn. Pompeii imperio habitam levitatis et inconstantiæ arguatur? 4. Sallustii narratio de bello Catilinario cum orationibus Ciceronis Catilinariis comparetur. 5. Quid Thucydides de rebus Græcorum antiquissimis doceat? 6. Qua in re Tacitus maximam civis Romani suæ ætatis laudem posuerit. 7. Qualis sit apud Homerum Hercules et qualis non sit? 8. Proprætorum Romanorum provincias administrantium crudelitas et lubido ex Ciceronis Verrinis.

II. *Unter-Prima.* (In the summer half.)—1. Catilinæ oratio in senatu habita, Sallust, Catil. 31. 2. Quid sit, sine ira et studio scribere, Tacit. Ann. I. 1. 3. Catonis de conjuratorum supplicio sententia cur potior visa sit senatoribus quam Cæsaris, Sall. Cat. 53. 4. Vere Apollinem Pythium prædixisse, Spartam nulla re nisi avaritia perituram, Cic. Off. II. 2, 27. 5. Sallustii judicium, Atheniensium res gestas aliquanto minores fuisse quam fama ferantur, num probari possit, Sall, Cat. 8. 6. Falso Horatium ignaviæ accusari, quod causam reipublicæ levissime deseruerit. 7. Ciceronis illud in Bruto VII. 45. "eloquentiam pacis comitem otiique sociam esse" num recte dictum sit. 8. Herodoti historiam ad epici carminis similitudinem accedere. 9. Ciceronis oratio omnem memoriam discordiarum oblivione sempiterna delendam esse censentis, Philipp. I. 1. 10. Pompeii in rempublicam Romanam merita.

(In the winter half.)—1. Romani num recte magis bellantes quam pacati propitios deos habuisse dicantur, Liv. III. 19. 2. C. Jul. Cæsar quo consilio et quo eventu bellum Gallicum gesserit. 3. Tusculanarum disputationum libri I. summarium. 4. De Horatio ruris amatore. 5. C. Marii ingenium et mores. 6. Catonis oratio legatos Atheniensium ex urbe removendos esse suadentis. 7. Quæ sit mediocritas ab Horatio Carm. II., 10 commendata. 8. Satirae Horatianæ I argumentum. 9. De Cicerone Ciliciæ præside.

II. *Ober-Secunda.* 1. Rectene Cicero (de Harusp. Resp. c. 19) dixit, omnibus bonis dolendum fuisse, maxima ornamenta, quibus C. Gracchus excelluerit, non ad meliorem mentem voluntatemque fuisse conversa? 2. De Pisistrati tyranni in rempublicam Atticam meritis. 3. De lectionis Georgicorum Vergili utilitate et jucunditate ad amicum epistola. 4. Quam egregie Homerus Ulixi, Phœnicis, Ajacis, Achillis ingenia in orationibus ab iis habitis (Il. IV, 1526–55) expresserit. 5. Quibus de causis M. Porcio Catoni Censorio sapientis cognomen datum est? 6. Solo quæ bona legibus suis Atheniensibus attulit? 7. De deorum Homericorum natura. 8. Penelopæ laudatio.

B.—GERMAN ESSAYS.

1. *Prima.* (In the summer half.)—1. Is the opposition laid down in these words of Goethe's Tasso:

> "Es bildet ein Talent sich in der Stille,
> Sich ein Character in dem Strom der Welt—"*

* A talent is formed in retirement; a character in the stream of the world.

to be taken quite absolutely?

2.

> "Die Menschen fürchtet nur, wer sie nicht kennt,
> Und wer sie meidet, wird sie bald verkennen."†

† He only is afraid of men who does not know men; and he who avoids them, will soon know them wrong.

What are the disadvantages which come from avoiding other people's society too much?

3. From the geographical position and the history of Germany explain the readiness her people have shown in admitting foreign influences upon the forms of their social life and upon their literature.

4. Description of the Realm of Fairy, as it appears in Shakspeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream.*

5. Whence arises the pleasure which we feel in seeing and exploring the ruined castles of the age of chivalry?

(In the winter half.)—1. (Subject chosen by the scholar himself.)

2. How do you explain why Latin was at one time the sole language of the learned in Germany, and long continued to be the language preferred by them?

3. Wherein consists the nobleness and defects of Götz von Berlichingen's character and conduct, as Goethe has represented him.

4. Sketch of the character of the father in Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea.*

5. "Es fehlt der Mensch, und darum hat er Freunde."

Explain these words from what precedes and follows them in Goethe's *Erwin und Elmira.*

6. How comes it that friendships are more quickly and easily formed in youth than in mature manhood?

II. *Ober-Secunda,* (In the summer half.)—

1. A verse task, the subject and metre to be chosen by the scholar himself.

2. Character of Tellheim in Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm.*

3. How far is it a consolation in misfortune to have partners in suffering?

(In the winter half.)—1. Who is your favorite poet, and why?

2. The *Frauensand* (from the *Deutsche Sagen* of the brothers Grimm) treated in verse.

3. How can past contrarieties and sufferings be agreeable in the retrospect?

III. *Unter-Secunda,* (In the summer half.)—1. What pleasures and enjoyments are afforded by the spring, beyond other seasons of the year?

2. Give in a prose narrative the substance of Schiller's *Diver.*

3. What advantages has life in a large town over life in the country, and at what time of year are these advantages most felt?

(In the winter half.)—1. What pleasures and enjoyments are afforded by the autumn, beyond other seasons of the year?

2. Letter to a friend, describing the new buildings begun and executed at Schulpforta in the course of the past summer.

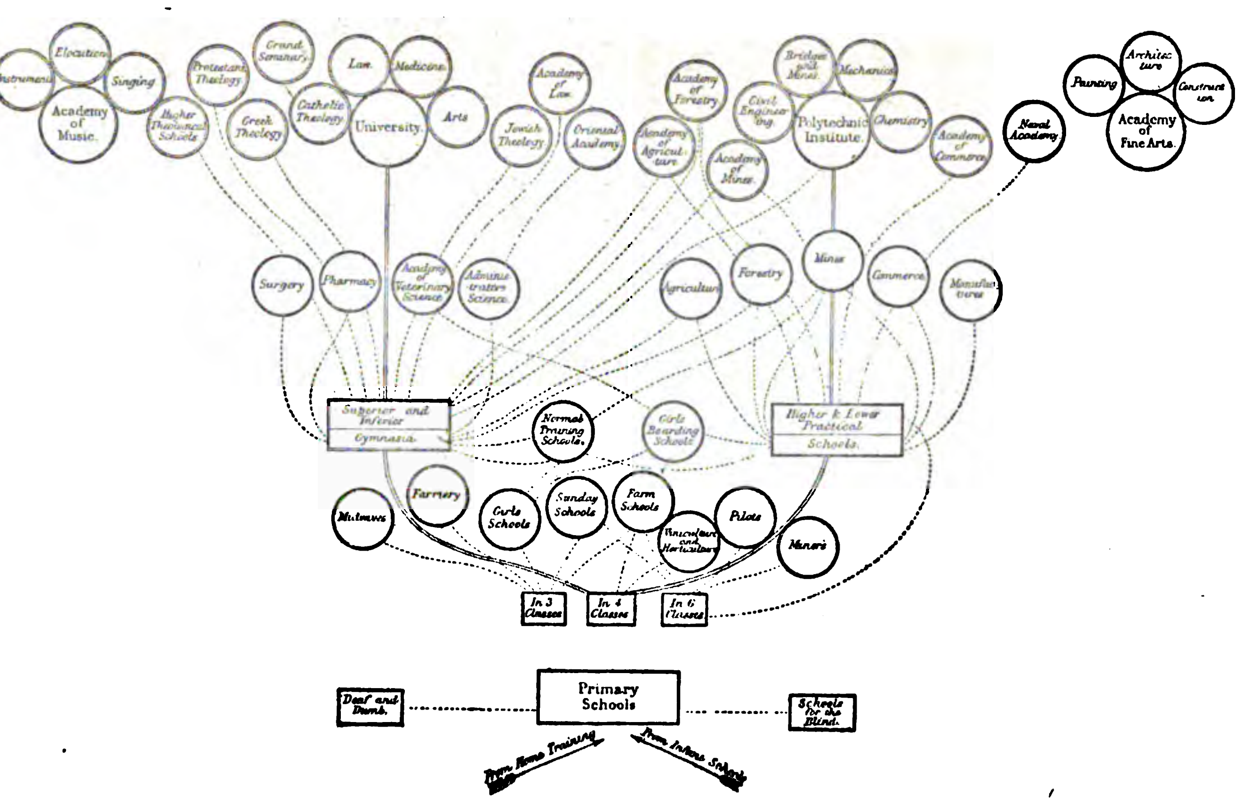
3. Give in a prose narrative the substance of Schiller's *Gang nach dem Eisenhammer.*

4. What advantages has country life over life in a large town, and at what time of year are these advantages most felt?

LEAVING-EXAMINATION AND INSPECTION.

Leaving-examination was held at Michælmas and Easter. At the former there were nine candidates out of one hundred and ninety in the school; and of these eight passed. Of the eight, six went to the University. Of these six two devoted themselves to theology (Halle,) three to law, (one to Halle, one to Jena, and one to Berlin,) and one to history and philosophy (Berlin.) Of the two who did not go to the University, one went to the Dramatic School to become an actor, and the other to the School of Architecture.

The school was visited during the year by the Minister of Education, who was present at the delivery of certificates at the Michaelmas examination; by the President of the Provincial School Board, by the *Schulrath,* or delegate from the Provincial School Board, whose inspection continued through four days.



VIENNA.—CONNECTION OF SCHOOLS IN SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE CITY OF VIENNA.

I—GENERAL VIEW OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

VIENNA, the capital of the Austrian empire, stands on a plain, surrounded by gently sloping hills, and traversed on the northeast side by an arm of the Danube, which serves the purpose of a canal for traffic, and in another direction by a sluggish stream (*Wien*) which gives its name to the city. The old town is only a mile in length, and less than that in breadth, and contains (55,000 inhabitants) less than half the population of Washington; but the police circumscription (including the suburbs, which spread out in all directions beyond the old fortifications and its glacis, which are now converted into landscape gardens), embraces 700,000 people on an area of nearly the same extent as the District of Columbia. The broad avenues of the suburbs, converging to a common centre, the encircling hills, the waters of the Danube, and the noble park between the city and suburbs, all remind the American what the National City will or can become, when from its more than imperial Capitol a plantation of trees, shrubbery, and walks, with public edifices and monuments interspersed, stretches away to the Executive Office, while the encircling hills are dotted with institutions of learning and charity, and the broad avenues, which stretch out to the hills, are marked with lines of green foliage, and the numerous "circles, squares, and triangles" reserved for breathing places, are fresh as the gardens of Damascus to the eye weary with the desert glare of pavements, and the broad expanse of the Potomac carries eye and heart down to Mount Vernon, the Mecca of American patriotism, where the house and tomb of Washington are preserved in their primitive simplicity, while the grounds are cultivated as a model farm, plant-houses, and arboretum, under the direction of the Department of Agriculture.

Vienna is a magnificent city, and is full of interesting institutions of art, science, education, and charity, among which are the following:

1. The *Imperial University*, founded in 1365 by Arch-duke Rudolph IV, "in token of gratitude to God, and for the benefit of the human race," "that the justice of the law may be maintained, the human understanding enlightened, and the public good promoted," and which occupies a spacious quadrangle for its cabinets, museums, libraries, and lecture rooms, with a long facade on the public park. Its astronomical observatory, botanical garden, anatomical museum, its library of 220,000 volumes, chemical laboratory, and other equipments, are among the best in Europe. Its professors and teachers of all grades (215 in 1869) are paid by the government, and its 2,500 students are gathered, not only from all parts of the empire, but include representatives, especially in the medical school, from every nation in Europe.

2. The *Imperial Polytechnic School* occupies a spacious and handsome structure facing the glacis, and has, under 60 professors, an average attendance of over 500 pupils, distributed into four special schools or divisions (besides a mathematical course), viz: 1, civil engineering; 2, architecture and construction; 3, machinery and manufactures; 4, chemical technology. Including students in the evening classes, and preparatory division, the attendance exceeds 2,000 every year.

3. The *Oriental Academy*, with 15 professors, where young men are trained in the languages of the eastern nations, and the political and commercial relations of Austria with the same, for positions in the public service.

Without attempting any further special enumeration, we refer to the following summary of institutions, prepared by Mr. Fial, of Vienna, together with a diagram showing the relations of these institutions to each other in a systematic development of public instruction.

Statistics of Elementary and Secondary Schools in Vienna, 1869.

Institutions.	Number.	Teachers.						Pupils.	School-rooms.
		Principals, male.	Principals, female.	Teachers, male.	Teachers, female.	Assistants and special, male.	Assistants and special, female.		
1. Normal school for male teachers	1	1	....	7	....	8	....	150	3
2. Normal school for female teachers	1	....	1	2	4	....	8	155	2
3. Teachers' pedagogium	1	2	....	5	....	2	....	114	3
4. Imperial boys' schools	8	8	....	27	....	28	....	2,146	32
5. Imperial girls' schools	3	....	3	5	11	7	26	648	17
6. Communal mixed schools	16	16	....	97	....	10	15	6,275	99
7. Communal boys' schools	30	30	....	312	....	12	....	13,186	154
8. Communal girls' schools	32	32	....	196	4	5	38	12,576	134
9. Convent schools	4	....	1	3	26	....	14	1,070	9
a Elementary schools	17	17	....	96	....	13	....	1,400	72
10. Private boys' schools	6	6	....	42	....	4	....	706	27
b Higher real-schools	1	1	....	11	....	11	....	278	6
11. Private girls' schools	45	....	45	189	35	....	42	1,753	137
12. Private schools of different grades	181	181	181	224	224	....	....	9,000	448
a Higher real-schools	3	3	....	35	....	34	....	965	18
13. Imperial middle-class schools:									
b Lower real-schools	7	7	....	33	....	26	....	3,121	42
c Gymnasia	4	4	....	45	....	57	....	2,078	34
14. Communal middle-class schools:									
a Higher real-schools	2	2	....	18	....	18	....	673	12
b Real-gymnasia	2	2	....	24	....	10	....	558	12
15. Schools of gymnastics	16	16	....	34	....	....	....	4,046	16
Total	377	328*	231†	1,306‡	304§	245‖	143¶	69,908	1177

* 18 belong to religious orders and 2 are Jews.
† 2 belong to religious orders.
‡ 199 belong to religious orders and 15 are Jews.
§ 30 belong to religious orders.
‖ 51 belong to religious orders.
¶ 22 belong to religious orders.

NOTE.—Out of the total number of teachers, (2,557,) 312 belong to religious orders and 17 are Jews.

The above statistics of Elementary and Secondary Schools in the city of Vienna should be studied in connection with the diagram on page 682, which gives the affiliation of these schools of general and preparatory culture with the special and professional schools with which the city is abundantly supplied. From this diagram it appears that the whole structure of public instruction rests on the broad basis of Primary and Elementary Schools, which must be provided by parents, religious or lay associations, or municipal authorities, in sufficient numbers to educate all children from the age of six to the age of fourteen. These Primary Schools are of three grades, respectively: of three, four, and six classes. The course of instruction in Primary Schools of four classes is extended in one direction into the Gymnasia, and in the other in the Real or Practical Schools. On the Gymnasia rests the University, and all the special schools in which language and its associated culture predominates. On the Real or Practical Schools rests the Polytechnic Institute, and all the special schools in which mathematics and the natural sciences are taught in connection with the great industries of the nation.

II.—ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

We are indebted for the following sketch of the elementary and secondary schools of Vienna to John B. Fial, teacher in the School of St Dominic:

1.—*Institutions for the Education of Teachers.*

There are three kinds of institutions for the professional training of teachers, viz: 1, a Normal school for male teachers; 2, a Normal school for female teachers; 3, a Normal school for teachers who have already completed their professional studies and entered on their work, called the *Pedagogium.*

Candidates for admission to the city Normal school must have completed their fifteenth year, and have absolved the course of a four-class primary school, (or a real school, or a gymnasium,) have an elementary knowledge of music, and pass a rigorous examination. The professional course occupies four years, and qualifies its pupils who pass a satisfactory examination for the diplomas: *a*, excellent; *b*, good; *c*, sufficient. Candidates who fail can try a second time, after another year's study. Those who succeed enter on their duties as assistants (*unterlehrre*), and after two years' of service can be examined for the certificate of head-master.

Each Normal school has a school of practice (*uebungschule*).

The subjects of instruction in the Normal schools are: 1, religion; 2, pedagogics and its history; 3, grammar, composition, and literature of their vernacular; 4, mathematics (which to girls is limited to arithmetic); 5, natural history; 6, physics and chemistry; 7, geography and history; 8, constitution of Austria; 9, agricultural economy and cultivation of the silkworm for males; 10, writing, geometrical and free-hand drawing; 11, music; 12, gymnastics; 13, organization of infant asylums, cradle schools, and *kindergarten;* 14, method of deaf-mute and blind instruction, wherever an opportunity offers; 15, needle-work and domestic economy for girls.

The course of instruction in the Pedagogium at Vienna is as follows: German language and literature, mathematics, natural history, physics, chemistry, history of the world, and special history of Austria, general and Austrian geography, anthropology, theoretical and historical pedagogics, methodics, pedagogical exercises, drawing, gymnastics, singing, Latin, and French. With the Pedagogium there is connected a practice school.

2.—*Public Elementary Schools.*

All the public elementary schools (*volksschule*) of Vienna are organized with four-class schools, with six divisions or annual courses. The obligation to attend school for every child extends from the sixth to the twelfth year.

At the head of every public elementary school there is a director (*oberlehrer*), who, besides his administrative duties, teaches one of the classes. If this is the case he is supplied with an assistant. All the teachers are obliged on a certain fixed day personally to give an account of the school, by handing in a list of the children obliged to attend school, and of the children in actual attendance. The school hours are from 8 to 11 a. m., and from 2 to 4 p. m. The course of instruction embraces religion, German language, arithmetic, geometry, geography, history, natural history, writing, drawing, singing, gymnastics; for girls, also house-keeping and female work. Every school has a sufficient apparatus for illustration, and a teachers' and scholars' library.

Burgher schools, or superior elementary schools, with eight classes, are now being established by the government and the city council.

3.—*Repetition Schools.*

For apprentices: Apprentices are obliged during the time of their apprenticeship to attend the repetition school every Sunday, from 10 to 12 a. m., and

if they be Catholics to attend the catechetical religious instruction at 2 p. m. The male teachers of every school district are obliged to give instruction in these repetition schools, but receive no extra compensation for this. The number of apprentices attending these schools averages annually 11,500.

For girls: All girls are obliged, up to the fifteenth year of their age, to attend the repetition schools, on Thursdays, from 9 to 11 a. m. The teachers of the girls' schools must give the instruction, but without extra compensation. The number of girls annually attending the repetition school averages 4,000. The course of instruction at the repetition schools is the same as in the elementary schools, only somewhat supplemented and extended. There are no school fees to be paid.

4.—*Schools of Gymnastics.*

Public schools of gymnastics exist at present for boys only, but similar schools for girls are contemplated. Many girls receive instruction of this kind in private schools specially licensed for this purpose by the government.

5.—*Infant Schools, Asylums, and Industrial Schools.*

There are five schools for young children, called children's asylums, or as in North Germany, *Kindergarten;* one school under the superintendence of the Sisters of Mercy; and eleven schools under female benevolent societies for developing the industrial education of girls, with 7,000 pupils.

There are in Vienna one imperial orphan asylum and three city asylums, superintended by so-called "orphan fathers" and several assistants. Inmates of these institutions receive their education either at a school connected with the asylum or attend one of the neighboring public schools.

All the infant schools and asylums are founded and maintained by funds or legacies—partly by the Normal school fund, created by the Empress Maria Theresa, and partly by private legacies, societies, and associations. Many apprentices, are not entered on the lists of the profession or trade to which they belong, through the negligence of their employers, in order to avoid the payment of the annual contribution to the sick fund, &c., and in order to get the greatest possible amount of work out of their apprentices, who are thus prevented from completing their education at the repetition school.

The "premium funds" which have hitherto existed are henceforth to be used for increasing the scholars' libraries.

The semi-annual and annual examinations are abolished, but at the end of every year a public school festival is held.

Stipends, so far as there are any, are with the consent of the school authorities given to poor but talented and diligent scholars.

By quarterly and annual reports parents or guardians are informed of the progress made by their children or wards, which they must return signed with their names.

III.—SECONDARY INSTRUCTION.

The organization of the real schools, gymnasia, and real-gymnasia, is exactly like that of similar institutions in North Germany, which are described in the Special Report on National Education, part 1, Germany—Austria.

The Imperial University and Polytechnic School are government institutions of the highest character, and will be described in detail in connection with the classes of instruction to which they belong in the Special Report on Universities, and on Schools of Science.

IV.—SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND SCHOOL FINANCES.

The city of Vienna is divided into nine school districts, viz: 1, Inner City; 2, Leopoldstadt; 3, Landstrasse; 4, Wieden; 5, Margareten; 6, Mariahilf; 7, Neubau; 8, Josephstadt; 9, Alsergrund.

Each district has an inspector, and each school a special board or committee. The superintendence of all the schools is in the hands of the mayor, assisted by the magistrates and the school inspectors.

Every school has its local board of administration, consisting of the clergyman, the school overseer (*schulaufseher*), and the head-master or director.

In every district there must annually be held at least two district conferences, at which also the delegates to the general conference are elected. At the district conference the district school inspector presides; at the general school conference the school counsellor (*landesschulrath*).

The district school inspectors must inspect the schools of their district at least four times annually, and make a report of their observations to the teacher, or the local conference, or, if necessary, to the provincial school authority (*landesschulbehorde.*)

For this purpose they receive their instructions, which are also communicated to all the teachers. The provincial school inspectors also receive their instructions, which are likewise communicated to their subordinates. The provincial school inspectors must inspect every school of their province at least once in every three years. The provincial school inspectors of the first class have an annual salary of from 2,000 to 2,500 florins. The provincial school inspectors of the second class have an annual salary of from 1,500 to 2,000 florins; 450 florins, "quarter-money" (*quartier-geld*), are allowed for both classes. Traveling and other incidental expenses are covered by "pauschal" contributions, which for provincial school inspectors of the first class are not to exceed 700 florins, and for provincial school inspectors of the second class 400 florins.

The district school inspectors are paid a certain sum by the government, according to the number of visits they have made, the amount of their journey expenses, &c.

The provincial school authorities appoint the teachers at the teachers' institutions or seminaries.

The district school board appoints the teachers of their respective district, with the consent of those who maintain the school, and with the approbation of the provincial school authorities.

The teachers at private schools are appointed by the district school board, in conjunction with the principals of the institutions.

The salaries of directors of teachers' institutions are: 1,300 to 1,800, and 300 florins and 150 florins "quarter-money" (*quartier-geld*), with an increase after every period of ten years of 100 florins.

The teachers of the teachers' institutions receive a salary of 1,000 to 1,200 florins "quarter-money" (*quartier-geld*), and an increase of 100 florins after every period of ten years.

All these expenses are met by the government. They amount annually for the arch-duchy of Lower Austria (*Oesterrtch unter der Enns*), to 140,637 florins, of which sum more than one-third goes to the schools of Vienna.

The (patronals) clerical expenses amount to 5,561 florins, for ordinary expenses, and 130,000 florins, extraordinary expenses, for the arch-duchy of Lower Austria, besides 28,228 florins for the Protestant congregations, and ,536 florins for all other denominations.

Besides these sums the income accruing from the Normal School fund, founded by the Empress Maria Theresa, is applied to the maintenance of the public schools.

The salaries of all the teachers of city schools are paid by the city council from the city treasury. The salaries are—

1. The director of the "Pedagogium" in Vienna 4,000 florins salary, and 800 florins "quarter-money" (*quartier-geld*).
2. The "ordinarius" 3,000 florins salary and free residence.
3. Every teacher (professor) at the "Pedagogium" 100 florins annual salary for one hour's weekly instruction.

There are—
a. 36 head-master places, with 1,000 florins salary, and free quarters, or "quarter-money."
b. 42 head-master places at 800 florins salary, and free quarters, or "quarter-money."
c. 67 teachers' places at 600 florins.
d. 81 teachers' places at 500 florins.
e. 107 teachers' places at 400 florins.
f. 162 teachers' places at 300 florins.
And an indefinite number of assistant teachers' places at 250 florins.

The head-masters receive an annual subsidy of 200 florins, with which they must provide ink, chalk, sponges, &c., and pay for the cleaning of the school-rooms.

The school fees amount to 40 or 80 kreutzer per month. Almost two-thirds of the children attending school are admitted gratis. Such pupils are also gratuitously supplied with school books and writing material.

The school fees at the real schools and gymnasia range from 10 to 18 florins per annum. In these institutions there are likewise many scholars who receive gratuitous instruction.

All teachers, as well as their widows and orphans, are entitled to a pension.

The annual expenses of schools in the city of Vienna, included in this sketch, amount to—
a. Elementary schools, 450,000 florins.
b. Middle class schools, 150,00 florins.
c. Schools of gymnastics, 24,000 florins.
d. Building purposes and sundries, 60,000 to 70,000 florins.

General School Law of May, 1869.

Mr. Lytton, Secretary of the British Legation at Vienna, writes as follows of the new school law of 1869:

One of the greatest benefits conferred upon the working classes of Austria is the General School Code of the 14th May, 1869, which renders national education compulsory, and greatly elevates the standard of it.

In accordance with this law, compulsory attendance at school begins with every child at the age of six, and is continued uninterruptedly to the age of fourteen. But even then (that is to say, at the end of his fourteenth year), the child is only allowed to leave school on production of certified proof that he has thoroughly acquired the full amount of information which this great law fixes as the *sine qua non* minimum of education for every Austrian citizen. The prescribed educational course comprises reading, writing, and arithmetic; a sound knowledge of the native language; history, chiefly, though not exclusively, that of the native country, embracing the political constitution and general social structure of it; geography, in the same sense; all the more important branches of physical science; geometry (geometrical drawing, &c.); singing; athletic exercises. Children employed in large factories, or prevented by special circumstances from attending the communal school, may complete or continue their education at any special school supported by their employer; and the employers are authorized to found schools for that purpose. But it is a *sine qua non* condition that all such schools shall provide the full amount and quality of education required by law, and otherwise fulfil all the obligations prescribed by the General School Code, which subjects every school, whether private or public, to the inspection of the State. In places where a special trade school exists the employer is bound to send his apprentices to it. In addition to the subjects of instruction above enumerated every child is simultaneously provided with religious instruction in the creed which he or she is born. The local ecclesiastical authorities or notables of the church or religious community to which each child belongs are entitled and indeed bound by law to provide competent teachers for this purpose. But this religious instruction, which is altogether denominational, and on a footing of impartial equality for all religious sects, is kept by the State carefully apart from the secular education, which is in every case obligatory, and which it is in no case allowed to interfere or attempt to control.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THE CITY OF DRESDEN, SAXONY.*

The following comprehensive survey of the educational establishments in the capital of Saxony (with 156,000 inhabitants) will show a very large number of schools of all kinds; so large that Dresden has been designated "a great international school establishment." †

Though the word "international" is not applicable to our public schools, the number of American, Russian, English, Austrian, Romanian, &c., educated in private schools, or taught by the teachers of public schools, together with the number of foreign families who reside here during the period of their children's education, may to some degree justify such an expression in reference to our population generally. We pass over the remark of another correspondent that "Berlin, with three and a half times more inhabitants, should have two hundred and ninety-two schools instead of two hundred and nine, and ninety-four thousand nine hundred pupils instead of seventy-one thousand seven hundred and thirty-one;" but the remark in reference to the variety, number, and character of the schools of Dresden deserves attention.

To enable the reader to find at pleasure all the schools of the same kind together, we divide them into, I, Common or Elementary schools; II, Higher schools, *i. e.*, gymnasia and real schools; III, Special schools; and IV, Charity schools; subdividing them, also, into royal, municipal, &c.; and giving an account of the municipal school system under the head of "elementary schools." At the end of this account we give a summary of institutions which will show the municipal schools, &c., separate from the royal and charity schools.

I. Elementary Schools.

A. *Municipal or town schools.*—There are seventeen such schools, numbering thirteen thousand seven hundred and sixty-seven children and two hundred and thirty-two teachers, (besides thirty-nine female teachers for needle-work,) in two hundred and sixty-five classes. The expenses for municipal schools forms the largest item in the town budget for 1869, (in all, six hundred and twenty-four thousand two hundred and forty-one thalers,) being one hundred and nine thousand nine hundred and fifty-two thalers, against eighty-seven thousand six hundred and eight in 1868, or, with addition of the orphan asylum, reform school, &c., one hundred and twenty-three thousand five hundred and seventy-six thalers. (The amounts in previous years were, thirty-seven thousand nine hundred and thirty thalers in 1862, forty-four thousand three hundred and four thalers in 1864, fifty thousand six hundred and forty-eight thalers in 1865, &c.) And of the above sum of one hundred and nine thousand nine hundred and fifty-two thalers the elementary schools receive ninety-one thousand five hundred and twenty-seven thalers. The remaining eighteen thousand four hundred and twenty-five thalers embraces the subventions for the gymnasium and the two real schools.

All acts concerning municipal schools of any kind are signed by the "school inspection," *i. e.*, by the burgomaster, and the head clergyman of the town, called the superintendent; but with regard to schools, the "*co-inspector*," the other co-inspector being the town senate or its head, the burgomaster.

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* Prepared for the Commissioner of Education by Dr. Hermann Wimmer, of Dresden, author of "*The Church and School in North America*," published in Leipsic in 1853, and since 1854 professor in Krause's Gymnasium and Real School.

† The Constitutional Gazette, No. 3, 1869. The statistics are reprinted in the Allgemeine Schulzeitung, No. 5. "Dresden numbers at present seven gymnasia and real schools, with one thousand and thirty-five pupils; eight public confessional (denominational) schools, with one thousand and six pupils; ten practice and association schools, with one thousand eight hundred and one pupils; thirteen private schools for both sexes, with one thousand seven hundred and twenty children; seven private schools for boys, with eight hundred and twenty-two pupils; thirteen private schools for girls, with nine hundred and forty-five girls; and seventeen municipal elementary schools, with thirteen thousand seven hundred and sixty-seven children—together, therefore, seventy-five schools, with twenty-one thousand and ninety-six pupils. And the metropolis of Prussia, "*die Stadt der Intelligenz*," which, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, (three and a half times more than Dresden,) ought to have two hundred and ninety-two schools with ninety-four thousand pupils, has only two hundred and nine schools with seventy-one thousand seven hundred and thirty-one pupils."

An account of the system of Public Instruction in the Kingdom of Saxony will be found in the Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on *National Education. Part I, German States.*

The chief labor of the administration of schools devolves upon one member of the town senate, whose special duty is to attend to all school affairs—at present Mr. Peschel. His bureau employs five clerks—two of whom are mere copyists—and two cashiers, at an expense of four thousand three hundred and ten thalers, which does not include the salary of the presiding senator, who is paid out of the appropriation (sixty-eight thousand six hundred and four thalers) for salaries of the town senators and officers of the council.

The appointment of teachers, and all other important affairs, are decided by the "*plenum*," (full board) of the twenty-five town senators, whose decisions, however, are subject to the revision of the sixty town delegates, (*Stadtverordnete*,) who meet once a week to decide upon the action of the senate. There is also a school committee (*school deputation*) for elementary and real schools, consisting of four town senators, four clergymen, three town delegates, a lawyer as deputy of the almoury, and, lastly, of two deputies of the Roman Catholic Consistory, the town senator at the head of the bureau being *ex officio* president.

The special inspection of the evangelical elementary schools, public and private, is committed to the twenty-one evangelical parish clergymen of the town, so that every one of them, called the local school inspector, has the care of about three to five public or private schools, which he occasionally visits during the term, and which he must attend at the annual examination before Easter. The list of schools thus committed to the twenty-one local inspectors in 1867* mentions twenty-three public schools (including the two real schools superintended by the "co-inspector" himself) and fifty-four private schools of all kinds. The school inspectors report to the "co-inspector."

The government boards, in cases of appeal or necessary interference, are "kreisdirection," (four in Saxony,) with one ecclesiastical counselor for church and school affairs in the district, and the minister of worship and education, with six counselors, some of whom are charged particularly with the school affairs of the State.

On account of the inspection of schools being, by the law of 1835, committed exclusively to the clergymen of the town, who have but little time to devote to this part of their official services, the town council, in 1864, undertook to appoint (as is the case in Berlin) a teacher as superintendent of the schools and a member of the school committee. But in consequenc of the opposition of the clerical superintendent, (co-inspector,) and as the law did no allow the existing local school inspectors to be superseded, the action of 1864 was rescinded in 1866, and the project so far has resulted only in the valuable report of the school committee published in 1867. To make up as much as possible for the necessity, the senator for school affairs has heretofore taken, and still takes, the advice, in all competent matters, of the convention of the principals of common schools, who assemble four times a year. This convention, also, for obvious reasons, declared against the appointment of a school superintendent.

The council of the town delegates resolved likewise, on the separation of the school from the church, "that the connection should not be wholly dissolved, but that school and church should live together as a sisterhood, the school not being, as now, the servant of the church, and that all school matters not strictly belonging to church and religion should be exempt from clerical inspection." On this point, however, the school committee did not agree, and left the decision to the town senate to take all legal steps, as proposed, for getting the permission of the higher boards. Nor would any other resolution at present have been of any use. For carrying this point a liberal legislature is needed, and is expected next year, to amend the common school law of 1835 in this respect; and if such action be had, the agreement of the government, though now hardly probable, may, perhaps, be reached, in view of a similar modification in Prussia, and of the late school laws, most decisive in this respect, of Saxe-Gotha, Baden, and Austria.

The municipal elementary schools are divided into *a*, burger schools, at present three in number; *b*, district schools, nine; and *c*, poor schools, which name, as offensive, was changed some time ago into public or municipal schools, (Gemeindeschulen.)

This division rests essentially on the school money to be paid in the different schools, and is conceded to be of an arbitrary character. After considering the question whether

* Bericht der Schuldeputation zu Dresden über die städtischen Elementarschulen, Dresden, 1867, p. 123.

ll schools should be free or the present system be maintained, the committee resolved, for easons relating to society, instruction, and finance, (Dresden is comparatively a poor town nd has to raise its finances by taxes,) in favor of the latter course. The pupils in each of he burger schools have to pay, annually, every one, ten to eighteen thalers, monthly, in dvance, and if not paid on the first of each month, or after due warning in the course of he month, the pupil is removed to the next district school. In the district schools they ave to pay one (two and one-half cents) to three groschens a week. The payment varies ere as elsewhere according to the lower or higher classes. In the poor schools at first no ayment was required, but for various reasons looking to attendance and parental interest, chool money was raised from the parents of one-half to seven-tenths groschen a week; but ven this had to be lowered to three-tenths at one-half a groschen, and now, in consequence of he trifling income, and of the great trouble and costs of raising the money, the payment vill soon be abolished by the decision of the committee. There are many free scholarships f all grades in these schools, (forty-one in the burger, two hundred and eighty-four in the listrict schools.) As to instruction, the *burgher schools* have a somewhat higher aim than is rescribed by the law for elementary schools, with ten lessons more than are given in the listrict and poor schools. The plan of the lessons is as follows:

	Boys.					Girls.				
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
Religion	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Reading	1	2	5	6	6	1	2	5	6	6
Writing	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3
German	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	2	3
French	4	4	4	....	....	4	4	....	....	....
Geography	2	2	2	....	....	2	2	2	....	....
History	2	2	....	....	....	1	1	....	....	....
Arithmetic	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	3	3
Natural History, Anthropology, Hygiene, and Technology	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Natural Philosophy	2	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....
Drawing	2	2	1	....	....	2	1	....	....	....
Singing	2	1	1	1	....	1	1	1	1	....
Gymnastics	2	2	....	....	....	2	2	....	....	....
Needle-work	....	....	....	....	....	6	6	4	4	4
Lesson hours	36	36	32	26	22	34	34	32	26	26

These schools were attended last year by two thousand three hundred children—one housand two hundred and seventy-one boys and one thousand and twenty-nine girls—in hirty classes for boys and twenty-three for girls, and a mixed one, and were taught by fifty ständige, *i. e.*, fully appointed) masters, two of whom are approved *female* teachers, and by ifteen provisory teachers, besides ten female teachers of needle work. In V and IV there s a one year's course, and in the higher classes a two years' course.

There are as many parallel classes as may be needed, so as not to have more than orty to forty-four children in one class.

In the nine district schools (with not as many lessons in the same branches and without French) there are seven thousand six hundred and fifty-six children, in fifty-nine classes for oys, sixty-three for girls, and twenty-one for girls and boys; instructed in one hundred chool-rooms by eighty-two permanent and thirty-nine provisionally appointed teachers; esides twenty-nine female teachers of needle-work, with an average number of forty-wo to fifty-eight children in a class.

In the five poor schools there are but four classes for boys and four for girls; in all twenty-even for boys, twenty-seven for girls, and six for boys and girls; where one thousand six undred and six boys and one thousand six hundred and eighteen girls are instructed by hirty-one permanent and fifteen temporary teachers, besides ten female teachers of needle-vork. The number of children in a class varies from forty-seven to sixty-two.

By the rules of 1857, the permission to teach boys and girls together in one class extends

in *a*, *i. e.*, the burgher schools, only to the fifth class; in *b* to V and IV; and in *c*, with but four classes, to IV and III.

This arbitrary gradation of schools at first seems objectionable as the school committee admit, but may be excused on account of social wants and prejudices, the more so as the poor schools not less than the others are so far as possible coming up to the point of education fixed by law for elementary schools. The tuition in the district schools is so trifling that they are practically free schools; and burgher schools, with a higher pay and a higher aim in smaller classes, seem justified; because, without them, many parents would prefer to send their children to private schools. Though this accommodation to social wants and prejudices cannot claim the honor of being in advance of other systems, nor answers to section 157* of the German constitution, adopted in Frankfort, in 1849, (which never came into use, but whose fundamental laws are still acknowledged by the Liberal party;) it is, however, fully justified by the fact that the position and salary of all *teachers* in the three kinds of schools are *the same*, and that the school-houses are just as good and as well cared for in the poor schools as in the burgher schools.

The establishment in 1867 of two classes for such children as are *weak in mind* and not able to follow out the school course, has proved very beneficial. They were attended by thirty-nine children.

The *libraries* of these schools have increased, especially by the liberal donation of the bookseller, *Arnold*, who in 1839 granted not only for his lifetime, but for the duration of his firm, (yet flourishing,) to any public school in Dresden, the right of selecting annually from his collection, books to the amount of 12 thalers.

The little *saving-banks* established in the poor schools have not been without their salutary effect. For example, in the fourth school of this sort, the savings of the children in 1867 amounted to 263 thalers, of which 189 thalers were paid back before Easter, to get new clothes for confirmation and to get a warm suit before Christmas. To the same schools the town gave 40 thalers apiece for purchasing needles and other sewing material for such girls as had not the means of buying them. And how very poor many of the children are, is shown by the fact that in the year 1867, after the war, the number of those who could not pay the one to three and a half groschen in the district schools and who went over to the poor schools, was very large; so that the latter had at the end of the year three hundred and fourteen children more than at the beginning.

B. *Foundation schools of an elementary grade.*—These schools are all of an elementary grade, founded by charitable persons or associations, and administered by trustees or denominational bodies.

1. The *Public school for Girls*, which, since 1868, may be called a municipal school. It is a burger school for girls of the middling class, of private origin, (1806,) but aided formerly by grants from the municipality, who also in 1816 purchased the house. Until this time the principal had the whole income and appointed the teachers; but all that is now attended to by the senate of the town. The school has *seven* classes, besides a *selecta* for young ladies who are "confirmed," and consequently have finished their elementary education. French and English, drawing, and the history of literature, are the branches of education which are not taught in elementary schools. The girls have to pay in "selecta" and the three higher classes three thalers a month, down to one and two-third thalers in the last class. There are six female teachers, (for modern languages and needle-work,) besides twelve male teachers, many of whom are employed in other schools. The school is maintained by its income.

2. *Free Masons' school for boys*, founded in 1772, and now managed by fifteen trustees, who also have to decide on the free scholarships (including board, &c.,) granted to the orphans of municipal or State officers, clergymen, teachers, lawyers, physicians, &c., whenever on application a certificate of the father's death is produced. It differs from the rest of the elementary schools, as it does not tax the boys before the eighth year, and a certificate of previous school attendance is therefore requisite; and the pupils are kept until

*Art. VI, § 157. Instruction in common schools (*Volksschulen*) and lower industrial schools (*Gewerbschulen*) is *free*. Poor persons shall have free instruction in *all public* educational establishments.

hey are seventeen years old, so that the higher classes are equal to those of a real school r progymnasium. At present one hundred and eighty boarding pupils, thirty of whom re free scholars, (the rest pay 184 to 200 thalers a year;) and, besides, twenty day scholrs at four thalers a month may be admitted.

3. *Free Masons' school for girls*, established in 1852, (until 1843 the school above described n 2, had boys and girls.) It has three trustees, and so far, eleven free boarders; the other oarding pupils pay 150 to 170 thalers a year; twelve to fifteen select pupils form a little amily under one governess. As regards the instruction given before and after confirmation y six female and seven male teachers, it is like the public school for girls, (1,) but it has a pecial department for training female teachers, who, however, cannot be employed as chool teachers in situations where the State requires a certificate, unless they have passed he public examination in Callnberg.*

4. The school of the "*Verein zum Frauenschutz*," (*i. e.*, association for the protection of dult girls,) under the direction of six ladies, and a clergyman as school inspector. This association, formed in 1822, consisting now of one hundred ladies in Dresden and thirty in other arts of Saxony, has large grounds and houses for receiving orphan girls, and secures them home and a corresponding sphere of action. For this and other purposes, a school is joined o the institution which we can only barely mention, passing over its many other beneficial rrangements. The school takes children from three years old to attend the "children's arden," or infant school. The proper school classes are four, with a "selecta." There are t present two hundred and twenty girls, (sixty of whom are boarders, paying each 140 to 170 halers,) and thirty children in the "garden," who are instructed by three upper masters, our assistant teachers, and fourteen governesses.

5. *Schule zu Rath und That*, a free school founded in 1823 by an association bearing his name. The funds of the association, of one hundred and eighty-five members, amount t present to 142,860 thalers, and the expenses in 1867 were in all 9,417 thalers, of which 4,616 thalers were expended for the school, (besides 507 thalers for free scholarships n other elementary schools, and 80 thalers for their asylum for infants, 187 thalers for aiding the boys and girls after leaving school on their first entrance into life,) &c., &c. It is a ree *day* school for boys and girls, who get there a common school education until their ' confirmation." The four hundred and fifty children are taught in four classes for boys nd four for girls, by seven teachers.

The other free schools are—

6. The *Evangelical free school*, founded in 1824, with four hundred boys and girls, taught y six teachers in five classes. The school-books and writing materials must be furnished y the parents.

7 and 8. The two *Practice schools* in the two teachers' seminaries, (normal schools) at Dresden. In each sixty children have free instruction; but in the Fletcher Seminary the upils are boarders, and pay 50 thalers a year for a course of four years.

9. The *Garrison school* for poor children of private soldiers, supported by the department f war since 1817.

CONFESSIONAL OR DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOLS.

10. The school of the *Bohemian* community in Dresden, descendants of Protestant immirants from Bohemia of the 16th century, who found here a place of refuge.

11. *Catholic* schools—four elementary and one pro-gymnasium—preparing for the third

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* The ordinance of June 17, 1859, respecting the employment of *female teachers*, ordains: that unmarried adies, who have passed their examination as graduates of the normal school in Callnberg, (established by the unificence of Prince Schoenburg, in 1856,) after the full course of three years, or if they have entered the ighest class, after one year's course in that class; or, if not trained there, before a committee of examiners in Dresden, but in the presence of a royal commissary—may be employed as teachers in families, public and rivate schools, and may teach in girls' schools in all classes, (except in religion only in the lower and middle lasses)—in mixed schools (*i. e.*, with boys and girls) only in the lower classes; but many never teach a school lone, without several male teachers. Only teachers of needle-work, modern languages, music, and drawing, re exempt from such an examination. After two years they may be fully appointed, and at last have a pension as superannuated teachers while they live, remaining unmarried.

The seminary at Callnberg has at present sixty-five pupils in three classes, with a practice school of inety children, six male and four female teachers, and is maintained at an annual expense of 15,000 thalers.

class of a gymnasium. There are eight hundred and seventy-three children in all the common schools for Catholics at Dresden, including the pro-gymnasium.

12. The *Josephinenstift* a *Catholic* free *boarding* school for young girls of seven to sixteen years, (having now seventy scholars,) and for young ladies of the nobility of eight to sixteen years, (now numbering twelve.)

13. The *Israelite* school, with seven teachers in three classes. It is supported by grants from the State, the municipality, and the Israelite community. The reformers among the Jews in Dresden, who have had a majority in the last election of their president, have resolved to discontinue this school as soon as possible, and to strive for unconfessional schools. It is at present still maintained, and probably will be for some time to come.

14. The *Sunday school*, founded in 1816 by a Free Masons' lodge, but in 1839 given up to the municipality. By them it was considered best to commit it to the care of a private association, with an annual grant of 50 thalers from the town funds. Thus it was opened anew in 1840. It is now managed by twelve trustees chosen by the two hundred members of the association, including nearly all the trade corporations. In 1866 it was attended by two hundred and twenty-four pupils, who on Sundays, from 8 to 11½ a. m., are instructed in calligraphy and composition, arithmetic, and drawing, in five classes, by seven teachers.

15. An elementary (evening) school for chimney-sweepers, with one teacher.

C. *Private schools.*—In 1867, Dresden had forty-six private schools* with seven thousand pupils, (embracing thirteen primary schools for boys and girls, three day schools for boys, two for girls, three for boys and girls, sixteen boarding schools for girls, and nine for boys.) The fifteen primary schools, or "children's gardens," so-called, prepare the children for the second kind of schools, which educate the boys until they are fourteen years old; in general preparing them in the higher classes for the lower classes of a gymnasium (therefore all study Latin) or of a real school. Of the boarding schools which also have day scholars there are some which, though taking quite little children who have learned to read and write, give them an education equal to that in real schools and gymnasia. These two schools, which have been lately acknowledged as such by the government of the North German Confederation, will be mentioned hereafter.

Of the schools which are mainly elementary and preparatory, we particularize—

1. *Böttcher's* day school, of long standing and good reputation, with one hundred and seventy-three pupils in eight classes.

2. *Boehme's* school, (with boarders,) of recent origin, which at Easter, 1869, had three hundred and sixty pupils in sixteen classes, taught by sixteen regular teachers, and twelve assistants instructing in single branches of study. The principal intends now to raise the standing of the school, and make the higher classes equal to corresponding classes in the gymnasia and real schools.

II. HIGHER SCHOOLS.

1. *Municipal gymnasium and real schools.*

a. The *town gymnasium,* called the "Kreuzschule," reorganized in 1817, and since 1866 occupying a splendid building, with three hundred and eighty-one pupils, who are taught thirty hour-lessons a week in nine classes, of which the last three are to be regarded as a pro-gymnasium, according to the regulation of 1846. (A new set of rules for all the gymnasia in the North German Confederation is expected at the next session.) The age of the students (now, in 1869,) varies from eighteen to twenty-two years; of the pupils in the sixth class, (III 6, the lowest of the gymnasium proper,) from twelve to seventeen: in the last or ninth class, from ten to fourteen years. There are twenty ordinary teachers and five extraordinary ones, viz: two assistants, for mathematics and French, one for gymnastics, one for singing, and one for calligraphy. The directory of the gymnasium consists of the clerical superintendent, (the inspector of all the schools before mentioned,) the senator, charged with school affairs, and a lawyer.

* This number is taken from a register of the private schools in the *Official Report* of 1867. I mention this because a Dresden paper of January 4, 1869, (reprinted in the Darmstadter Schule,) speaks of thirty-three private schools for boys and girls (besides three private gymnasia and real schools,) with three thousand four hundred and eighty-seven boys and girls.

Among the pupils are thirty free boarders and twenty day scholars, who form the choir of the municipal churches, and if required have, besides, to ring the bells at burials, &c. In return, the former have their board and tuition free, the latter free instruction, and both of them some extra income.

For entering the ninth class the boys must at least have completed the ninth year, know the elements of sacred history, geography, and arithmetic, read fluently, and write without making great errors in spelling, but they need not have knowledge of Latin. Students may be admitted to any class of the school. In the three classes of the pro-gymnasium the monthly pay is two and a half thalers, and in the classes of six years' standing in the gymnasium three thalers.

The graduates of this and other gymnasia, eighteen to twenty-two years old, have finished their *general* (collegiate or classical) education, and then go to the University to study law, medicine, theology, or any of the branches of instruction of the philosophical faculty, such as philosophy, mathematics, natural sciences, philology, to become fitted for teaching the same branches in the higher schools. Besides, they are admitted, without any further examination, to the polytechnical school, to the academies in Freiberg and Tharand, and to become as ensigns, officers of the army, after a short practice of drilling, just like the graduates of the military school. Since the declarations of our king it has become the fashion, even with our highest officers, who have heard of it, to have their sons educated for the army in the gymnasia; that is, to afford them a full classical education.

The library has 7,000 volumes.

This being the only municipal gymnasium in Dresden, the middle classes were divided last year into parallel classes, and so by degrees will be the highest classes, in order to meet all applications for admission and have but a moderate number in each class.

The annual expenses have for the last few years amounted to 18,712 thalers. The pupils pay thirty to thirty-six thalers a year. The salary of the first four teachers, out of nineteen varies from 1,000 to 1,600 thalers.

b. Two municipal *real schools* on the two sides of the river. The one in Neustadt has existed as a school ever since 1539, and was reorganized as a real school in 1851. In the latter year the other was organized as a real school, having been a common and then a Latin school since 1579. It has three hundred and eighty-eight pupils with seventeen teachers; II three hundred and forty-five; the expenses of I are 12,500 thalers, of II 10,000 thalers, a year.

According to the rules for real schools of 1860, they have six classes for boys of ten to sixteen years of age. Compared with the Prussian real schools, those in Saxony are real schools of the second order, because their graduates in age and accomplishments are considered to be on a par with the students of the second class of a gymnasium, whereas in the Prussian real schools of the first order the graduates are at least eighteen years old, and the classes are considered equal to that of a gymnasium.

The examination completed, study is attended by a royal commissary, at present Dr. Hulsse, the principal of the polytechnical school, and the graduates may attend the polytechnical school provided they have passed a good (II) examination, or a higher one than necessary (III) in mathematics, the Industrial school in Chemnitz, the academies in Freiberg and Tharand, or serve as post or custom officers, merchants, &c., &c.

2. The *Vitzthum* gymnasium, founded by Rudolf Vitzthum in 1638, for boys of his family and for an equal number of poor boys, but it was not opened until 1828, in connection with the then most flourishing school of the eminent Pestalozzian, *Blockmann*. The writer of this account may be allowed to add that he was for several years a teacher in that gymnasium, under the guidance of Blockmann, and can affirm, from his former and present knowledge that many of the best private schools in Dresden with higher classes were organized after the same pattern. Some years after Blockmann's death the school grounds and houses were sold by his successor and heir to the administrator of the Vitzthum foundation, who, in 1861, started a separate school, without joining it to the real school of former times. The funds and the school itself are managed by a Count Vitzthum, who also appoints the

teachers. One of the royal school counselors holds the office of controller and school inspector.

At Easter, 1869, the gymnasium was attended by seventeen free boarders, by boarders paying 350 thalers a year, and by day scholars, in all two hundred and three, in the nine classes, one hundred and thirty-eight of whom were in the six higher classes of the gymnasium proper. Ordinary teachers fifteen, extraordinary or special five.

For the rest see 1 *a*.

3. Two *Teachers' Seminaries*, or normal schools.

a. The Royal Seminary, founded in 1787, and occupying a new school-house since 1866, like all the others, it is organized according to the law of 1857, with a course of four years, for which the pupils (forty-eight in number) are generally prepared in a pro-seminary, and admitted at sixteen years old. The school of practice, for sixty children, has been already mentioned. It is, like other seminaries, a boarding school without day scholars, therefore the number is confined to about eighty, at present eighty-six. The price for board is only four thalers a month, and, besides, the State grants in stipends toward their board 850 thalers a year. The library receives annually 50 thalers. The salary of the nine teachers (in six classes) varies from 350 to 1,250 thalers.

b. *The Fletcher* Seminary, founded in 1769, by a lady of that name, who gave a legacy of 40,000 thalers for that purpose in case her daughter should die without children. The funds thus fell into possession in 1815, but the normal school was not opened until 1825. The pro-seminary joined with it has forty pupils; the seminary at present seventy-eight, with eight teachers. The building was enlarged in 1860, but the number of pupils is confined to sixty. They pay 50 thalers a year for board, &c.

The pupils of all normal schools in Saxony must pass two examinations, the first when leaving the seminary, *pro-candidatura*, the second after two years—having in the mean time been assistants—to obtain the right of accepting a regular employment. Female teachers (see I B 3, note) have to pass only the former.

4. A *Catholic Pro-gymnasium*, founded as a Latin school in 1709, consists of two classes, which are organized since 1860 (1828) according to the eighth and seventh classes of a gymnasium, or according to the Austrian "under-gymnasium."

5. Two Pro-seminaries joined to the two normal schools.

6. *Private* gymnasia and real schools, with the right of giving lawful certificates for one year's voluntary service instead of three years in the army. The attainments required are those needed for entering the second class of a gymnasium, or the first of a real school of the second order.

This right has as yet been granted by the government of the North German Confederation, to all public gymnasia and real schools in Saxony, to two private schools in Dresden, to one in Leipzig, and to the three public commercial schools in Dresden, Leipzig, and Chemnitz, besides, the Polytechnic schools.

a. *Krause's* Gymnasium and Real school, begun 1841, and numbering at present two hundred and eighteen pupils, of whom fifty-two are in the gymnasium, sixty-three in the real school, and one hundred and three in the three preparatory classes.

b. *Käuffer's* Real school.

c. *Albani's* Real school, with a pro-gymnasium and three elementary classes.

d. *Hölbe's* school, established in 1868, with one hundred and forty-two pupils.

e. *Hillwig's* school.

f. *Zschocke's* Real school.

The above schools take boarders and day scholars.

III. SPECIAL SCHOOLS.*

A. *Royal schools*, under the immediate care of the Minister of the Interior, except the military academy belonging to the department of war, and the normal school for gymnastics, which belongs to the department of education.

* A full report of the Special Schools of Dresden will be found in the Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on *Schools of Science as applied to National Industries.*

1. The *Polytechnic School*, founded in 1828, has four sections, one for machinists, one for civil engineering, one for chemists, and a fourth for training teachers of mathematics, natural and technical sciences. A general preparatory course prepares for the above scientific departments, which may, perhaps, be dispensed with when our real schools have a course of two years more, so as to be real schools of the first order, as they are called in Prussia. It has no department of architecture, as that was joined with the older academy of arts in Dresden before the establishment of this school. The collections receive an annual grant of 3,000 thalers, the library one of 1,500 thalers. Professors and teachers, twenty-seven.

2. The *Academy of Arts*, founded in 1764, consists of two sections—the academy for painting, drawing, sculpture, engraving, &c., and the academy of higher architecture. Pupils in 1866, one hundred and thirty-six; ninety-five of whom are artists, (forty-one not Saxons,) and forty-one architects, (ten foreigners,) taught by nineteen ordinary professors, most of them members of the academical senate. The architects who wish to pass the state examination for higher architecture (common architects are trained in the "baugewerkenschulen" —architectural schools—one of which is at Dresden) are obliged to attend the mathematical lectures in the polytechnic school. One of the "stipends for students amounts to 600 thalers a year for the purpose of traveling, and is given for two years.

3. The *Veterinary School*, founded in 1780, having five professors and two assistants, and a course of three years, in three classes. Most of the pupils, so far as the rooms allow, live in the school-house. It has a hospital for domestic animals, a zoötomical laboratory, an apothecary's shop, besides its common business used also for teaching the pupils pharmaceutics, and a workshop for shoeing horses. It has collections of veterinary instruments and model horse shoes, of zoöphysiological and zoöpathological preparations, (three thousand,) and a library of 3,000 volumes.

4. The school for *Ornamental Drawing*, joined with the polytechnic school.

5. The *Architectural* School, with five professors and one hundred and twenty-five pupils in three classes. It has the same principal as the polytechnic school, and also some of its professors, but it is a separate school, located in a different part of the town, and is designed for a different class of pupils. There are similar schools in the different districts of Saxony for training architects of the second degree, *i. e.*, master masons and carpenters. The course embraces three winters, and presupposes a good elementary education and practical service in a carpenter's or mason's shop for at least six months. They have, also, their state examination; although by the new law ordaining liberty of trade, any one will be permitted to do the work of master masons, &c., that examination will be retained, to give the choice to such as may wish to employ an approved or authorized master for their work.

6. The *Stenographic* institution is liberally endowed by the State. It has, besides other stenographers, eight teachers of the "first class," some of them "professors" and literary men, who, besides serving in the legislature, are bound to give free instruction in stenography, and to accept all applications for stenographic writings in church meetings, lecture rooms, or other public meetings.

7. The *Military* school or "cadettencorps," with one hundred and eighty cadets, and, besides the commander and four officers for instruction, is now organized with two military and nine civil professors, vieing with the best schools of this class in Northern Germany; it is, with its six classes, rather a real school, or a school of general education for future officers of the army. Some drilling in arms, and other practical exercises of the same sort, are had by all; but the graduates of the school, though designated as ensigns, receive in a practical course at a higher military school in Prussia their special and proper military training.

8. The Normal school, for *teachers of gymnastics*. It was the first of the kind in Germany, established in 1850 at an expense of 45,415 thalers; annual expenses, 1,800 thalers. The full course embraces one year, and is so arranged that the teaching pupils may also teach in elementary schools at Dresden. For such as cannot stay long at Dresden there is a course of five to six weeks. Besides, many schools have their exercises on the grounds. It has, besides the principal, twelve assistants. The school, in 1868, had twenty-seven teachers

and one hundred and forty students of the polytechnic school, two hundred and four seminarists, three hundred and sixty gymnasiasts, and eight hundred children from the elementary schools.

Though it does not strictly belong here, I may add that Dresden is the seat of a royal board of *medical affairs*, and a committee for *veterinary affairs* in the state; of a district board for *pharmaceutics;* of a *metallographic* institution, for the quick multiplication of official circulars; of a *statistical* bureau; of a *botanical* garden, once belonging to the former academy for surgeons or military physicians of the second degree, which has ceased to exist; of a district inspector of the *apothecaries'* shops; of the highest board for the *agricultural* associations in Saxony; of several committees for water, (hydraulic,) road and superior *architecture;* and of various committees for all sorts of *state examinations.* (Such as are required after some years of practical life, whereas the first examinations are held on graduating in the universities and special schools themselves.)

B. *Special schools supported by associations.*—1. The *Commercial* school, founded in 1854 by the Commercial Chamber, with six trustees and fourteen teachers. It consists of two sections; the first is for apprentices at Dresden, who, besides their business, have to attend this school for two years. By the constitution of that association, all merchants are obliged to send their apprentices to this school. The second, or higher section, having last year one hundred and twelve pupils, is for such other young men as wish to make a full course of three years, (paying 120 thalers in the first, 100 in the two following years,) and prepare them "scientifically," and without interruptions, for a commercial life. Three such schools at Dresden, Leipsic, and Chemnitz have the right of giving valid certificates which exempts for the "volunteer's" one year's service in the army.

2. The *Mechanics'* school, (Gewerbeschule,) founded in 1861 by the Trade Association in Dresden, to give young mechanics the opportunity of acquiring such knowledge as they may want. It is a kind of supplementary school, like the commercial school of the second degree; and besides the common branches, book-keeping, natural philosophy, chemistry, drawing, and modelling are taught. Time of instruction: 7½ to 9½ p. m., and on Sundays. There are four sections: two for apprentices and journeymen, one for established tradesmen, and one for women and girls. Payment three thalers a quarter for single branches; the same for six months.

3. The *Workmen* school, founded in 1861 by the Workmen's Association, (arbeiter bildungsverein.) Any member may, for a trifling payment, have instruction in writing, drawing, German composition, arithmetic, geography, stenography, French and English, book-keeping, singing, gymnastics. Tailors may have practical instruction in cutting out, and masons and carpenters in architectural drawing and modeling; they may have exercises in speaking, read the papers, and use the books of the library in the lecture rooms at any time of the day, and hear lectures on popular subjects.

4. A similar school, with like opportunities, for masons and carpenters.

5. The *German Academy* for fashions, (moden-academie,) in a splendid building erected in 1866, gives to tailors every opportunity to gain instruction in all branches necessary for a successful business. Young persons may board there and take a regular course in the languages, trigonometry, &c.; others may learn cutting out in a short term. There are collections of all kinds of models, and a library, relating to the trade, of nine hundred volumes.

The complete Academy of Fashions, with its branch establishments in Berlin, Coudon, New York, Paris, Petersburg, Vienna, &c., is called the European, with its perpetual seat at Dresden, where the founders and directory of the academy—*Müller*, Klemm, and Schmidt—reside. They publish one main and nine branch journals, of which I mention: The Australian Observer, (ten shillings,) the Observer of the Fashions, (seven dollars,) the Season of Fashion for gentlemen, (twice a year at one-half thaler,) in English; Der Telegraph, in German, but for the United States and Canada, (three and one-half dollars;) and Der Fortschritt, in German, for the United States, (five dollars,) &c., &c.

This academy, so far as I know, is without a compeer in the world, and is the work of the first-mentioned Mr. Müller. It was founded in 1850 and enlarged in 1862, with a

school-house since 1866. The four hundred and eight members in all parts of Germany, &c., pay each, annually, an assessment varying from five to two thalers.

C. *Private special schools.*—1. The conservatorium of *music*, conducted by Mr. Pudor. The teachers are mostly musicians of the King's chapel. The full course embraces three years, at 100 thalers a year. The price for one branch is 32 thalers. The rest is chiefly arranged in accordance with the elder sister, the conservatory of music in Leipzig, which is under the direction of an association.

2. A commercial school for young ladies, conducted by Mr. Heinrich.

D. *Associations and the Press.*—There are in Dresden forty-four associations for the sciences and arts, (exclusive of twenty-nine for singing and two for orchestral music,) beginning with the German Academy for Natural Sciences, the Leopoldino-Carolina, founded in 1652, which in 1862 changed its abode and has its seat at Dresden, and ending with the Shakesperian association for the improvement of the theater.

There are in all fifty-one newspapers and journals of all kinds published at Dresden, viz: eight dailies, eight weeklies, (two for teachers,) twenty-seven monthlies, and eight quarterly papers.

IV. CHARITY SCHOOLS.

This name may perhaps not be strictly applicable to all the schools mentioned under this head; but with regard to a portion of the children who are educated and supported in these schools this general term is the most suitable, whether the charitable benefactors who founded and support them be the state, or the town, or private individuals.

A. *State schools.*—1. The institution for the *blind*, founded in 1809, and since 1830 supported by the State, but raised to its present efficiency in 1838 by the legacy of 22,350 thalers from the Russian Major Olsafieff, and since then by legacies from other benefactors, in all one hundred and twenty, by which thirty-five blind children are entirely supported. The institution can now take fifty boys and forty girls. The price for one child is one hundred and thirty thalers a year; for Saxons only sixty-four thalers. Communities in Saxony have to pay, for a poor blind child they send here, thirty-two thalers, but if they be small and poor, only half that sum. At present the institution has eighty pupils, thirty-three of whom are children and forty-seven adults, with three ordinary teachers, besides two teachers of singing and orchestral music, one of gymnastics, one basket-maker, one rope-maker, and one shoemaker. The fund for such blind persons as have *left* the institution, founded in 1844, amounts at present to 36,759 thalers.

There is in Saxony, since 1862, another state school for the blind, called a preparatory school, (vorschule,) for the blind, with twenty-five pupils in 1868, at a price of 64 thalers for Saxons, or 150 thalers for foreigners.

2. The institution for the *deaf and dumb*, founded in 1828, came into the possession of its present grounds by a general collection in Saxony, secured through the present principal, Mr. Jeneke; and it received in 1838 a legacy by Olsafieff, of the same amount as the institution for the blind. Since that time the funds have greatly increased by continual legacies. It had in 1868 one hundred and sixteen pupils, with twelve teachers, at an annual expense of 14,989 thalers. Price, 10 to 75 thalers a year, paid by the parents, or the community. The course in the eight classes reaches through the same number of years.

The *Asylum for educated deaf and dumb girls* was founded by a lady in 1840, and is managed by a directory of ladies. Twelve girls have free board and lodgings for their lifetime.

The second and older institution for the deaf and dumb, in Leipzig, with one hundred children in 1868, was founded in 1778, by S. Heinicke, who is the author of the present method of teaching the deaf and dumb in Germany, and which has been introduced into many other states of Europe. It differs from the French method (adopted in America) in teaching no finger language, but to talk as well as possible. The language by *signs*, which the children know, so far as they understand it, before they enter school, is of course used by themselves and by the teachers as a means of instruction. But the special *finger*-language

is not taught, as being of no use for them in life, because with deaf-mutes they speak fluently by signs, and with other persons they cannot make any use of the finger language. Many in this way learn to *read from the lips;* their talking, indeed, sounds monotonous, and will at first startle an unaccustomed ear; but they can make themselves understood; and all those that have spoken once in their life had or still have some degree of hearing, though they are deaf to any articulated word, and so cannot be instructed in any other school, will learn to talk without such a frightful monotony.

B. *Municipal institutions.*—1. The *Orphan Asylum*, founded in 1687, burned down in the seven years' war, and then rebuilt at a cost of 25,000 thalers, had in 1867 forty-two boys and thirty-one girls, with four teachers and five other tutors, &c. There are likewise "*orphan colonies*," in three parishes near Dresden, where the orphans from Dresden live in families and attend the village school. The parish clergyman reports to the town senate. This mode of educating poor orphans has been advocated and preferred to any other by many intelligent persons, and has, no doubt, in connection with the common way, great advantages.

2. The *Reform School*, or house of correction, founded in 1828 for abandoned children and young criminals, who are instructed four hours a day, and are occupied for the rest of the day in useful work, (digging, cutting wood for sale, and other manual work for boys and girls.) The time of their detention varies according to the moral condition of the children. From the district and poor schools sixty-eight boys and girls were sent here in 1867.

3. A similar institution, for receiving either boys and girls whose parents are in confinement, and consequently cannot take care of their children, or those orphans who cannot be instantly admitted to the orphan asylum for want of room. The boys and girls, separated on two floors, stay here generally but a short time, and attend the neighboring poor school.

4. The Foundling Hospital may be here mentioned. So far, the children, up to the sixth and seventh year of their age, receive primary instruction by one teacher. It has funds of 50,000 thalers, with an income of 3,000 thalers, and can receive fifty infants.

C. *Foundations.*—1. The orphan asylum for *Catholics*, founded in 1829, chiefly for orphans of Catholic soldiers. The children attend, from the ninth year of their age, the Catholic free school, which has the same principal as the asylum.

2. The "*Pestalozzistift*," founded by the Pedagogical Association of Dresden, and by the efforts of *Blockmann*, was opened on the centennial anniversary of Pestalozzi's birthday, January 12, 1846, for orphans of teachers especially, but also for others. There were in 1868 twenty-eight inmates, ten of whom are supported by the institution, and the rest by other associations. They have six lesson-hours a day. A great number of poor children attend school, work in the garden, &c., and learn order and discipline.

The same association supports a working school for girls in another part of the town, where one hundred and twenty girls, after school hours, receive instruction in sewing, knitting, mending, &c.

3. The *Working School* for poor boys, founded in 1857 by the exertions of Dr. *Krause*, employs now two hundred boys in useful ways.

4. Four Asylums for *infants* born in wedlock, kept by the Ladies' Association, (Frauenverein.) The children are carried or led to the house by the parents in the morning at six, (in winter seven,) and are called for by them between five and eight p. m. There is a payment of six pf. per day—one and a half cents.

5. *Arnold's* foundation of 1839, who granted to any common school at Dresden the right to choose in his bookseller's shop, or to order their books, to the value of twelve thalers, as long as the firm exists.

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS FOR CHARITABLE PURPOSES.

1. The *Pedagogical* Association of Dresden, founded in 1833. It meets once a month. The foundation schools, IV, C, 2, are directed by a committee of fifteen teachers, to whom are added a like committee of fifteen ladies, (of the first families.)

2. The *Pestalozzi* Association of Saxony, for the benefit of superannuated teachers and teachers' widows, has its seat at Dresden, with *Berthelt*, the principal of a burger school, and

editor of the "Allgemeine Lehrerzeitung," as president. It numbers three thousand six hundred and ten members, (all teachers,) in one hundred and sixty-eight districts.

3. The General Association of common school teachers in Saxony, with the directory at Dresden.

4. A (private) Teachers' Association for mutual assistance in case of sickness, and for the widow of a member in case of decease.

5 and 6. Two more teachers' associations: one of private teachers at Dresden, with a committee of five male and four female teachers; another of the principals of private schools.

7. Ladies' Association, (Frauenverein,) from 1814. See the asylums for infants, IV, C, 4.

8. Association for the protection of girls, (Frauenschutz,) with a school. See I, B, 4.

9. Association "*zu Rath und That*," founded in 1802, with a school. See I, B, 5.

10. The Vincent Association, founded in 1852, (1860,) for the assistance of poor Catholics, with an asylum for poor Catholic boys and one for girls—twenty-two members.

11. The Asylum for adult deaf and dumb girls. See IV, A, 2.

12. The *Marienstiftung*, founded in 1840, for twelve poor girls who are to be servants. They are protected for two years after leaving school against bad influences, and therefore supported as assistants in infant asylums, or in families where they are instructed in women's work, and receive, if necessary, an additional education. In the first five years of their service following those two years they are subject to the control of one of the lady directors.

13. The *Schmalz-stiftung*, an association for school-assistance, in memory of the Rev. Mr. Schmalz, founded in 1826. It numbered last year two hundred contributing members, and has had annually three hundred free scholars educated in the common schools.

Our account, including the ten to twelve special schools omitted there, mentions sixty-one public and association schools, and forty-six private schools, in all one hundred and seven schools. Even with the thirty-three private schools, we should have ninety-four, including the five evening or supplementary schools, and the five regular schools in the charity institutions. Now I would say that my report is based throughout on *official* documents, and, since the number of private schools is taken from the last report of the school committee, printed in 1867, I allow that up to this time some of them may have ceased; though from 1864 to 1867 they had increased from thirty-two to forty-nine. Be it understood that I have not counted here all the charity institutions without a regular school.

Summary of Schools at Dresden—one hundred and fifty-six thousand inhabitants.

I. MUNICIPAL SCHOOLS.

1. Seventeen elementary schools—thirteen thousand seven hundred and sixty-seven children with two hundred and thirty-two teachers—cost to the town of 91,527 thalers. See I, A.
2. Two real schools—seven hundred and thirty-three pupils with thirty-four teachers—budget of the year 22,500 thalers, chiefly covered by the fees. See II, 1, *b*.
3. One gymnasium—three hundred and eighty-one pupils with nineteen teachers—budget of the year 18,712 thalers. See II, 1, *a*.
4. One orphan asylum—seventy-one children with nine teachers, &c.—and three orphan colonies, at a cost to the town of 8,135 thalers. IV, B, 1.
5. Two Pflegeanstalten, one for boys, one for girls. IV, B, 3.
6. One reform school for abandoned children or young criminals, at a cost to the town of 5,247 thalers. IV, B, 2.
7. The foundling hospital, with fifty infants and one teacher; annual income from the funds 3,000 thalers. IV, B, 4.

II. STATE OR ROYAL SCHOOLS.

1. The Polytechnic School. III, A, 1.
2. The Academy of Arts. III, A, 2.
3. The Veterinary School, (with board.) III, A, 3.
4. The School for Ornamental Drawing. III, A, 4.
5. The Architectural School, (for masons and carpenters.) III, A, 5.
6. The Stenographic Institution. III, A, 6.
7. The Military School, (*cadettencorps*.) III, A, 7.
8. The R. Teachers' Seminary or Normal School, (with board.) II, 3, *a*.
9. The Normal School for training teachers of gymnastics. III, A, 8.
10. The Institution for the Blind, (with charity funds,) the only one in Saxony. IV, A, 1.
11. The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, (with charity funds, two in Saxony.) IV, A, 2.

III. FOUNDATION OR ENDOWED SCHOOLS.

1. The Vitzthum Gymnasium, (boarding and day school.) II, 2.
2. Fletcher's Teachers' Seminary or normal school, (boarding school.) II, 3, *b*.
3. The Progymnasium for Roman Catholics. II, 4.
4. The Commercial School, of two sections. III, B, 1.
5. The Raths-töchterschule, under the direction now by the municipality. I, B, 1.
6. The Free Masons' School for boys, (boarding school with thirty free boarders.) I, B, 2.
7. The Free Masons' School for girls, (with eleven free boarders.) I, B, 3.
8. The school Zu Rath und That, four hundred and fifty children, at an expense of 4,616 thalers. I, B, 5.
9. The Evangelical Free School, four hundred children. I, B, 6.
10. The school Zum Frauenschutz, for girls. I, B, 4.
11. The two Pro-seminaries in the two normal schools. II, 5.
12. The two Practice schools in the two normal schools with sixty free scholars in each. I, B, 7.

N. B.—Only one of the Pro-seminaries and one of the Practice schools is endowed; the other two are supported by the State in the Royal Seminary.

13. The Garrison School, for sons of private soldiers. I, B, 9.
14. The school of the Bohemian community, (Protestant immigrants.) I, B, 10.
15. Four elementary schools for Roman Catholics; eight hundred and seventy-three children. I, B, 11.
16. The Josephinenstift, a free boarding school for Catholic girls. I, B, 12.
17. The Israelite School, with a grant from the State and town. I, B, 13.
18. The academy for tailors, (Moden-akademie.) III, B, 5.
19. The Sunday School, a supplementary school. I, B, 14.
20. The Mechanics' School, (gewerbschule,) a supplementary or evening school. III, B, 2.
21. The Workmen's School, (Arbeiter-bildungsverein,) an evening school. III, B, 3.
22. An Evening school for masons and carpenters. III, B, 4.
23. An elementary (evening) school for chimney sweepers. I, B, 15.
24. The Orphan Asylum for Roman Catholics. IV, C, 1.
25. The Pestalozzistift for orphans of teachers, boarding school. IV, C, 2.
26. A working school for poor boys. IV, C, 3.
27. A working school for poor girls. IV, C, 2.
28. Five asylums for infants, (Kinder-bewahranstalten.) IV, C, 4 and I, B, 5.

IV. PRIVATE SCHOOLS. I. C.

A. Institutions acknowledged as gymnasia and real schools by the Saxon and North German government:

1. Krause's gymnasium and real school. II, 6, *a*.
2. Käuffer's real school. II, 6, *b*.

B. Private schools of a similar character, all for boys:

3. Albani's school. II, 6, *c*.
4. Hölbe's school. II, 6, *d*.
5. Boehme's school. I, C, 2.
6. Böttcher's school, (for day scholars.) I, C, 1.
7. Hillwig's school. II, 6, *e*.
8. Zsoboche's real school. II, 6, *f*.

N. B.—All these schools take boarders and day scholars, and have a higher aim than the common elementary schools. The same may be said of most private schools for girls. In 1867 there were forty-six private schools with seven thousand children. See I, C.

Appendix.—Educational associations, (for charitable purposes,) thirteen; IV, C, 5. For sciences and arts, forty-four; III, C, 5.

I. Elementary public schools, thirty-two.
I *b*. Supplementary (evening) schools, five. I, B, 14, 15; III, B, 2–4.
II. Higher schools, (gymnasia, real schools, normal schools,) six public, two private.
II *b*. Pro-gymnasium one, pro-seminaries two; six private.
III. Special schools, ten.
IV. Charity institutions, nine hundred and fifteen of them, with a regular elementary school course; asylums for infants, five.
V. Private schools for boys and girls, thirty-eight.

STUTTGARDT.

STUTTGARDT, the capital of Wurtemberg, with a population of 70,000 in 1865, besides an adequate supply of elementary and secondary schools, has the following special schools:

1. A Polytechnic School, or technological university, with 50 professors, for the most thorough, scientific, and practical training for the profession of civil engineer, mechanical engineer, and architect, as well as for a mercantile and manufacturing career. The building is a noble specimen of architecture—spacious, attractive, and admirably adapted to its purpose.

2. A School of Construction, for persons connected with the building trades, presided over by a competent architect, and assisted by 28 teachers, who are all men of science and practical skill. The instruction is given in the winter, for four hours a day, so distributed in the morning, noon, and evening as to meet the conveniences of the different trades—stone-cutters, brick-layers, carpenters, plasterers, glaziers, decorators, modelers, engravers, workers in gold and silver fabrics, &c.

3. A Sunday Trade School for Apprentices, with special courses in drawing, in its application to their various occupations.

4. The Royal Central Museum of Art, in which there is a day school for drawing—in all its forms. This museum is well supplied with models, designs, and copies for students in any department of art.

CARLSRUHE.

CARLSRUHE, the capital of the Grand Duchy of Baden, with a population of 25,000 (about that of Georgetown), besides a full supply of elementary and secondary schools of the highest excellence, has—

1. A Polytechnic School, which, in respect to building, and their equipment (which cost over $250,000), and its corps of professors (45 in the different classes), challenges comparison with any other in Europe. Its 589 pupils (in 1866) were distributed in the following divisions: of engineering, occupying two years; of architecture, occupying four years; of builders, joiners, and masons, two years; of wood-craft, two years; of chemical technology, two years; of constructors of machines, two years; of commerce, one year; of postal, telegraphic, and other public service, one year.

2. A Trade School for Apprentices, who attend for two hours in the morning—6 to 10 in the winter and 5 to 9 in the summer. The attendance (304 in 1864) is obligatory, and any master who prevents or does not see that his apprentice attends is liable to a fine for each offence. The instruction is confined to arithmetic, drawing, geometry, modeling, and wood-carving.

3. A School of Gymnastics, for pupils in the public schools, and for the training of teachers for the same.

4. A School for Young Ladies, in which commercial subjects, drawing, music, and needle-work, in reference to their future occupation, are taught.

5. Carlsruhe has a horticultural and veterinary school, a public library of 90,000 volumes, a botanical garden, a public gallery of art, several *kindergartens*, and a rescue institution for neglected children.

BRUNSWICK.

BRUNSWICK, the capital of the duchy of the same name, with a population of 45,450, in addition to an adequate supply of elementary and secondary schools, has—

1. A Scientific and Technological College, the *Collegium Carolinum*, which, besides regular courses in modern languages, and their literatures, history, and political economy, has seven special divisions, viz: 1, machine construction; 2, architecture; mining and metalorogy; 4, technical chemistry; 5, pharmacy; 6, floral economy; 7, rural economy; 8, civil engineering; 9, surveying, &c.; with 25 professors and 180 technical pupils.

MUNICH.

MUNICH, the capital of Bavaria, had in 1864 a population of 167,054. From a mean outward appearance, insignificant public buildings, a low reputation for science, art, and education, this city, under liberal and systematic expenditures by the central government, has become within fifty years (since the first appropriation for art was made by the United States Government) eminent among the capitals of Europe for its public buildings, its historic monuments and memorials, its art treasures, its libraries, laboratories, and facilities for high literary, scientific, and art culture. In a mere economical view, in their relation to the industrial development of the capital, the large expenditures required to build and equip the *Pinakotheks*, with their 1,800 pictures, 300,000 engravings, and 9,000 drawings; the *Glyptothek*, with its twelve galleries of ancient sculpture, and its large collection of the works of Canova, Thorwalsden, Schadow, and other modern sculptors; the *Royal Library*, and its 800,000 volumes (four times the number in the Library of Congress); the *University*, with its five faculties, 110 professors, and the Conservatorium of Science, with their laboratories, in which Liebig continues his original research, museums of natural history, botanic garden, and arboretum; the *royal foundries* (to which our own Government is obliged to resort for casts of its bronze doors and memorial figures, even when designed by its own artists), and the public parks—all these expenditures, not extravagant in any one year, but liberal and systematic from year to year, after fifty years, have made Munich the home of artists, and professors foremost in every department of science, and have been felt in their benificence throughout all the mechanic industries and by every class of the entire kingdom. We will not attempt to describe its educational system, but can only enumerate several of its special schools of higher learning :

1. The *Ludwig-Maximilian University*, with its five faculties, theology, law, medicine, and its staff of 101 professors and teachers, and 1,288 students.

2. *The Royal Polytechnic School*, with four special schools, or sections, under its general mathematical class, viz : for architecture, a course of two years; mechanical engineering, two years; technical chemistry, two years; trade and commerce, two years; with an aggregate of forty-seven professors, and an average attendance of 350 pupils.

3. The Academy of the Fine Arts, which originated in a school of drawing in 1770, and has now four special schools, of painting, sculpture, architecture, and engraving, under the general supervision of a director (for several years the celebrated Kaulbach), five professors, each eminent as an artist in his specialty, and ten additional teachers in anatomy, perspective, geomtry, &c., the details of each subject to a staff of fifteen teachers for an average attendance of 320 pupils. The government appropriates $20,000 annually towards the salaries and special aid to poor but promising art students.

4. An Academy of Music, with fifteen teachers and ninety-four pupils.

5. A School of Mines.

6. A School of Wood-craft.

7. A School of Commerce.

8. A School of Veterinary Surgery.

HANOVER.

HANOVER, the capital of the former kingdom of Hanover, since 1866 merged in Prussia, had in 1864 a population of 79,619. Besides very excellent elementary and secondary schools, it has—

1. A Polytechnic School (with 26 professors and teachers and 440 pupils), which, without being arranged into different departments, provides special instruction for : 1, manufacturing chemists; 2, agriculturists; 3, surveyors; 4, mechanicians; 5, architects; 6, civil engineers.

2. A Trade School for Apprentices, in which instruction is given in drawing annually to over 600 workmen.

3. A School of Commerce, for special instruction in penmanship, book-keeping, and commercial transactions.

STATICTICS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The following tables are selected from a much larger number, compiled to accompany the Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on Public Schools in different countries, and inserted here to illustrate the importance attached to institutions of this grade in European systems of public instruction.

Secondary Education in the Kingdom of Saxony, 1870.

Name and character of school.	Location.	Population.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Graduates.
Kreuzschule, gymnasium	Dresden	145,728	1539	9	26	369	31
Vizthum's gymnasium	...do	....	1638	9	21	215	11
Albani's real-school and gymnasium*	...do	....	1858	12	23	72	....
Dr. Hölbe's real-school and gymnasium*	...do	....	1868	....	21	230	....
Dr. Krause's real-school and gymnasium*	...do	....	1841	11	36	200	12
First real-school	...do	....	1539–1851†	9	17	374	13
St. Ann's real-school	...do	....	1579–1850†	9	18	399	20
Dr. Hillwig's real-school*	...do	....	....	....	9	42	....
Dr. Böhme's real school*	...do	....	....	....	....	....	....
Thomas gymnasium	Leipsic	85,394	1221	9	17	357	18
Nicolai gymnasium	...do	....	1511	8	16	298	19
Barth's real-school and gymnasium*	...do	....	1863	12	17	133	....
Hauschild's real-school and gymnasium*	...do	....	1849	13	22	250	....
Gymnasium	Chemnitz	54,827	1868	4	11	61	....
Real-school	...do	....	1857	14	25	425	14
Gymnasium	Meissen	10,363	1543	6	16	147	19
Do	Bautzen	12,485	1556	8	17	203	12
Do	Freiberg	18,877	1537	7	15	197	5
Do	Grimma	5,933	1550	6	15	155	22
Do	Plauen	18,590	1517	6	} 23	{ 132	10
Real-school	...do	....	1854	6		{ 190	6
Gymnasium	Zittau	14,290	1586	8	} 23	{ 155	6
Real-school	...do	....	1855	8		{ 235	9
Gymnasium	Zwickau	22,432	1220	9	18	258	12
Real-school	...do	....	1868	7	12	165	6
Albertinum; real-school*	Burgstädt	3,700	....	....	....	....	....
Real-school	Reichenbach	10,996	1849	6	11	158	....
Do	Annaborg	10,537	1843	14	18	324	16
12 gymnasia	....	....	....	89	202	2,647	165
11 real-schools	....	....	....	73	136	2,312	84
5 real-schools and gymnasia combined	....	....	....	48	119	885	12
Total, (28 schools of any kind)	....	....	....	210	457	6,844	261

NOTE.—Besides the schools enumerated above, there are a large number of burgher schools in many respects equal to real-schools, but conducted under the primary school system.

* Conducted at the pecuniary responsibility of the director, but according to the programme of the public institutions of the same grade.

† The first number gives the year of foundation of the institution as a gymnasium, and the second the year when it was changed to a real-school.

TABLE IX.—*Secondary Education in the eight Thuringian States.*

[Total area, 4,782 English square miles; total population in 1864, 1,034,969.]

Country and town.	Population.	Gymnasia.						Real-schools.					Higher burgher schools.					Primary education.	
		Year of foundation.	Class.		Scholars.	Teachers.	Vols. in library.	Year of foundation.	Class.		Scholars.	Teachers.	Year of foundation.	Class.		Scholars.	Teachers.	Schools.	Scholars.
			Male.	Female.					Male.	Female.				Male.	Female.				
SAXE-WEIMAR-EISENACH.																			
Eisenach	12,072	1544	1	6	165	12	......	1843	1	6	170	11	1851	1	14	700	17	......	......
Weimar	14,279	1712	1	9	237	16	7,000	1856	1	6	250	12	......	...	...	......	...	......	......
Apolda	8,731	......	...	...	......	...	......	1859	1	4	88	6	......	...	...	......	...	......	......
Jena	7,233	......	...	...	......	...	......	......	...	...	......	...	1851	1	13	730	13	......	......
Neustadt	4,841	......	...	...	......	...	......	......	...	...	......	...	1856	1	3	87	5	......	......
Total	......	......	2	15	402	28	7,000	......	3	16	500	29	......	3	30	1,517	35	678	45,206
SAXE-ALTENBURG.																			
Altenburg	17,977	1529	1	5	174	12	4,400	......	...	...	......	...	1860	1	7	191	11	......	......
Eisenberg*	4,971	......	...	...	......	...	......	......	...	...	......	...	1688	1	4	147	7	......	......
Total	......	......	1	5	174	12	4,400	......	...	...	......	...	......	2	11	338	18	176	21,798
SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA.																			
Coburg	10,807	1605	1	6	101	12	11,000	1848	1	6	222	12	......	1	24	1,254	27	......	......
Gotha	17,955	1524	1	16	631	23	14,000	......	...	...	......	...	......	...	...	......	...	......	......
Ohrdruf*	5,254	......	...	...	......	...	......	......	...	...	......	...	1564	1	6	227	11	......	......
Total	......	......	2	22	732	35	25,000	......	1	6	222	12	......	2	30	1,481	38	158	17,610

SAXE-MEININGEN-HILDBURGHAUSEN.																			
Hildburghausen	4,395	1812	1	6	105	10	....	....	...	...	......	...	......	...	...	......	...	......	....
Meiningen	7,228	1835	1	7	205	14	....	1838	1	4	138	10	......	...	...	......	...	......	....
Saalfeldt†	5,077	......	...	...	......	...	....	1837	1	6	152	9	1856	1	2	50	7	......	....
Total	....	......	2	13	210	24	....	......	2	10	290	19	......	1	2	50	7	285	29,250
REUSS-GREIZ.																			
Greiz	11,047	......	...	...	......	...	....	1863	1	12	143	15	1735	1	13	647	11	.....	....
Total	11,047	......	...	...	......	...	....	......	1	12	143	15	......	1	13	647	11	80	7,000
REUSS-SCHLEIZ.																			
Gera	15,363	1608	1	7	190	14	8,000	1867	1	18	365	20	......	...	...	......	...	......	....
Schleiz	4,875	1656	1	5	98	13	1,000	......	...	...	......	...	......	...	...	......	...	......	....
Total	....	......	2	12	288	26	9,000	......	1	18	365	20	......	...	...	......	...	96	8,850
SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT.																			
Rudolstadt	6,436	......	1	6	100	16	5,580	......	1	2	33	...	......	...	...	......	...	......	....
Total	6,436	......	1	6	100	16	5,580	......	1	2	33	...	......	...	...	......	...	......	....
SCHWARZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN.																			
Arnstadt†	7,269	1538	1	6	124	11	7,170	1857	1	5	142	9	......	...	...	......	...	......	....
Sondershausen	5,873	1829	1	5	114	11	....	1835	1	6	202	10	......	2	17	726	28	......	....
Total	....	......	2	11	238	22	7,170	......	2	11	344	19	......	2	17	726	28	145	14,210
Grand total, (19 towns)	....	......	12	84	2,204	163	58,150	......	11	75	1,897	114	......	11	103	4,759	137	1,736	155,490

* Including one progymnasium.

† Including one higher girls' school.

TABLE X.—*Secondary Education in the Kingdom of Bavaria, 1868-'70.*

Location.	Population.	Name and character of school.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Teachers.	Scholars.
Abensberg	1, 300	Latin School	1819	1	7	......
Annweiler	2, 768	......do	1836	4	8	61
Amberg	12, 039	Gymnasium and Latin School combined.	......	8	18	275
Anspach	12, 973	......do	1529	8	20	229
Aschaffenburg	10, 676	......do	1814	8	19	225
Amorbach	2, 361	Latin School	1837	4	6	73
Augsburg	49, 332	Catholic Gymnasium	1828	12	36	408
		Protestant Gymnasium	1827	8	15	143
		Real Gymnasium	1864	......	11	44
Burghausen	2, 500	Latin School	1809	4	8	53
Bergzabern	2, 534	......do	1836	4	6	33
Bamberg	25, 240	Gymnasium and Latin School.	......	10	28	477
Bayreuth	19, 208	......do	1664	9	21	279
Dürkheim	5, 551	Latin School	1821	4	9	95
Dinkelsbühl	5, 157	......do	1830	4	5	20
Dillingen	5, 391	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1549	8	18	133
Edenkoben	5, 140	Latin School	1837	4	8	57
Eichstädt	7, 549	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1839	8	18	205
Erlangen	11, 202	......do	1745	8	17	140
Freising	7, 624	......do	1827	8	16	250
Frankenthal	6, 496	Latin School	1817	4	11	92
Fruchtwangen	2, 350	......do	......	3	5	13
Fürth	21, 054	......do	1863	8	14	297
Germersheim	9, 524	......do	1827	4	9	71
Grünstadt	3, 800	......do	1819	4	9	92
Günzburg	3, 511	......do	......	4	6	......
Hof	13, 146	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1546	8	18	132
Hersbruck	2, 000	Latin School	1830	4	7	24
Hammelburg	2, 778	......do	1842	4	......	......
Hassfurt	1, 950	......do	1853	4	......	......
Ingolstadt	19, 418	......do	1863	4	11	74
Kehlheim	2, 774	......do	1851	......	......	......
Kaiserslautern	13, 592	......do	1817	4	9	92
Kirchheimbolanden	2, 956	......do	1836	4	10	79
Kusel	2, 601	......do	......	4	8	55
Kulmbach	4, 128	......do	1824	......	......	......
Kitzingen	5, 898	......do	1843	4	4	16
Kempten	10, 892	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1804	8	18	150
Kaufbeuren	4, 741	Latin School	1820	4	......	......
Landshut	12, 873	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1629	8	18	222
Landau	12, 305	Latin School	1817	4	......	......
Lohr	4, 103	......do	1838	4	10	52
Lindau	5, 248	......do	......	2	3	20
Munich	167, 054	Wilhelm's Gymnasium	1559	9	27	282
		Ludwig's Gymnasium	1824	8	22	289
		Maximilian's Gymnasium	1849	8	27	342
		Real Gymnasium	1864	4	12	94
		Latin School	1239	4	6	150
Mühldorf	1, 650	......do	1848	......	......	......
Metten	1, 200	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1837	11	28	375
Münnerstadt	1, 650	......do	1660	8	16	177
Miltenberg	3, 400	Latin School	1817	4	6	27
Memmingen	6, 973	......do	1408	4	9	39
Neustadt on the Haardt	8, 090	......do	1578	4	9	52
		Gymnasium and Latin School.	1526	10	22	442
Nuremberg	70, 492	Real Gymnasium	1864	......	......	......
Neustadt	1, 500	Latin School	1567	......	......	......
Neuburg	8, 369	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1664	8	28	192
Nördlingen	6, 628	Latin School	1543	5	9	75
Oberdorf	1, 874	......do	1817	2	1	6
Oettingen	2, 807	......do	1563	8	4	40
Partenkirchen	1, 257	......do	1822	......	......	......

Education in Bavaria, &c.—Continued.

Location.	Population.	Name and character of school.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Teachers.	Scholars.
Passau	13, 433	Gymnasium and Latin School	1611	8	19	323
Pirmasens	7, 971	Latin School	1836	4	9	81
Pappenheim	1, 883	......do	1611	2	......	......
Ratisbon	29, 893	Gymnasium and Latin School	1811	11	25	453
		Real Gymnasium	1864	4	10	......
		Latin School	1835	2	5	81
Rothenburg	5, 074	......do	1829	4	9	36
Scheyern	900	Gymnasium and Latin School	1840	8	11	153
Straubing	11, 034	......do	1803	8	19	194
Speier	13, 699	......do	1817	8	18	334
		Real Gymnasium	1864	4	9	54
Schwabach	6, 817	Latin School	1821	4	......	......
Schweinfurt	9, 328	Gymnasium and Latin School	1834	8	17	136
Sonthofen	2, 511	Latin School	1781	2	1	8
Uffenheim	1, 860	......do	1500	4	......	......
Weiden	2, 5:0	......do	1836	1	......	......
Wunsiedel	3, 520	......do	1830	4	6	48
Weissenburg	5, 305	......do	1536	4	6	45
Windsbach	1, 320	......do	1836	......	......	......
Windsheim	3, 200	......do	1815	5	5	29
Würzburg	41, 082	Gymnasium and Latin School	1561	10	28	382
		Real Gymnasium	1864	4	9	54
Wallerstein	1, 700	Latin School	1729	4	3	16
Weissenhorn	1, 680	......do	1821	......	......	......
Zweibrücken	9, 155	Gymnasium and Latin School	1558	8	16	231
29 gymnasia			......	250	613	7, 758
6 real-schools*			......	......	51	216
52 Latin schools			......	169	248	2, 083
Total, (in 87 secondary schools of every kind)			......	419	912	9, 887

* The grand total does not include the ten lycea, and which sometimes classed with the universities. The Latin schools are incomplete gymnasia, having but four instead of the usual number of eight classes.

Table of Secondary Education in Prussia, according to Provinces, in 1868.

[From Dr. Wiese's Exhibit, second issue, official publication.]

Provinces.	Population.	GYMNASIA.							PROGYMNASIA.							REAL-SCHOOLS OF THE FIRST CLASS.						
		No. of gymnasia.	Teachers.			Scholars.			No. of progymnasia.	Teachers.			Scholars.			No. of schools.	Teachers.			Scholars.		
			In gymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In gymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.		In progymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In progymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.		In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.
Prussia	3,090,960	22	290	27	317	6,584	742	7,326	....	....	....	....	......	......	......	9	117	11	128	2,424	302	2,726
Brandenburg	2,716,000	26	437	26	463	7,733	1,391	9,124	1	7	4	11	100	85	185	11	171	27	198	3,420	727	4,147
Pomerania	1,445,640	13	184	15	199	3,458	560	4,018	2	15	3	18	223	60	283	4	50	5	55	1,014	197	1,211
Silesia	3,585,760	24	347	24	371	7,947	805	8,752	....	....	....	....	......	......	......	7	110	6	116	2,220	211	2,431
Posen	1,537,350	10	148	8	156	3,209	258	3,467	1	9	....	9	192	......	192	4	61	6	67	1,285	149	1,434
Saxony	2,067,070	25	332	15	347	5,278	221	5,499	1	3	....	3	27	......	27	6	104	9	113	2,133	390	2,523
Westphalia	1,707,730	16	191	4	195	3,361	132	3,493	6	37	....	37	431	......	431	8	80	....	80	1,181	......	1,181
Rhenish Prussia	3,520,000	24	348	15	363	5,862	335	6,197	12	89	....	89	1,087	......	1,087	11	148	12	160	2,503	405	2,908
Schleswig-Holstein	981,720	10	127	7	134	1,349	263	1,612	....	....	....	....	......	......	......	....	....	....	....	......	......	......
Hanover	1,937,640	17	204	20	224	2,620	491	3,111	1	6	....	6	89	......	89	3	39	6	45	600	127	727
Hessen-Nassau	1,379,750	10	130	....	130	1,707	......	1,707	1	9	....	9	70	......	70	1	9		9	54		54
Total	23,900,620	197	2,747	161	2,908	49,108	5,198	54,306	25	173	7	180	2,219	145	2,364	64	889	82	971	16,834	2,508	19,342

Provinces.	REAL-SCHOOLS OF THE SECOND CLASS.							HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOLS.							INSTITUTIONS CONSIDERED AS HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOLS.			TOTALS.			Proportion of secondary schools to inhabitants.
		Teachers.			Scholars.				Teachers.			Scholars.									
	No. of real-schools.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	No. of schools.	In higher burgher schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In higher burgher schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	No. of such institutions.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Second'y sch'ls of any kind.	Teachers.	Scholars.	
Prussia	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	36	4	40	540	179	719	1	10	155	37	495	10, 926	83, 539
Brandenburg	5	67	7	74	1, 106	298	1, 404	5	47	7	54	649	185	834	2	11	247	50	744	15, 941	54, 320
Pomerania	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	9	2	11	172	53	225	....	....	....	21	283	5, 737	68, 840
Silesia	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	7	....	7	121	....	121	1	11	170	33	505	11, 494	108, 659
Posen	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	15	232	5, 093	102, 490
Saxony	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	22	4	26	282	74	356	....	....	....	35	489	8, 405	59, 059
Westphalia	1	12	1	13	117	10	127	1	6	....	6	65	....	65	2	16	283	34	347	5, 580	50, 227
Rhenish Prussia	1	13	2	15	240	65	305	11	94	6	100	1, 324	190	1, 514	2	14	165	61	741	12, 236	57, 704
Schleswig-Holstein	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	....	221	14	134	1, 833	70, 122
Hanover	1	11	1	12	165	12	177	1	9	....	9	134	....	134	18	124	2, 310	41	420	6, 548	47, 259
Hessen-Nassau	5	67	15	82	886	398	1, 284	2	28	7	35	464	296	760	8	76	1, 221	27	350	5, 156	51, 102
Total	14	170	26	196	2, 647	783	3, 430	31	257	30	287	3, 751	977	4, 728	38	262	4, 772	368	4, 740	88, 949	65, 134

Table of Secondary Education in Prussia, according to Provinces, in 1868.

[From Dr. Wiese's Exhibit, second issue, official publication.]

Provinces.	Population.	GYMNASIA.							PROGYMNASIA.							REAL-SCHOOLS OF THE FIRST CLASS.						
		No. of gymnasia.	Teachers.			Scholars.			No. of progymnasia.	Teachers.			Scholars.			No. of schools.	Teachers.			Scholars.		
			In gymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In gymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.		In progymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In progymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.		In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.
Prussia	3,090,960	22	290	27	317	6,584	742	7,326	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	9	117	11	128	2,424	302	2,726
Brandenburg	2,716,000	26	437	26	463	7,733	1,391	9,124	1	7	4	11	100	85	185	11	171	27	198	3,420	727	4,147
Pomerania	1,445,640	13	184	15	199	3,458	560	4,018	2	15	3	18	223	60	283	4	50	5	55	1,014	197	1,211
Silesia	3,585,760	24	347	24	371	7,947	805	8,752	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	7	110	6	116	2,220	231	2,451
Posen	1,537,350	10	148	8	156	3,209	258	3,467	1	9	....	9	192	....	192	4	61	6	67	1,285	149	1,434
Saxony	2,067,070	25	332	15	347	5,278	221	5,499	1	3	....	3	27	....	27	6	104	9	113	2,133	390	2,523
Westphalia	1,707,730	16	191	4	195	3,361	132	3,493	6	37	....	37	431	....	431	8	80	....	80	1,181	....	1,181
Rhenish Prussia	3,520,000	24	348	15	363	5,862	335	6,197	12	89	....	89	1,087	....	1,087	11	148	12	160	2,563	405	2,968
Schleswig-Holstein	981,720	10	127	7	134	1,349	263	1,612	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Hanover	1,937,640	17	204	20	224	2,620	491	3,111	1	6	....	6	89	....	89	3	39	6	45	560	167	727
Hessen-Nassau	1,379,750	10	139	....	139	1,767	....	1,767	1	9	....	9	70	....	70	1	9	....	9	54	....	54
Total	23,969,620	197	2,747	161	2,908	49,168	5,198	54,366	25	173	7	180	2,219	145	2,364	64	889	82	971	16,854	2,568	19,422

Provinces.	Real-schools of the second class.							Higher burgher schools.							Institutions considered as higher burgher schools.			Totals.			Proportion of secondary schools to inhabitants.
		Teachers.			Scholars.				Teachers.			Scholars.									
	No. of real-schools.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	No. of schools.	In higher burgher schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In higher burgher schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	No. of such institutions.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Second'y sch'ls of any kind.	Teachers.	Scholars.	
Prussia	......	......	...	......	......	......	......	5	36	4	40	540	179	719	1	10	155	37	495	10, 926	83, 539
Brandenburg	5	67	7	74	1, 106	298	1, 404	5	47	7	54	649	185	834	2	11	247	50	744	15, 941	54, 320
Pomerania	......	......	...	......	......	......	......	2	9	2	11	172	53	225	...	......	......	21	283	5, 737	68, 840
Silesia	......	......	...	......	......	......	......	1	7	....	7	121	......	121	1	11	170	33	505	11, 494	108, 659
Posen	......	......	...	......	......	......	......	...	...	....	......	......	......	......	...	......	......	15	232	5, 093	102, 490
Saxony	......	......	...	......	......	......	......	3	22	4	26	282	74	356	...	......	......	35	489	8, 405	59, 059
Westphalia	1	12	1	13	117	10	127	1	6	....	6	65	......	65	2	16	283	34	347	5, 580	50, 227
Rhenish Prussia	1	13	2	15	240	65	305	11	94	6	100	1, 324	190	1, 514	2	14	165	61	741	12, 236	57, 704
Schleswig-Holstein	......	......	...	......	......	......	......	...	...	....	......	......	......	......	4	......	221	14	134	1, 833	70, 122
Hanover	1	11	1	12	165	12	177	1	9	....	9	134	......	134	18	124	2, 310	41	420	6, 548	47, 259
Hessen-Nassau	5	67	15	82	886	398	1, 284	2	28	7	35	464	296	760	8	76	1, 221	27	350	5, 156	51, 102
Total	14	170	26	196	2, 647	783	3, 430	31	257	30	287	3, 751	977	4, 728	38	262	4, 772	368	4, 740	88, 949	65, 134

Secondary Education in the Grand Duchy of Baden.

[Area, 5,904 Eng. sq. miles; pop., 1864, 1,428,090. Total number of secondary schools, 42; scholars, 5,834; teachers, 399. Primary schools, 2,157; scholars, 200,000; teachers, 2,500.]

Location.	Population.	LYCEUMS, (7.)							GYMNASIA, (6.)							HIGHER BURGHER, (26.)				PÆDAGOGIEN, (3.)		
		Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Annual budget.	Volumes in library.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Annual budget.	Volumes in library.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.
							Florins.							*Florins.*								
1. Constans	8,516	1610	9	231	30	13	17,000	14,000								1834	5	127	8			
2. Freiburg	19,167	1839	9	359	33	17										1841	6	170	10			
3. Heidelberg	17,666	1808	9	293	11	15	14,000									1835	6	225	14			
4. Karlsruhe	30,555	1583	15	615	36	23										1863	7	380	17			
5. Mannheim	30,555	1807	6	251	7	20										1840	6	147	17			
6. Rastatt	7,580	1808	6	169	17	16	24,000															
7. Wertheim	3,383	1604	6	122	15	13	14,000															
8. Bischofsheim	2,600								1629	7	125	13	13		2,900							
9. Bruchsal	8,980								1753	5	159	7	13	10,682								
10. Donaueschingen	3,047									5	88	5	9									
11. Lahr	7,453								1804	12	83		10		1,137							
12. Offenburg	5,196									5	114	8	10									
13. Weinheim	6,289									6			12		1,750							
14. Durlach	5,794																			4	66	8
15. Lörrach	5,162																			5	119	9
16. Pforzheim	16,320															1839	5	159	6	4	103	6
17. Baden Baden	8,856															1837	6	119	11			
18. Bretten	3,460															1833	4	83	6			
19. Buchen	2,500															1845	5	75	5			
20. Eberbach	4,191															1834	3	81	3			
21. Emmendingen	2,000															1840	4	62	5			
22. Eppingen	2,925																3	103	7			
23. Ettenheim	2,897															1841	6	167	10			
24. Ettlingen	5,200															1842	4	64	6			
25. Gernsbach	2,203															1860	4	34	4			
26. Hornberg	1,100															1839	2	35	2			
27. Kork	1,260															1812	1	17	3			
28. Ladenburg	2,300															1863	5	163	9			
29. Mosbach	2,700															1842	5	102	6			
30. Müllheim	2,750															1839	5	126	8			
31. Rheinbischofsheim	1,800															1800	2	48	2			
32. Schopfheim	2,232															1839	5	81	6			
33. Sinsheim	3,000															1842	3	112	7			
34. Ueberlingen	3,300															1841	5	63	8			
35. Villingen	4,442															1839	5	61	8			
36. Waldshut	1,530															1810	3	42	4			

Statistics of Secondary Education in Hesse-Darmstadt.

Location.	Population.	GYMNASIA, (6.)							REAL-SCHOOLS, (10.)						
		Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Annual budget.	Vols. in library.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Graduates.	Annual budget.	Vols. in library.
							Florins.							*Florins.*	
1. Bensheim	4,757	1686	6	100	4	9	10,000	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
2. Büdingen	2,428	1601	6	71	7	10	8,224	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
3. Darmstadt	28,526	1629	7	321	24	17	....	....	1822	6	285	13	23	12,290	....
4. Giessen	9,186	....	6	189	23	13	....	....	1837	5	124	11	9	10,100	....
5. Mainz	49,763	....	8	300	11	24	....	....	1867	6	357	16	12	16,000	....
6. Worms	11,308	1804	4	101	8	15	....	....	1836	4	88	....	....	....	....
7. Alsfeld	3,659	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1861	5	103	5	....	4,000	....
8. Alzey	5,249	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1841	7	217	14	....	10,300	1,200
9. Bingen	5,584	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1839	4	112	10	10	6,300	3,500
10. Friedberg	4,657	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1850	4	125	7	3	7,000	900
11. Michelstadt	3,334	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1834	5	149	8	5	4,325	940
12. Offenbach	16,681	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1834	11	327	19	2	15,500	1,900
Total	145,132	....	37	1,082	77	88	....	....	....	57	1,887	103	14	....	....

[Area, 3,240 English square miles; population in 1864, 816,902. Total number of secondary schools of any kind, 16; scholars, 2,969; teachers, 152. Primary schools, 1,756; scholars, 150,568; teachers, 1,382.]

Secondary Education in Wurtemberg.

Location.	Population.	GYMNASIA, (7.)							LYCEUMS, (6.)				HIGHER REAL-SCHOOLS.			
		Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Annual budget.	Vols. in library.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.
							Florins.									
1. Ehingen	3,268	...	10	124	20	14	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
2. Ellwangen	3,753	1817	10	213	10	18	...	15,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
3. Heilbronn	16,439	1620	14	436	11	25	25,700	8,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
4. Rottweil	4,529	1307	10	100	11	17	12,623	14,000	...	...	...	...	1838	3	80	11
5. Stuttgart	19,084	1686	10	779	24	49	52,161	...	...	...	...	...	1796	31	1,100	46
6. Tübingen	8,734	1855	10	244	11	21	16,000	1,500	...	...	...	...	1823	4	117	11
7. Ulm	23,077	1613	14	392	6	24	...	...	...	...	...	...	1844	...	...	...
8. Ludwigsburg	11,620	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1721	...	...	...	1827	...	...	...
9. Oehringen	3,400	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1547	7	92	8	...	...	...	...
10. Ravensburg	7,223	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1809	7	...	...	...	...	...	...
11. Reutlingen	15,586	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5	162	11	1810	8	308	14
12. Esslingen	15,591	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8	290	9	1825	7	212	10
13. Cannstadt	8,087	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1859	4	30	10	...	...	...	...
14. Hall	7,245	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1838	5	172	...
Total	197,636	...	78	2,278	93	168	...	...	...	31	574	38	...	58	1,989	92

[Area, 7,840 English square miles; population in 1864, 1,747,328. Total number of secondary schools of any kind, 21; scholars, 4,841; teachers, 298. Primary schools, 2,481; scholars, 230,000; teachers, 3,778.]

TABLE I.—*Primary and Secondary Education in the Cities and Towns of Norway, January 1, 1868.*

City or town.	Population.	Elementary schools.						Higher elementary schools.*				Secondary schools.†				
		Schools.	Teachers, male.	Teachers, female.	Scholars.	Income.‡	Expenses.‡	Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Expenses.‡	Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Income.‡	Expenses.‡
1. Aalesund	3,452	2	5	2	573	3,622	2,409	1	64	8	1,188	1	97	10	3,920	3,846
2. Arendal	3,658	1	3	....	215	898	832	....	....	....	....	1	124	11	4,706	4,784
3. Bergen	27,703	12	23	13	2,405	12,331	12,331	....	....	....	....	1	187	17	12,923	11,416
4. Brevig	2,162	1	3	2	301	873	596	1	77	3	989	....	....	....	....	....
5. Christiania	57,382	4	45	18	5,276	22,242	22,242	1	369	22	6,964	1	136	13	13,989	12,961
6. Christiansand	10,876	12	11	3	1,076	3,727	3,727	1	170	11	2,000	1	129	12	6,289	6,758
7. Christiansund	5,709	8	11	3	1,035	3,910	3,159	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
8. Drammen	13,032	2	13	....	1,413	5,436	4,804	....	....	....	....	1	252	22	9,821	9,846
9. Drobak	1,662	1	2	....	247	380	380	1	40	3	820	1	79	10	4,062	4,045
10. Egersund	2,145	1	5	....	400	961	937	1	44	4	1,149	....	....	....	....	....
11. Farsund	1,416	1	2	....	187	547	518	1	45	3	746	....	....	....	....	....
12. Flekkefjord	1,622	1	2	....	172	480	480	1	54	3	821	....	....	....	....	....
13. Frederickshald	9,219	1	9	....	1,340	2,983	2,983	....	....	....	....	1	174	12	6,273	6,248
14. Frederickstad	4,820	1	9	3	801	2,226	2,226	1	140	10	3,700	....	....	....	....	....
15. Grimstad	1,501	1	2	....	166	386	386	1	102	6	2,455	....	....	....	....	....
16. Hammer	1,868	1	2	1	319	638	638	1	53	4	1,070	....	....	....	....	....
17. Hammerfest	1,547	1	3	....	188	1,407	1,311	1	52	4	1,380	....	....	....	....	....
18. Haugesund	3,321	1	3	....	367	1,981	1,989	1	51	3	980	....	....	....	....	....
19. Holmestrand	2,084	1	3	....	234	500	500	1	46	4	1,220	....	....	....	....	....
20. Horten	6,192	2	9	....	1,112	2,819	2,721	1	109	9	2,321	....	....	....	....	....
21. Kongsberg	5,011	4	7	4	1,038	2,676	2,394	....	....	....	....	1	67	8	3,597	3,805
22. Kragerœ	4,089	3	5	2	479	1,452	1,270	1	47	3	784	....	....	....	....	....
23. Laurvig	6,327	7	7	....	974	1,862	1,862	1	123	4	370	1	58	6	3,033	3,038
24. Levanger	1,017	1	2	....	149	463	439	1	69	5	1,188	....	....	....	....	....
25. Mandal	3,842	2	6	....	489	1,278	1,278	1	123	9	2,297	....	....	....	....	....
26. Molde	1,691	1	2	....	275	485	467	....	....	....	....	1	72	9	4,521	4,556
27. Moss	4,129	1	4	1	552	1,368	1,368	1	83	6	1,620	....	....	....	....	....
28. Namsos	1,189	1	3	1	154	300	300	1	14	1	408	....	....	....	....	....
29. Oesterusöer	2,335	1	3	....	408	623	621	1	45	3	830	....	....	....	....	....
30. Porsgrund	2,774	2	5	....	325	1,742	1,085	1	80	3	700	....	....	....	....	....
31. Sandnœs	1,000	1	2	....	175	358	358	1	14	1	100	....	....	....	....	....
32. Sarpsborg	2,989	1	3	2	352	840	840	1	100	5	1,833	....	....	....	....	....
33. Skien	4,776	2	7	1	636	1,871	1,772	1	9	1	100	1	118	12	6,340	6,186
34. Stavanger	16,647	3	17	5	2,560	5,579	5,578	....	....	....	....	1	308	20	10,295	10,047
35. Tönsberg	4,541	1	5	1	471	4,165	3,438	1	161	7	2,226	....	....	....	....	....
36. Tromsöe	4,073	2	3	....	355	979	979	1	66	6	1,048	1	106	11	4,610	4,783
37. Trondhjem	19,287	8	28	7	2,526	13,871	12,075	....	....	....	....	1	129	13	9,379	8,374

* Burgher schools with real-classes. † Gymnasia and real-schools. ‡ In specie dalers $1.,

TABLE IX.—*Secondary Education in the eight Thuringian States.*

[Total area, 4,782 English square miles; total population in 1864, 1,034,969.]

COUNTRY AND TOWN.	Population.	GYMNASIA. Year of foundation.	GYMNASIA. Class. Male.	GYMNASIA. Class. Female.	GYMNASIA. Scholars.	GYMNASIA. Teachers.	GYMNASIA. Vols. in library.	REAL-SCHOOLS. Year of foundation.	REAL-SCHOOLS. Class. Male.	REAL-SCHOOLS. Class. Female.	REAL-SCHOOLS. Scholars.	REAL-SCHOOLS. Teachers.	HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOLS. Year of foundation.	HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOLS. Class. Male.	HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOLS. Class. Female.	HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOLS. Scholars.	HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOLS. Teachers.	PRIMARY EDUCATION. Schools.	PRIMARY EDUCATION. Scholars.
SAXE-WEIMAR-EISENACH.																			
Eisenach	12,072	1544	1	6	165	12	......	1843	1	6	170	11	1851	1	14	700	17	......	......
Weimar	14,279	1712	1	9	237	16	7,000	1856	1	6	250	12	......	...	...	......	...	......	......
Apolda	8,731	......	...	...	......	...	......	1859	1	4	88	6	......	...	...	......	...	......	......
Jena	7,233	......	...	...	......	...	......	......	...	...	......	...	1851	1	13	730	13	......	......
Neustadt	4,841	......	...	...	......	...	......	......	...	...	......	...	1856	1	3	87	5	......	......
Total	......	......	2	15	402	28	7,000	......	3	16	500	29	......	3	30	1,517	35	678	45,266
SAXE-ALTENBURG.																			
Altenburg	17,977	1529	1	5	174	12	4,400	......	...	...	......	...	1860	1	7	191	11	......	......
Eisenberg*	4,971	......	...	...	......	...	......	......	...	...	......	...	1688	1	4	147	7	......	......
Total	......	......	1	5	174	12	4,400	......	...	...	......	...	......	2	11	338	18	176	21,798
SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA.																			
Coburg	10,807	1605	1	6	101	12	11,000	1848	1	6	222	12	......	1	24	1,254	27	......	......
Gotha	17,955	1524	1	16	631	23	14,000	......	...	...	......	...	......	...	...	......	...	......	......
Ohrdruf*	5,254	......	...	...	......	...	......	......	...	...	......	...	1564	1	6	227	11	......	......
Total	......	......	2	22	732	35	25,000	......	1	6	222	12	......	2	30	1,481	38	158	17,610

SAXE-MEININGEN-HILDBURGHAUSEN.																			
Hildburghausen	4,395	1812	1	6	105	10	....	......	....	....	......	....	......	....	....	......	....	......	....
Meiningen	7,228	1835	1	7	205	14	....	1838	1	4	138	10	......	....	....	......	....	......	....
Saalfeld†	5,077	......	....	....	......	....	....	1837	1	6	152	9	1856	1	2	50	7	......	....
Total	....	......	2	13	210	24	....	......	2	10	290	19	......	1	2	50	7	285	29,250
REUSS-GREIZ.																			
Greiz	11,047	......	....	....	......	....	....	1863	1	12	143	15	1735	1	13	647	11	......	....
Total	11,047	......	....	....	......	....	....	......	1	12	143	15	......	1	13	647	11	80	7,000
REUSS-SCHLEIZ.																			
Gera	15,363	1608	1	7	190	14	8,000	1867	1	18	365	20	......	....	....	......	....	......	....
Schleiz	4,875	1656	1	5	98	12	1,000	......	....	....	......	....	......	....	....	......	....	......	....
Total	....	......	2	12	288	26	9,000	......	1	18	365	20	......	....	....	......	....	96	8,850
SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT.																			
Rudolstadt	6,436	......	1	6	100	16	5,580	......	1	2	33	....	......	....	....	......	....	......	....
Total	6,436	......	1	6	100	16	5,580	......	1	2	33	....	......	....	....	......	....	......	....
SCHWARZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN.																			
Arnstadt†	7,269	1538	1	6	124	11	7,170	1857	1	5	142	9	......	....	....	......	....	......	....
Sondershausen	5,873	1829	1	5	114	11	....	1835	1	6	202	10	......	2	17	726	28	......	....
Total	....	......	2	11	238	22	7,170	......	2	11	344	19	......	2	17	726	28	145	14,210
Grand total, (19 towns)	....	......	12	84	2,204	163	58,150	......	11	75	1,897	114	......	11	103	4,759	137	1,736	155,490

* Including one progymnasium.

† Including one higher girls' school.

TABLE X.—*Secondary Education in the Kingdom of Bavaria*, 1868–'70.

Location.	Population.	Name and character of school.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Teachers.	Scholars.
Abensberg	1, 300	Latin School	1819	1	7	......
Annweiler	2, 768	......do	1836	4	8	61
Amberg	12, 039	Gymnasium and Latin School combined.	......	8	18	275
Anspach	12, 973	......do	1529	8	20	229
Aschaffenburg	10, 676	......do	1814	8	19	225
Amorbach	2, 361	Latin School	1807	4	6	75
Augsburg	49, 332	Catholic Gymnasium	1828	12	36	408
		Protestant Gymnasium	1827	8	15	143
		Real Gymnasium	1864	......	11	44
Burghausen	2, 500	Latin School	1809	4	8	53
Bergzabern	2, 534	......do	1836	4	6	33
Bamberg	25, 240	Gymnasium and Latin School.	......	10	28	477
Bayreuth	19, 208	......do	1664	9	21	279
Dürkheim	5, 551	Latin School	1821	4	9	95
Dinkelsbühl	5, 157	......do	1830	4	5	20
Dillingen	5, 391	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1549	8	18	133
Edenkoben	5, 140	Latin School	1837	4	8	57
Eichstädt	7, 549	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1839	8	18	205
Erlangen	11, 202	......do	1745	8	17	140
Freising	7, 624	......do	1827	8	16	250
Frankenthal	6, 496	Latin School	1817	4	11	92
Fruchtwangen	2, 350	......do	......	3	5	18
Fürth	21, 054	......do	1863	8	14	297
Germersheim	9, 524	......do	1827	4	9	71
Grünstadt	3, 800	......do	1819	4	9	92
Günzburg	3, 511	......do	......	4	6	......
Hof	13, 146	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1546	8	18	132
Hersbruck	2, 000	Latin School	1830	4	7	24
Hammelburg	2, 778	......do	1842	4	......	......
Hassfurt	1, 950	......do	1853	4	......	......
Ingolstadt	19, 418	......do	1863	4	11	74
Kehlheim	2, 774	......do	1851	......	......	......
Kaiserslautern	13, 592	......do	1817	4	9	92
Kirchheimbolanden	2, 956	......do	1836	4	10	79
Kusel	2, 601	......do	......	4	8	55
Kulmbach	4, 128	......do	1824	......	......	......
Kitzingen	5, 898	......do	1843	4	4	16
Kempten	10, 892	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1804	8	18	150
Kaufbeuren	4, 741	Latin School	1820	4	......	......
Landshut	12, 873	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1629	8	18	222
Landau	12, 305	Latin School	1817	4	......	......
Lohr	4, 103	......do	1838	4	10	52
Lindau	5, 248	......do	......	2	3	20
Munich	167, 054	Wilhelm's Gymnasium	1559	9	27	288
		Ludwig's Gymnasium	1824	8	22	289
		Maximilian's Gymnasium	1849	8	27	342
		Real Gymnasium	1864	4	12	94
		Latin School	1239	4	6	150
Mühldorf	1, 650	......do	1848	......	......	......
Metten	1, 200	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1837	11	28	375
Münnerstadt	1, 650	......do	1660	8	16	177
Miltenberg	3, 400	Latin School	1817	4	6	27
Memmingen	6, 973	......do	1408	4	9	39
Neustadt on the Haardt	8, 090	......do	1578	4	9	58
		Gymnasium and Latin School.	1526	10	22	442
Nuremberg	70, 492	Real Gymnasium	1864	......	......	......
Neustadt	1, 560	Latin School	1567	......	......	......
Neuburg	8, 369	Gymnasium and Latin School.	1664	8	28	192
Nördlingen	6, 628	Latin School	1543	5	9	75
Oberdorf	1, 874	......do	1817	2	1	6
Oettingen	2, 807	......do	1563	8	4	40
Partenkirchen	1, 257	......do	1822	......	......	......

Education in Bavaria, &c.—Continued.

Location.	Population.	Name and character of school.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Teachers.	Scholars.
Passau	13,433	Gymnasium and Latin School	1611	8	19	323
Pirmasens	7,971	Latin School	1836	4	9	81
Pappenheim	1,883	......do	1611	2	......	......
Ratisbon	29,893	Gymnasium and Latin School	1811	11	25	453
		Real Gymnasium	1864	4	10	......
		Latin School	1835	2	5	81
Rothenburg	5,074	......do	1829	4	9	36
Scheyern	900	Gymnasium and Latin School	1840	8	11	153
Straubing	11,034	......do	1803	8	19	194
Speier	13,699	......do	1817	8	18	334
		Real Gymnasium	1864	4	9	54
Schwabach	6,817	Latin School	1821	4	......	......
Schweinfurt	9,328	Gymnasium and Latin School	1834	8	17	136
Sonthofen	2,511	Latin School	1781	2	1	8
Uffenheim	1,860	......do	1500	4	......	......
Weiden	2,5?0	......do	1836	1	......	......
Wunsiedel	3,520	......do	1830	4	6	48
Weissenburg	5,305	......do	1536	4	6	45
Windsbach	1,320	......do	1836	......	......	......
Windsheim	3,200	......do	1815	5	5	29
Würzburg	41,082	Gymnasium and Latin School	1561	10	28	382
		Real Gymnasium	1864	4	9	54
Wallerstein	1,700	Latin School	1729	4	3	16
Weissenhorn	1,680	......do	1821	......	......	......
Zweibrücken	9,155	Gymnasium and Latin School	1558	8	16	231
29 gymnasia			......	250	613	7,758
6 real-schools*			......	......	51	246
52 Latin schools			......	169	248	2,083
Total, (in 87 secondary schools of every kind)			......	419	912	9,887

* The grand total does not include the ten lyceen, and which sometimes classed with the universities. The Latin schools are incomplete gymnasia, having but four instead of the usual number of eight classes.

Table of Secondary Education in Prussia, according to Provinces, in 1868.

[From Dr. Wiese's Exhibit, second issue, official publication.]

Provinces.	Population.	GYMNASIA.						
		No. of gymnasia.	Teachers.			Scholars.		
			In gymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In gymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.
Prussia	3,090,960	22	290	27	317	6,584	742	7,326
Brandenburg	2,716,000	26	437	26	463	7,733	1,391	9,124
Pomerania	1,445,640	13	184	15	199	3,458	560	4,018
Silesia	3,585,760	24	347	24	371	7,947	805	8,752
Posen	1,537,350	10	148	8	156	3,209	258	3,467
Saxony	2,067,070	25	332	15	347	5,278	221	5,499
Westphalia	1,707,730	16	191	4	195	3,361	132	3,493
Rhenish Prussia	3,520,000	24	348	15	363	5,862	335	6,197
Schleswig-Holstein	981,720	10	127	7	134	1,349	263	1,612
Hanover	1,937,640	17	204	20	224	2,620	491	3,111
Hessen-Nassau	1,379,750	10	139	....	139	1,767	......	1,767
Total	23,969,620	197	2,747	161	2,908	49,168	5,198	54,366

Provinces.	PROGYMNASIA.						
	No. of progymnasia.	Teachers.			Scholars.		
		In progymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In progymnasia.	In preparatory classes.	Total.
Prussia	....	....	....	.....	......	......	......
Brandenburg	1	7	4	11	100	85	185
Pomerania	2	15	3	18	223	60	283
Silesia	....	....	....	.....	......	......	......
Posen	1	9	....	9	192	......	192
Saxony	1	3	....	3	27	......	27
Westphalia	6	37	....	37	431	......	431
Rhenish Prussia	12	89	....	89	1,087	......	1,087
Schleswig-Holstein	....	....	....	.....	......	......	......
Hanover	1	6	....	6	89	......	89
Hessen-Nassau	1	9	....	9	70	......	70
Total	25	173	7	180	2,219	145	2,364

Provinces.	REAL-SCHOOLS OF THE FIRST CLASS.						
	No. of schools.	Teachers.			Scholars.		
		In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.
Prussia	9	117	11	128	2,424	302	2,726
Brandenburg	11	171	27	198	3,420	727	4,147
Pomerania	4	50	5	55	1,014	197	1,211
Silesia	7	110	6	116	2,220	231	2,451
Posen	4	61	6	67	1,285	149	1,434
Saxony	6	104	9	113	2,133	390	2,523
Westphalia	8	80	....	80	1,181	......	1,181
Rhenish Prussia	11	148	12	160	2,563	405	2,968
Schleswig-Holstein	....	....	....	....	....	......	......
Hanover	3	39	6	45	560	167	727
Hessen-Nassau	1	9	....	9	54	......	54
Total	64	889	82	971	16,854	2,568	19,422

Provinces.	Real-schools of the second class.							Higher burgher schools.							Institutions considered as higher burgher schools.			— Totals.			Proportion of secondary schools to inhabitants.
		Teachers.			Scholars.				Teachers.			Scholars.									
	No. of real-schools.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In real-schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	No. of schools.	In higher burgher schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	In higher burgher schools.	In preparatory classes.	Total.	No. of such institutions.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Second'y sch'ls of any kind.	Teachers.	Scholars.	
Prussia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5	36	4	40	540	179	719	1	10	155	37	495	10, 926	83, 539
Brandenburg	5	67	7	74	1, 106	298	1, 404	5	47	7	54	649	185	834	2	11	247	50	744	15, 941	54, 320
Pomerania	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	9	2	11	172	53	225	.....	.....	.....	21	283	5, 737	68, 840
Silesia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	7	.....	7	121	.....	121	1	11	170	33	505	11, 494	108, 659
Posen	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	15	232	5, 093	102, 490
Saxony	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	22	4	26	282	74	356	.....	.....	.....	35	489	8, 405	59, 059
Westphalia	1	12	1	13	117	10	127	1	6	.....	6	65	.....	65	2	16	283	34	347	5, 580	50, 227
Rhenish Prussia	1	13	2	15	240	65	305	11	94	6	100	1, 324	190	1, 514	2	14	165	61	741	12, 236	57, 704
Schleswig-Holstein	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	.....	221	14	134	1, 833	70, 122
Hanover	1	11	1	12	165	12	177	1	9	.....	9	134	.....	134	18	124	2, 310	41	420	6, 548	47, 259
Hessen-Nassau	5	67	15	82	886	398	1, 284	2	28	7	35	464	296	760	8	76	1, 221	27	350	5, 156	51, 102
Total	14	170	26	196	2, 647	783	3, 430	31	257	30	287	3, 751	977	4, 728	38	262	4, 772	368	4, 740	88, 949	65, 134

Secondary Education in the Grand Duchy of Baden.

[Area, 5,904 Eng. sq. miles; pop., 1864, 1,428,090. Total number of secondary schools, 42; scholars, 5,834; teachers, 399. Primary schools, 2,157; scholars, 200,000; teachers, 2,500.]

Location.	Population.	LYCEUMS, (7.)							GYMNASIA, (6.)							HIGHER BURGHER, (26.)				PÆDAGOGIEN, (3.)		
		Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Annual budget.	Volumes in library.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Annual budget.	Volumes in library.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.
							Florins.							*Florins.*								
1. Constans	8,516	1610	9	231	30	13	17,000	14,000								1834	5	127	8			
2. Freiburg	19,167	1839	9	359	33	17										1841	6	170	10			
3. Heidelberg	17,666	1808	9	290	11	15	14,000									1835	6	225	14			
4. Karlsruhe	30,555	1583	15	615	36	23										1863	7	380	17			
5. Mannheim	30,555	1807	6	251	7	20										1840	6	147	17			
6. Rastatt	7,580	1808	6	169	17	16	24,000															
7. Wertheim	3,383	1604	6	122	15	13	14,000															
8. Bischofsheim	2,600								1629	7	125	13	13		2,900							
9. Bruchsal	8,980								1753	5	159	7	13	10,682								
10. Donaueschingen	3,047									5	88	5	9									
11. Lahr	7,453								1804	12	83		10		1,137							
12. Offenburg	5,196									5	114	8	10									
13. Weinheim	6,289									6			12		1,750							
14. Durlach	5,794																			4	66	8
15. Lörrach	5,162																			5	119	9
16. Pforzheim	16,320															1839	5	159	6	4	103	6
17. Baden Baden	8,856															1837	6	119	11			
18. Bretten	3,460															1833	4	83	6			
19. Buchen	2,500															1845	5	75	5			
20. Eberbach	4,191															1834	3	81	3			
21. Emmendingen	2,000															1840	4	62	5			
22. Eppingen	2,925																3	103	7			
23. Ettenheim	2,897															1841	6	167	10			
24. Ettlingen	5,200															1842	4	64	6			
25. Gernsbach	2,203															1860	4	34	4			
26. Hornberg	1,100															1839	2	35	2			
27. Kork	1,260															1812	1	17	3			
28. Ladenburg	2,300															1863	5	163	9			
29. Mosbach	2,700															1842	5	102	6			
30. Müllheim	2,750															1839	5	126	8			
31. Rheinbischofsheim	1,800															1809	2	48	2			
32. Schopfheim	2,232															1839	5	81	6			
33. Sinsheim	3,000															1842	3	112	7			
34. Ueberlingen	3,300															1841	5	63	8			
35. Villingen	4,442															1839	5	61	8			
36. Waldshut	1,530															1810	3	42	4			

Statistics of Secondary Education in Hesse-Darmstadt.

Location.	Population.	GYMNASIA, (6.)							REAL-SCHOOLS, (10.)						
		Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Annual budget.	Vols. in library.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Graduates.	Annual budget.	Vols. in library.
							Florins.							*Florins.*	
1. Bensheim	4,757	1686	6	100	4	9	10,000	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
2. Büdingen	2,428	1601	6	71	7	10	8,224	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
3. Darmstadt	28,526	1629	7	321	24	17	....	....	1822	6	285	13	23	12,290	....
4. Giessen	9,186	....	6	189	23	13	....	....	1837	5	124	11	9	10,100	....
5. Mainz	49,763	....	8	300	11	24	....	....	1867	6	357	16	12	16,000	....
6. Worms	11,308	1804	4	101	8	15	....	....	1836	4	88	....	....	....	....
7. Alsfeld	3,659	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1861	5	103	5	....	4,000	....
8. Alzey	5,249	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1841	7	217	14	....	10,300	1,200
9. Bingen	5,584	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1839	4	112	10	10	6,300	3,500
10. Friedberg	4,657	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1850	4	125	7	3	7,000	900
11. Michelstadt	3,334	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1834	5	149	8	5	4,325	940
12. Offenbach	16,681	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1834	11	327	19	2	15,500	1,900
Total	145,132	....	37	1,082	77	88	....	....	....	57	1,887	103	14	....	....

[Area, 3,240 English square miles; population in 1864, 816,902. Total number of secondary schools of any kind, 16; scholars, 2,969; teachers, 152. Primary schools, 1,756; scholars, 150,568; teachers, 1,382.]

Secondary Education in Wurtemberg.

Location.	Population.	GYMNASIA, (7.)							LYCEUMS, (6.)				HIGHER REAL-SCHOOLS.			
		Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Graduates.	Teachers.	Annual budget.	Vols. in library.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Year of foundation.	Classes.	Scholars.	Teachers.
							Florins.									
1. Ehingen	3, 268		10	124	20	14	—									
2. Ellwangen	3, 753	1817	10	213	10	18		15, 000								
3. Heilbronn	16, 439	1620	14	436	11	25	25, 700	8, 000								
4. Rottweil	4, 529	1307	10	100	11	17	12, 623	14, 000					1838	3	80	11
5. Stuttgart	19, 084	1686	10	779	24	49	52, 161						1796	31	1, 100	46
6. Tübingen	8, 734	1855	10	244	11	21	16, 000	1, 500					1823	4	117	11
7. Ulm	23, 077	1613	14	392	6	24							1844			
8. Ludwigsburg	11, 620								1721				1827			
9. Oehringen	3, 400								1547	7	92	8				
10. Ravensburg	7, 223								1809	7						
11. Reutlingen	15, 586									5	162	11	1810	8	308	14
12. Esslingen	15, 591									8	290	9	1825	7	212	10
13. Cannstadt	8, 087								1859	4	30	10				
14. Hall	7, 245												1838	5	172	
Total	197, 636		78	2, 278	93	168				31	574	38		58	1, 989	92

[Area, 7,840 English square miles; population in 1864, 1,747,328. Total number of secondary schools of any kind, 21; scholars, 4,841; teachers, 298. Primary schools, 2,481; scholars, 230,000; teachers, 3,778.]

TABLE I.—*Primary and Secondary Education in the Cities and Towns of Norway, January 1, 1868.*

City or town.	Population.	Elementary schools.						Higher elementary schools.*				Secondary schools.†				
		Schools.	Teachers, male.	Teachers, female.	Scholars.	Income.‡	Expenses.‡	Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Expenses.‡	Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.	Income.‡	Expenses.‡
1. Aalesund	3, 452	2	5	2	573	3, 622	2, 409	1	64	8	1, 188	1	97	10	3, 920	3, 846
2. Arendal	3, 658	1	3	....	215	898	832	....	......	....	....	1	124	11	4, 706	4, 184
3. Bergen	27, 703	12	23	13	2, 405	12, 331	12, 331	....	......	....	....	1	187	17	12, 923	11, 416
4. Brevig	2, 163	1	3	2	301	873	596	1	77	3	989	....	......	....	....	....
5. Christiania	57, 382	4	45	18	5, 276	22, 242	22, 242	1	369	22	6, 964	1	136	13	13, 989	12, 961
6. Christiansand	10, 876	12	11	3	1, 076	3, 727	3, 727	1	170	11	2, 000	1	129	12	6, 289	6, 758
7. Christiansund	5, 709	8	11	3	1, 035	3, 910	3, 159	....	......	....	....	....	......	....	....	....
8. Drammen	13, 032	2	13	...	1, 413	5, 436	4, 804	....	......	....	....	1	252	22	9, 821	9, 846
9. Drobak	1, 662	1	2	....	247	380	380	1	40	3	820	1	79	10	4, 062	4, 045
10. Egersund	2, 145	1	5	....	400	961	937	1	44	4	1, 149	....	......	....	....	....
11. Farsund	1, 416	1	2	....	187	547	518	1	45	3	746	....	......	....	....	....
12. Flekkefjord	1, 622	1	2	....	172	480	480	1	54	3	821	....	......	....	....	....
13. Frederickshald	9, 219	1	9	....	1, 340	2, 983	2, 983	....	......	....	....	1	174	12	6, 273	6, 248
14. Frederickstad	4, 820	1	9	3	801	2, 226	2, 226	1	140	10	3, 700	....	......	....	....	....
15. Grimstad	1, 501	1	2	....	166	386	386	1	102	6	2, 455	....	......	....	....	....
16. Hammer	1, 868	1	2	1	319	638	638	1	53	4	1, 070	....	......	....	....	....
17. Hammerfest	1, 547	1	3	....	188	1, 407	1, 311	1	52	4	1, 380	....	......	....	....	....
18. Haugesund	3, 321	1	3	....	367	1, 981	1, 989	1	51	3	980	....	......	....	....	....
19. Holmestrand	2, 084	1	3	....	234	500	500	1	46	4	1, 220	....	......	....	....	....
20. Horten	6, 192	2	9	....	1, 112	2, 819	2, 721	1	109	9	2, 321	....	......	....	....	....
21. Kongsberg	5, 011	4	7	4	1, 038	2, 676	2, 394	....	......	....	....	1	67	8	3, 597	3, 805
22. Kragerœ	4, 089	3	5	2	479	1, 452	1, 270	1	47	3	784	....	......	....	....	....
23. Laurvig	6, 327	7	7	....	974	1, 862	1, 862	1	123	4	370	1	58	6	3, 033	3, 038
24. Levanger	1, 017	1	2	....	149	463	439	1	69	5	1, 188	....	......	....	....	....
25. Mandal	3, 842	2	6	....	489	1, 278	1, 278	1	123	9	2, 297	....	......	....	....	....
26. Molde	1, 691	1	2	....	275	485	467	....	......	....	....	1	72	9	4, 521	4, 556
27. Moss	4, 129	1	4	1	552	1, 368	1, 368	1	83	6	1, 620	....	......	....	....	....
28. Namsos	1, 189	1	3	1	154	300	300	1	14	1	408	....	......	....	....	....
29. Oesterusöer	2, 335	1	3	....	408	623	621	1	45	3	830	....	......	....	....	....
30. Porsgrund	2, 774	2	5	....	325	1, 742	1, 085	1	80	3	700	....	......	....	....	....
31. Sandnœs	1, 000	1	2	....	175	358	358	1	14	1	100	....	......	....	....	....
32. Sarpsborg	2, 989	1	3	2	352	840	840	1	100	5	1, 833	....	......	....	....	....
33. Skien	4, 776	2	7	1	636	1, 871	1, 772	1	9	1	100	1	118	12	6, 340	6, 186
34. Stavanger	16, 647	3	17	5	2, 560	5, 579	5, 578	....	......	....	....	1	308	20	10, 295	10, 047
35. Tönsberg	4, 541	1	5	1	471	4, 165	3, 438	1	161	7	2, 226	....	......	....	....	....
36. Tromsöe	4, 073	2	3	....	355	979	979	1	66	6	1, 048	1	106	11	4, 610	4, 783
37. Trondhjem	19, 287	8	28	7	2, 526	13, 871	12, 075	....	......	....	....	1	129	13	9, 379	8, 374

* Burgher schools with real-classes. † Gymnasia and real-schools. ‡ In specie dalers $1.,

TABLE III.—*Attendance and Studies in the Grammar or Public Burgh Schools of Scotland.*

Location of school.	Number and ages of scholars in actual attendance when circulars were filled up.							Total scholars on rolls.	Scholars on roll learning—													
	Under 8 years of age.	8 and under 12.	12 and under 16.	16 and above.	Total all ages.																	
					Boys.	Girls.	Total.		Greek.	Latin.	French.	German.	Arithmetic.	Book-keeping.	Mathematics.	Physics.	English.	Writing.	Drawing.	Music.	Mensuration.	Other subjects.
Aberdeen	......	32	188	40	260	......	260	272	87	247	11	....	149	....	104	....	203	75	10	......	....	....
Do.	......	10	22	....	32	......	32	47	15	25	......	....	35	....	15	....	35	20	......	......	....	....
Ayr	41	124	186	24	261	114	375	405	12	137	71	8	262	40	54	....	362	351	138	......	....	....
Campbeltown	19	38	27	....	50	34	84	86	....	11	6	....	73	....	......	....	86	55	......	......	....	....
Irvine	12	43	67	8	99	31	130	160	6	33	22	3	113	18	29	....	144	97	10	......	....	....
Annan	25	66	40	5	107	29	136	165	....	9	......	....	114	6	8	....	164	129	37	......	....	....
Do.	15	52	51	....	77	41	118	135	1	46	26	....	106	7	6	....	135	125	......	......	....	....
Dumfries	15	74	101	5	122	73	195	230	13	71	43	4	170	....	35	....	194	170	35	......	....	....
Kirkcudbright	16	49	61	3	68	61	129	137	9	42	26	12	118	11	10	....	114	118	13	......	....	....
Dundee	36	224	450	92	528	274	802	802	17	127	132	38	597	119	164	80	549	533	181	......	....	*80
Edinburgh	......	65	232	29	326	......	326	376	79	376	212	46	312	56	74	106	373	231	41	......	....	11
Do	......	25	138	164	327	......	327	377	190	377	377	105	368	91	152	....	377	331	13	......	....	....
Banff	18	62	49	7	134	2	136	136	12	38	......	....	120	....	11	....	120	119	5	......	....	....
Elgin	36	45	31	1	92	21	113	137	3	40	16	2	84	6	11	65	121	74	2	20	....	....
Peterhead	15	56	17	3	91	......	91	126	3	26	......	2	115	....	18	....	120	110	......	......	....	....
Airdrie	50	180	84	....	179	135	314	342	3	33	15	....	......	11	12	....	342	342	17	......	....	....
Falkirk	22	155	63	....	146	114	260	280	8	39	30	2	257	75	6	....	280	257	217	217	....	....
Hamilton	61	102	103	3	149	120	269	286	4	26	37	....	177	....	24	....	285	203	45	......	....	....
Lanark	11	58	33	....	102	......	102	116	2	22	7	....	103	10	5	....	116	103	10	......	....	....
Linlithgow	19	22	12	1	36	18	54	70	....	7	1	....	37	2	10	....	65	48	......	......	....	....
Glasgow	90	244	237	9	580	......	580	710	62	336	207	62	438	26	137	145	710	600	......	503	....	....
Greenock	38	125	137	10	185	125	310	334	20	85	101	25	241	20	45	....	322	285	130	......	....	....
Dunbar	32	58	34	....	69	55	124	142	2	16	27	....	129	....	4	....	142	126	......	......	....	....
Haddington	8	7	} 5	{ ..	10	14	24	24	....	10	......	....	13	....	......	....	24	17	......	......	....	....
North Berwick	12	20		..	28	9	37	45	....	9	9	....	35	....	......	....	45	33	......	......	....	....

Forres	32	71	42	1	127	19	146	158	3	34	11	....	123	13	6	....	156	108	12	88	....	....
Inverness	11	72	85	29	98	99	197	215	23	70	106	9	182	10	37	....	192	176	103	92	....	....
Dumbarton	16	89	48	1	108	46	154	171	1	14	7	....	117	2	2	....	165	136	......	......	....	....
Kilmarnock	15	108	95	9	179	48	227	240	4	42	21	3	156	27	17	....	172	136	......	......	....	‡49
Port-Glasgow	9	16	12	4	19	22	41	49	....	4	6	....	36	....	......	....	49	39	36	......	....	....
Renfrew	59	81	12	....	95	57	152	206	5	5	5	....	206	5	......	....	206	206	......	......	....	....
Do	62	80	34	5	104	77	181	190	....	13	12	....	107	11	7	....	187	115	......	......	....	....
Burntisland	36	74	27	4	94	47	141	173	....	3	4	....	171	3	3	....	171	171	......	......	....	§1
Kirkcaldy	27	142	66	....	164	71	235	251	3	31	20	....	202	3	5	....	243	215	......	......	....	....
Leith	30	82	52	3	99	68	167	198	....	14	25	4	146	....	......	....	179	148	25	22	....	....
Musselburgh	13	27	22	2	64	......	64	65	3	33	13	3	52	....	8	....	63	56	11	......	....	....
Arbroath	62	119	110	10	181	120	301	327	6	56	77	19	215	11	8	....	301	223	11	......	15	‖1
Do	87	174	61	....	176	146	322	349	4	20	4	....	221	....	1	....	349	250	......	......	4	....
Brechin	61	81	.75	....	191	26	217	237	2	38	15	....	125	....	2	....	190	144	......	......	....	....
Forfar	39	91	39	....	94	75	169	191	....	46	35	6	113	....	11	....	191	159	......	......	....	....
Montrose	57	92	96	10	158	97	255	270	5	63	55	15	174	....	18	....	260	216	37	......	....	....
Paisley	58	84	96	10	149	99	248	271	5	59	30	....	162	11	9	....	231	194	......	......	....	....
Perth	7	101	180	40	190	138	328	355	13	64	86	11	223	71	58	10	229	210	74	......	58	¶31
Cupar	103	217	113	1	302	132	434	521	2	35	22	7	292	1	10	....	486	324	30	......	....	....
St. Andrews	123	273	294	90	475	305	780	863	17	145	211	40	532	59	140	....	785	470	160	......	....	....
Dunfermline	5	36	25	....	49	17	66	74	....	22	1	....	59	....	7	....	72	62	12	......	....	....
Stirling	43	127	121	7	202	96	298	328	12	74	39	1	247	12	27	....	275	245	56	......	....	....
Kirkwall	9	50	27	3	68	21	89	93	4	29	10	....	79	....	12	....	34	92	15	......	....	....
Tain	3	31	41	17	67	25	92	102	5	34	29	1	88	15	22	....	91	74	2	......	....	**1
Stranraer	30	46	36	13	81	44	125	141	2	35	53	12	126	....	21	....	193	124	7	11	....	....
Wigtown	32	55	33	2	72	50	122	136	4	28	21	....	221	....	12	13	461	121	......	121	12	....
Peebles	61	64	26	....	103	48	151	177	....	10	4	...	173	6	5	....	173	173	10	......	....	....
Rothesay	42	170	54	....	171	95	266	296	....	20	6	....	197	....	3	....	296	242	......	......	....	....
Selkirk	62	102	35	....	125	74	199	275	....	10	6	....	151	....	10	....	275	180	......	......	....	....
Total	1,785	4,691	4,354	665	8,063	3,432	11,495	12,862	680	3,239	2,310	440	9,299	758	1,395	419	11,789	9,561	1,505	1,074	89	263

* Chemistry.
‖ Mechanics.

† 100 in Natural History and 1 in Hindustani.
¶ 24 scholars in Natural History and 7 in Chemistry.

‡ Geography and Astronomy.

§ Navigation.
** Italian.

TABLE II.—*Management, Teachers, and Bursaries in Secondary Schools*, 1867.

Schools.	No.	Governors or managers: Town-Council.	Governors or managers: Town-C'ncil and others.	Governors or managers: Others.	Rectors and masters: Residence. R.	Residence. M.	Equivalent. R.	Equivalent. M.	Neither. R.	Neither. M.	University, with degree.	University, without degree.	Normal school.	Others.	Total rector and masters.	Bursaries tenable at—School. No.	School. Amount.	College. No.	College. Amount.
Public, in Burghs	54	27	17	10	9	12	....	4	15	109	61	64	18	33	176	186	£1,272 11 10	26	£358 0 0
Public, not in Burghs	4	......	......	4	4	15	....	1	......	12	15	7	3	7	32	6	240 0 0	....	....
Private	11	......	......	11	......	......	....	....	......	......	28	30	7	13	78	......	....	....	....
Total	69	27	17	25	13	27	....	5	15	121	104	101	28	53	286	192	1,512 11 10	26	358 0 0

TABLE III.—NUMBER AND AGES OF SCHOLARS IN ATTENDANCE.

Schools.	No.	Under 8 years of age. Boys.	Girls.	Total.	8 and under 12. Boys.	Girls.	Total.	12 and under 16. Boys.	Girls.	Total.	16 and above. Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Total all ages. Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Public, in burghs	54	1,200	585	1,785	3,260	1,431	4,691	3,113	1,241	4,354	490	175	665	8,063	3,432	11,495
Public, not in burghs	4	117	101	218	228	169	397	267	138	405	62	24	86	674	432	1,106
Private	11	39	....	39	316	....	316	527	....	527	102	....	102	984	....	984
Total	69	1,356	686	2,042	3,804	1,600	5,404	3,907	1,379	5,286	654	199	853	9,721	3,864	13,585

TABLE IV.—*Number of Scholars, Percentage in Attendance, and Accommodation in Secondary Schools, 1867.*

SCHOOLS.		NUMBER OF SCHOLARS.							CLASS-ROOM ACCOMMODATION.		
Designation.	No.	On roll.			In attendance.			Percentage in attendance.	No. of scholars at 8 sq. feet each.	Actual superficial area for each scholar.	
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.			On roll.	In attendance.
Public, in Burghs	54	9,022	3,840	12,862	8,063	3,432	11,495	89.5	27,053	16.8	18.8
Public, not in Burghs	4	734	483	1,217	674	432	1,106	90.9	2,764	18.2	20.0
Private	11	1,067	....	1,067	984	....	984	92.2	3,848	28.9	31.3
Total	69	10,823	4,323	15,146	9,721	3,864	13,585	89.7	33,665	17.6	19.6

TABLE V.—NUMBER OF SCHOLARS IN EACH SUBJECT.

SCHOOLS.		Total scholars on roll.	SCHOLARS ON ROLL LEARNING—																
Designation.	No.		Greek.	Latin.	French.	German.	Hindustani.	Italian.	Arithmetic.	Book-keeping.	Mathematics.	Physics.	Nat. History.	Chemistry.	English.	Writing.	Drawing.	Music.	Mensuration.
Public, in Burghs	54	12,862	680	3,239	2,310	440	1	1	9,299	758	1,395	419	124	87	11,788	9,561	1,505	1,074	89
Public, not in Burghs	4	1,217	121	290	372	114	....	6	1,068	48	214	68	......	59	1,188	974	243	153	2
Private	11	1,067	168	640	501	134	....	....	956	168	366	58	41	38	1,047	798	315	....	....
Total	69	15,146	969	4,169	3,183	688	1	7	11,323	974	1,975	545	165	184	14,023	11,333	2,063	1,227	91

TABLE VI.—*Financial Condition of Secondary Schools*, 1867.

[The undernoted does not include value of premises, repairs, insurance, or feu-duty.]

SCHOOLS.		INCOME OF SCHOOLS FOR THE LAST FINANCIAL YEAR.									
Designation.	No.	Salaries paid by heritors.	Salaries paid by town council or trustees. To rector or head master.	To other masters.	To assistants.	Endowments.	Parliamentary grants.	Grants from trustees of any bequest.	School fees.	Voluntary subscriptions and other sources.	Total income of school.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Public, in Burghs	54	468 6 8	1,788 1 4	1,466 16 7	189 4 10	1,617 12 9	752 1 8	1,365 10 6	37,877 15 6	57 11 8	45,583 1 6
Public, not in Burghs	3	....	580 0 0	2,384 8 3	34 5 0	201 16 11	62 0 0	....	307 1 6	....	3,569 11 8
Total................	57	468 6 8	2,368 1 4	3,851 4 10	223 9 10	1,819 9 8	814 1 8	1,365 10 6	38,184 17 0	57 11 8	49,152 13 2

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE HISTORY OF SCHOOLS OF DRAWING AND THE FINE ARTS.

CONTENTS.

Replies to this Circular, endorsed *Official*, pass *free* by mail. SPECIAL CIRCULAR, No. 13.

CIRCULAR RESPECTING ACADEMIES OF DESIGN,

GALLERIES OF ART, AND ART CULTURE

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C., *January*, 1868.

The undersigned desires to obtain for this Department printed documents respecting Academies of Design, and Schools and Galleries of Art, and such other information as you may please to communicate respecting efforts which have been made in your city, or State, to promote the study of Art and its applications to Painting, Sculpture, Engraving, Architecture, Landscape Gardening, Music, &c., in any of the forms and particulars specified below.

HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner.

1. Academies of Design—when and how established; how supported; present condition as to funds and members.
2. Schools of Art—when and by whom founded; how supported; tuition free or otherwise; number of pupils, male and female; trustees, how many and how paid.
3. Schools of Art for Women—when and by whom established; how supported; number of pupils.
4. Public Museums or Galleries for Exhibition of Works of Art—when established; how supported; character and value of the works exhibited; number of visitors, (estimated, or known by sale of tickets.)
5. Private Collections of Works of Art—their character and value; whether the productions are of foreign or native artists.
6. The study and practice of Drawing in Colleges and Schools of any grade with you, (not included above)—when first introduced—how taught—number of pupils, male or female.
7. Academies or Schools of Music—when established—how supported—present condition as to proceedings, funds, and members.
8. Music in Colleges, Academies, and Public Schools—when introduced as a regular exercise—how taught, special teacher, &c.
9. Public Parks—extent and original cost of grounds—plan and cost of improvements, and by whom designed—annual cost of improvements and superintendence—historical monuments and statues, &c.
10. Private grounds—extent, and by whom planned—on what conditions open to visitors.
11. Rural cemeteries—extent and cost of grounds—when and by whom planned—annual cost of improvements and superintendence—number of proprietors.
12. Number and character of Books on Art accessible through public libraries.
13. Native artists—living or dead, whose reputation and productions are associated with your city—any details as to special training and encouragement received by them there.
14. Any special action by the State or City, or by any institution or individual for the advancement of Art in design, construction, or decoration of buildings and grounds, in portraits, statues, paintings, or monuments.
15. Schools or Classes (day or evening) for artizans, in any branch of decorative Art, modeling, &c.
16. Art and Æsthetic Culture generally—any suggestions as to its condition and improvement in this country.

ART IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

INTRODUCTION.

We purpose in this report to confine ourself chiefly to what has been done by Congress for the encouragement of the fine arts in this District. The various purposes to which works of art may be applied in educating and improving the condition of a people, of stimulating industry, and increasing the material wealth of a nation by giving it skilled labor, is a subject of so much importance in our political economy as to demand the most serious attention of our legislators. Paintings, illustrating the important events in the early history of a great nation; its rise and progress; its achievements in science and civilization, belong to the valuable legacies it leaves to posterity for its good. It matters little whether the events illustrated by the artist be heroic or civic in their character.

The same may be said of statues of the great men who, by their wisdom, courage, and foresight, gave us the form of government under which we have enjoyed freedom and prosperity equalled only by our greatness as a nation. The people always find in these subjects matter to interest and instruct them; and in selecting works of art to decorate the Capitol and other public buildings, our efforts should not only be directed to their entertainment and improvement, but to giving them what they can readily understand and appreciate.

It is also essential that works of art, intended to perform so important a part in decorating a building that has cost the people so much money, and of which they are so justly proud, should be executed by artists whose already established reputations would be a sufficient guarantee for the proper performance of their works. Nothing discourages real merit more than to see pretension patronized; and when the government is the patron the influence is more widely and disastrously felt.

By employing artists with established reputations the people give more time and study to their works, and feel at the same time that they have got something of real value—something that faithfully expresses the events they set out to illustrate. In addition to this, works of art intended to decorate the Capitol building of a great and rapidly progressing nation, should faithfully represent the progress art has from time to time made in it.

It is in buildings like these that the people look for and expect to find examples of the best artistic talent the country has produced. And unless we employ the recognized talent of the country we shall mislead the people as to what it can perform.

The question of employing native artists to decorate the Capitol was one which early engaged the attention of Congress. Some of our public men at that time appreciated the value to the people of decorating the Capitol with paintings illustrating the more important events of the Revolution, as well as portraits of the men who figured prominently in it. But they doubted the skill of American artists to produce anything of the kind successfully, and were not for spending the people's money on what might turn out to be only a costly experiment. Others doubted the power of Congress to use the people's money for any such purpose. In short, these latter regarded it as an attempt on the part of Congress to encourage idleness and make a reckless expenditure of the people's money.

The debates in Congress at that time on art and employing American artists to decorate the Capitol are as novel as they are instructive. They afford the student of to-day a ready and happy means of contrasting the great progress we have made in literature, art, and science, as well as whatever appertains to the vital and material wealth of a nation, with what was predicted for it by some of our public men, who saw the future only through their own cramped ideas.

We had even at that time two American artists—one in portraiture, the other in land-

scape—whose works had attracted considerable attention both in this country and England. Indeed, it must be confessed that they received a more generous and discriminating criticism from Englishmen than they did at the hands of Americans; for while the one seemed capable only of pointing at and condemning their defects, the other found something to praise in their merits. Still, American art was in its infancy, and being in its infancy had few friends among men in public or private life. And it is safe to say that the few men of wealth and taste who patronized it did so more from respect to the artist personally, perhaps prompted by a worthy feeling to relieve his necessities, than for any intrinsic value they believed his works contained.

All this is changed now. In no other country has the progress of art been so rapid and complete as in the United States. The American artist, if he be prudent and industrious, no longer struggles against that poverty many believed inseparable from his profession, on the one side, and that popular prejudice which saw nothing skillful that came of American industry, on the other.

It cannot really be said that American art has received an encouraging hand from the government; and yet it has struggled on and established itself on a solid basis solely on its merits. The great and rapidly increasing wealth of our people; their improved education; their more cultivated taste for works of art of a substantial kind—these have contributed to furnish the American artist of reputation with remunerative employment.

In nearly all of our large cities American artists have established academies of design; formed large and important societies for benevolent and other purposes; built costly and imposing edifices; have drawn around them the wealth and talent of their localities; and, indeed, extended their influence for good over society generally. The more cultivated our taste for art becomes, and the better we can get the people to understand the valuable uses to which art and science may be applied in securing wealth and prosperity, the better it will be for the material wealth of the nation.

Our best landscape painters now rank equal, if not superior, to the best of Europe; and the works of such men as Bierstadt, Church, Innis, and others, have found patrons among the nobility of England, and a much more appreciative and generous criticism at the hands of her critics than from those of their own country. Others, less publicly known but equally meritorious in their lines, have met a readier sale and received better prices for their works abroad; and, indeed, have found it to their advantage to reside there permanently.

The statements here made, we would suggest, should have some weight in shaping the action of Congress when it comes to consider what encouragement shall be given to American art in further decorating the Capitol.

THE TRUMBULL PICTURES.

John Trumbull, commonly called Colonel John Trumbull, of Connecticut—a State claiming at that time to have given to the country the first historical painter it had produced—had been nearly two years endeavoring to enlist the sympathies of Congress in behalf of American art and securing from it an order to paint four pictures representing important events in the Revolution. He succeeded at last, with the aid of influential friends, in convincing Congress that, however grand and imposing a public building might be, internal decoration was necessary to make it attractive to the people and complete as a whole.

Studies of several of these subjects made by "Colonel Trumbull" were put up in the hall of the then House of Representatives and attracted considerable attention, as they would probably do if placed there to-day, and influential admirers were soon found ready enough to aid in securing government patronage for the genius who could produce such works.

Trumbull felt encouraged at the great attention paid to his studies. He had suffered under those financial ills regarded at that time inseparable from genius, and now felt that the day of his prosperity was dawning. A man of keen observation, of fine taste, and gentlemanly impulses; a high sense of honor; impulsive and perhaps erratic at times—he regarded his profession of an artist as entitled to command the highest respect everywhere.

He had served as an aid, with the rank of colonel, on Washington's staff; he had acted

as an adjutant general in the army of the Revolution; he had been the friend and associate of Adams and Jefferson when they represented us respectively at the courts of St. James and Paris; he had enjoyed the respect and been the correspondent of the prime minister of England, (Grenville;) and, indeed, rendered the country valuable service in various ways—as well during the war of 1812 as the Revolution: but his love of art rose above any honor or emolument those social relations and services rendered to the government could bring him.

Trumbull, then, when he saw a resolution introduced in the Senate, January, 1817, authorizing the President of the United States (Madison) to employ him "to compose and execute four paintings of the principal events of the Revolution, to be placed in the Capitol," and for which he was to receive $8,000 each, felt that the day on which it was done was the happiest of his life.

The resolution was ordered to a third reading without opposition; but on being placed on its passage objection was made, which resulted in a debate that would be regarded as very remarkable at this day. Messrs. Forsyth, Ross, Robertson, Taylor of New York, and Hardin opposed the resolution, chiefly on economical principles, several of them urging that it was neither just nor proper for the government to become the patron of the fine arts; that no such expense ought to be authorized until the faith of the government was redeemed by the fulfilment of all its pecuniary obligations; nor, indeed, until every debt was paid arising out of the war of the Revolution.

The most prominent amongst those advocating the resolution were Calhoun, Wright, Hopkinson, Harrison, John Randolph of Roanoke, Nelson, and Grosvenor. These gentlemen paid high compliments to the genius of the artist; praised the excellence of his studies, and urged his claim to the recognition of Congress in eloquent language, and scouted the mistaken notions of economy that would refuse encouragement to art and deprive the people of a source of instruction so healthful and refining.

It is somewhat singular and worthy of notice that art should at that time have found its ablest advocates and warmest friends among southern members, and that none should have been more eloquent in defence of its claims and in pointing out the good influences it would exert on society generally than John Randolph of Roanoke.

It is also worthy of notice that at a later day art made its home in the North, and under the influence of its free institutions found its most substantial patrons and widest circle of friends there.

The resolution finally passed both houses. Instead of eight, Mr. Trumbull got an order for four paintings. The subjects to be painted and the price—$8,000 each—being settled between Mr. Madison (then President) and the artist, work was at once begun on the cartoons. Mr. Madison had a good deal of taste as a critic and genuine sympathy for art; and the artist found in him a true friend, who not only appreciated the object he had in view, but lent his aid personally in assisting to carry it out.

It was not, however, until the administration of President Monroe (March 17, 1817) that the contract was signed between Richard Rush, acting Secretary of State, and the artist, which secured the order in full and brought relief to Trumbull. The contract gave him an advance of $8,000, which came at a welcome moment; for, to use his own language, he had been "drifting constantly upon the fatal lee-shore of debt; * * * and of necessity had to be driven to continue the wretched resource of borrowing the means of subsistence."

It was not, however, until 1824 that the order was completed—the four "historical paintings," now in the rotunda of the Capitol, in their places and exposed to the judgment of the public. These were—

"The Signing of the Declaration of Independence;"
"Surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown;"
"Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga;"
"Washington resigning his Commission."

For these $32,000 of the people's money had been paid. Two of these pictures had been previously placed on exhibition elsewhere, had been favorably noticed by the press, and for a time seemed likely to increase the artist's revenue and add to his reputation. The people gathered about these pictures in admiring groups, and it may be added, seemed

pleased and instructed by them. They had, however, not been long placed in the Capitol until they became the subject of adverse, thoughtless, and even malicious criticism. Some one set up the cry that these pictures were failures; that the people's money had been squandered on worthless daubs, and that they should serve to put a stop to such extravagance in the future. This cry was taken up and echoed by members of Congress, who had no sympathy with art, and felt it to be their duty to oppose any further appropriation made with a view to encouraging American artists to aid in decorating the Capitol. These gentlemen pointed to Trumbull's pictures as expensive failures, and even urged them as a warning against encouraging American artists. John Randolph had advocated Mr. Trumbull's claims, had set himself up as the friend of art. He now became its most bitter enemy, hurling invective against Trumbull's pictures whenever an opportunity offered. It is safe to say that this singular and sudden change was more the result of caprice than honest judgment as to what was meritorious in art. It is also safe to say that his knowledge of art was of the most superficial kind; and that he not only echoed the ridicule of thoughtless writers, who, in their haste to find defects, overlooked entirely the merits in these pictures demanding their attention, but also based his opposition on the fact that Mr. John Q. Adams and other members from the New England States, then becoming unpopular in the South, had defended the Trumbull pictures against the attacks of malicious criticism.

The prejudice excited against these pictures, however, had its damaging effect on American art, and served to defeat all attempts to afford it government patronage, or even to call in the aid of American artists to decorate the Capitol. This prejudice, to say the least, was based on a false taste. The Trumbull pictures were not expensive failures, nor had the people's money been spent for a purpose foreign to the object for which it was intended.

In passing judgment on these pictures, these important questions ought to be kept in view: Do they faithfully represent the art progress of the country at the time they were painted? Are they historically correct? and do they truthfully express what the artist set out to represent on his canvas? That they do both successfully will not be denied; nor will it be denied that they have their defects as well as their merits. They combine faithful portraiture with good grouping, and not bad perspective. They are full, too, of bold touches and strong effects. In color, in the anatomy of some of the figures, in transparency, they are perhaps not up to the exacting taste of to-day. The same may also be said of the details. They are not so elaborately worked out and finished as the taste of the day demands. And yet, notwithstanding these defects, as a whole they will compare favorably with the productions of to-day, and are valuable beyond estimate in preserving faithful portraits of the men who figured prominently in the Revolution, and whose memories will always be cherished by the people.

It would be well to keep in mind the fact that art and literature all over the world have improved and flourished most under an encouraging and candid criticism. It is much more easy to condemn and point out the defects of a great master's works than to so comprehend their merits as to do them justice in a discriminating review. The thoughtless writer who hurls his reckless shafts at what genius produces, rarely thinks how much labor, thought, and anxiety it cost the artist, and how much his hopes for the future are involved in what he is condemning. As a general thing there is too little sympathy in common between the American artist who produces on canvas and the man who sets up to be his judge, and stands between him and the people.

The result of this prejudice was to call in foreign artists and give them preference over Americans; but we seem to have been singularly unfortunate in the change, as the hideous caricatures of Cappellano, Causici, and Gevelot, on the intersections above the large panels, will attest. Two of these artists were Italians, and pupils of the famous Canova. It was only natural, then, that we should have looked for something superior from their chisels; instead of which they gave us what serves only to disfigure the walls of the rotunda and to confuse, perplex, and excite ridicule in the spectator. Messrs. Cappellano, Gevelot, and Causici, undoubtedly intended the figures in their works to represent some sort of barbarian: but that they resemble our Indians may well be doubted. No one, however, familiar with the talents of these gentlemen doubts that they could have produced something historically

correct and of real artistic value. That they did not was our misfortune. The most charitable excuse for their failure is to believe that they did not properly understand what they were called on to perform, and that they worked more with a view to flatter what they conceived to be our taste as a people for the uncouth, represented by art in its rudest state, than to produce anything true and beautiful.

These works did not seem to meet the approval of Congress any more than Mr. Trumbull's pictures did. In fact they seemed to increase the opposition of members to any further appropriations being made for the encouragement of art, as it was called, to decorate the Capitol. But the rotunda, so fine in its architectural design, presented, with its panels only half filled, a strange and unfinished appearance. It was necessary that something be done to remedy this apparent and very unsightly defect, and to give the rotunda at least an air of completeness and decorative finish. To this end resolutions were from time to time introduced into Congress, calling for designs from American artists for subjects to fill the vacant panels.

During the session of 1828 efforts were made by the few friends art had in Congress to get orders for pictures by Allston and Morse, but without success. It was during a debate which followed the introduction of a resolution to employ Mr. Allston to paint a picture of the battle of New Orleans that Mr. John Randolph, in one of his capricious moods, took the opportunity of mercilessly ridiculing the Trumbull pictures. Mr. Randolph succeeded in defeating a worthy object, but the injury he did to art at the time has long been felt and regretted, and by none more than American artists themselves. Both Morse and Allston would have given the country something valuable in art, and worthy of a place in the Capitol of the nation. That they were not employed must always be regarded as a misfortune.

What we have recorded here will serve to show how little interest was felt in art by Congress at that time, and how much it had to contend against.

THE WEIR, CHAPMAN, AND VANDERLYN PICTURES.

It was not until the 17th of June, 1836, that Congress made up its mind that something must be done to remedy the deficiency in the rotunda, and give it a more finished appearance. On that day a joint resolution was passed appointing a committee of members of the Senate and House of Representatives "to contract with one or more competent American artists for the execution of four historical pictures upon subjects serving to illustrate the discovery of America, the settlement of the United States, the history of the Revolution, or the adoption of the Constitution, to be placed in the vacant panels of the rotunda; the selection of the subjects to be left to the choice of the artists, under the control of the committee." Ten thousand dollars each was the price offered for the competitors. Our taste in art matters at that time was neither very correct nor exacting; it was the quantity we got for our money, more than the quality, that we looked for. Indeed it does not seem to have occurred to even the best friends art had in Congress at that day that the value of a painting depended on its merits more than its size in square feet, nor that works by American artists might increase in value as the nation got richer and the people more generous in their patronage of what was really good.

They little thought that the day would come, and soon, when an American citizen would feel himself rich enough to pay an American artist $25,000 for a single landscape, and consider himself fortunate in its possession. In short, Congress was charged with having perpetrated an inexcusable piece of extravagance in offering $40,000 of the people's money for four pictures. It was urged also by some members of Congress that the policy of offering more than was paid Mr. Trumbull for his work would have a very bad effect.

Designs were submitted and contracts at once entered into with John Vanderlyn, Henry Inman, Robert Weir, and John G. Chapman, and they went to work. In order to provide them against necessity, and to place within their reach the means of support, Congress voted four different appropriations of $8,000 each, the first in 1837, the last in 1842. This amount was advanced to the artists ($2,000 at a time) as their work progressed.

The effect of giving this order to different artists was good, since it gave those who had been contending before the public for reputation and position as historical painters a fair field for the display of their powers. The plan also relieved the committee of the charge of

favoritism, which was sure to have been brought against them had they given the order to one painter.

Twenty years had intervened since Trumbull painted his pictures. It was held that the pictures we were to get would show the progress our prominent painters had made in their art during that period. If, however, we accept their pictures as a standard of comparison, it must be confessed that, so far as historical paintings were concerned, we had progressed but little, if at all. Of the pictures by Weir, Vanderlyn, and Chapman, finished and now in the Capitol, only that of the first challenges particular attention as expressing a correct artistic taste and possessing real value as a work of art.

There is a certain delicacy of coloring and expression of feeling and deep religious sentiment about this picture, "The Embarcation of the Pilgrims," which will always make it respected by the people. The details, too, are worked out with great care and evident study. Some of the figures are, however, flat and hard, and placed in positions which make the effect almost painful. Defects of drawing here and there have too frequently made this picture the subject of thoughtless and unjust criticism.

So clever an artist as Mr. Weir could not fail to produce a picture replete with conscientious painting and bold effects. But it has always seemed to us that he worked more with a view to producing a picture full of strong effects than strict regard to historical truth. We must not forget, however, that the subject was an extremely difficult one for an artist to handle, and that in painting the "Embarcation of the Pilgrims" the artist had to fill up by drawing on his fancy for material.

Of Mr. Vanderlyn's "Landing of Columbus," the most that can be said is that it feebly expresses what the artist set out to illustrate on canvas, and affords but little satisfaction to those who look at it.

"The Baptism of Pocahontas" is simply a libel on our respect as a people for historical truth, and has been very generally condemned. Indeed it would be difficult to imagine in what way an artist having any knowledge of color and drawing could have possibly produced anything worse. Its effect on those who look at it is to excite ridicule, not respect; hence, its influence cannot be good. It has been several times suggested that this picture be removed, and its place filled by something that more correctly represents the art taste of the country and less violently outrages the truth of history. The suggestion is well worthy the consideration of Congress.

Congress, it must be confessed, was not fortunate in what it got in the way of pictures by this order. Popular opinion was against the pictures, and the cry was raised that we had not an artist to whom we could trust an order for a picture that would do credit to the Capitol. It seemed to be forgotten for a time that foreign artists had not given us anything better than Americans.

To make the matter worse, Mr. Inman died, leaving his picture unfinished. He had received three instalments of $2,000 each from the government, went to Europe, and, we are informed, "studied and worked on his picture." How far he had progressed, or what disposition was made of the picture after he died, we have in vain endeavored to ascertain. Persons professing to know state that Mr. Morse, who was a firm friend of Inman, at one time offered to take the picture and finish it to the best of his ability on condition that Congress would pay him the balance that would have been due Mr. Inman on the fulfilment of his contract—$4,000. The offer, if made, does not seem to have met the approbation of Congress, which appears to have made up its mind that American art was a failure.

The reports of Congress, however, do not show anything concerning this proposition of Mr. Morse. There was a vacant panel in the great rotunda to be filled, and as Mr. Inman had not produced a picture, some one else must. In the year 1847 Congress made another step forward in the way of encouraging American art. A bill was introduced and passed authorizing the Library Committee to contract with Wm. H. Powell for an historical painting in place of the one contracted for with said Inman, and on the same terms. And as the said Inman had drawn $6,000 of the $10,000, there was a balance of $4,000 left. Congress, therefore, voted Mr. Powell an appropriation of $6,000, and authorized him to receive the

$4,000 that would have been due Mr. Inman, making $10,000. That was the way we got Mr. Powell's picture of "De Soto discovering the Mississippi."

Thinking himself somewhat poorly paid, Mr. Powell applied to Congress for relief, and on the 3d of March, 1855, a further appropriatoin of $2,000 was made, making in all $12,000.

The order was for an historical picture. Exactly what that means has given rise recently to a very interesting controversy. Mr. Powell's picture may at least be accepted as a proof that various opinions exist as to the value of history as a genuine article, and history as painters sometimes give it to us on canvas. We do not know just what Mr. Powell set out to paint, but we do know that he succeeded in giving the government a picture in which fancy is in excess of historical truth. It is also wanting in depth and tone, hard and flat, bad in color, and as a work of art very inferior. Mr. Powell informs us that it represents "De Soto Discovering the Mississippi." Some of the drawings for it we are informed were made in Paris. That we can readily believe, since we recognize in the picture itself three peculiarities of painting common to distinguished French artists. Here we have the cannon and other war implements of one, the dark-visaged monk of a second, and the gaily-mounted knights of a third. De Soto and his party are here represented as having made the long journey through the wilderness, from Florida to the Mississippi, without even soiling their garments, which were of the brightest colors, and mounted on elegant Arabian horses in the very best condition. If Mr. Powell's version of the story be true, then those writers who had set up for historians, and given us such painful accounts of the sufferings and privations endured by De Soto and his followers, as well as the wretched condition they were in when they reached the great river, must have made us the victims of a cruel imposition. It is, however, Mr. Powell's history that is at fault, as well as his skill as an artist.

Art may be made powerful as an instrument of education. And a picture professing to translate history should at least have something in it to excite respect, if not admiration, and instruct the mind correctly—qualities not found in this one. Such pictures tend to confuse and mislead the inquirer after truth, do little credit to art, and are valueless as educators. It might, indeed, be well to inquire whether the appearance of the rotunda would not be improved by the removal of such pictures and the substitution of something better in art.

THE "BATTLE OF CHEPULTEPEC."

This picture fills one of the large spaces fronting the stairs leading to the Senate gallery, and is by an artist of the name of Walker, who accompanied our army to Mexico, and on his return painted a number of sketches of the scenes it participated in. These scenes were spirited and full of promise. Mr. Walker had genuine love for his art, and worked hard in the pursuit of it. But his ability did not rise equal to the production of a large picture suitable for the Capitol. The "Battle of Chepultepec" is generally set down as a failure. Nor is it large enough to fill the place it holds properly. It would, perhaps, appear to much better advantage if placed in some less conspicuous part of the building. This picture was painted by order of the Committee on Military Affairs, in 1860, and cost the government $6,137 37.

"WASHINGTON" AND "LAFAYETTE."

The full length portraits in the new House of Representatives, on the right and left of the Speaker's desk, are works of considerable merit, especially that of Lafayette. Considerable controversy has taken place as to who painted the "Washington," and not a few persons have credited it to Stuart. No name appears on it. It has none of Stuart's color, however, and a close examination will convince any one familiar with the subject that the flesh tints are not such as that artist was famous for. Mr. Clark, the present architect of the Capitol, says it is by Sulley, of Philadelphia, and that he has the authority of Mr. Peter Richings for his assertion, that gentleman informing him that he stood for the figure. This is undoubtedly correct; but the statement will seem strange, considering how much has been written to prove it the work of some other artist. That of Lafayette was by the celebrated French artist, Ary Sheffer, a personal friend of Lafayette, and was a present from the artist to our govern-

ment. What the portrait of Washington cost the government we have not been able to learn, nor can we get the desired information from any one of the departments.

There is on one of the panels of the same hall a singularly bad picture, in distemper, representing Washington receiving a number of commissioners. The figures are all out of drawing, especially that of Washington, who is made to appear as a gentleman of extraordinary proportions. The whole picture is flat, bad in color, entirely devoid of artistic merit; in a word, one of the most crude exaggerations. No American artist would have dared to stake his reputation on such a picture; and we are relieved in saying it was painted by Mr. Brumidi, an Italian artist, and that the War Department is responsible for it. The artist was paid for executing this picture at the rate of $10 a day; but exactly how many days he was employed on it we have not been able to ascertain. General Meigs informs us that the picture was not exactly what was expected, but that the artist was limited as to time, and did as well as he could under the circumstances. This apology is certainly the very best that could be offered in excuse for such a picture. If, however, the government pays for pictures, and gets what is entirely devoid of artistic merit, the damaging effects to the interest of art cannot be too highly estimated.

It was intended that these panels should be reserved for paintings that would do credit to the Capitol; and that American artists should at least have an opportunity of competing equally for a place to display their talents. A foreign artist, however, was employed to set the example, and the result is an acknowledged failure. The picture executed by Mr. Brumidi for this panel is almost entirely devoid of merit, and indeed has nothing to distinguish it from an ordinary bit of distemper painting. This was very unfortunate, since it so discouraged the friends of art in Congress as to make them indifferent when the question of extending its encouragement to art was called up. Such a picture, indeed, is little less than a standing impediment to the interests of art at the Capitol. Members may justly say it were better to let the panels remain as they are than to run the expensive risk of getting another perhaps equally bad, and which would disfigure rather than improve the appearance of the hall. And yet, singular as it may seem, this very same artist was employed to paint the great picture which now disfigures the dome of the Capitol.

With the extension of the Capitol a new era in art began. Decoration took the widest and most fanciful range; money was spent in useless frescoes, and apparently with the object of seeing how little that was useful could be done for the largest amount of money. In short, the building was almost entirely given over to foreign artists, notwithstanding their previous failures and the evident fact that they were incapable of grasping the spirit of our institutions. Those in power seemed almost to forget that there were American artists who had gained some reputation for their works at home as well as abroad, and whose services might have been profitably called in to decorate the Capitol of the nation. Motives of patriotism, if nothing else, one would have thought, should have prompted such a course: nor must it be forgotten in this particular that in what few works of art had been executed for the Capitol, American artists had certainly been more successful than foreigners, and indeed had given us works more in accordance with correct taste.

It was not, however, whether foreign or American artists were employed to do the work as the system of extravagant and almost useless decoration that we object to. Fresco and distemper painting, the most elaborate and costly, in bright colors and designs better suited to the barbaric taste of a past age, were resorted to. That a more subdued, less expensive, and more impressive style of decoration would have suited our taste better, and have been more expressive of our national character, never seems to have entered the mind of those in charge of the work. It is difficult to make foreigners, and especially foreign artists, understand that our taste for the showy and uncouth does not bear a very close resemblance to that of the Indian.

Some of the most costly of these frescoes, if not the most elaborately painted, are on the walls and roofs of committee rooms on the first floor, where few persons ever see them, and still fewer appreciate them. Even then they are seen in a bad light. Others are on the walls and arches of dimly lighted passages, where the visitor finds it almost impossible to distinguish the designs. Nor are the designs what our national character, as well as the

taste and education of our people, demands. It is indeed difficult to understand why so much money should have been spent where no advantage could by any possibility be derived from it. Some of these designs are a combination, a rather strange one, we must confess, of allegory and American history, so worked out as to defy the common understanding; even the artists at work on them were found incapable of affording any information when required. The only thing readily understood in this matter is the fact that an extravagant hand was furnishing the means, and that the result of such a system of decoration could not fail to be very unsatisfactory, to say the least.

General Meigs was in charge of the Capitol at the time, and to him the country is indebted for much that is naturally grand and imposing about the building. How he could have permitted such a system of internal decoration it is difficult to understand; its errors were so palpable and extravagant, however, as to call forth protests from various portions of the country. American artists felt that a wrong had been inflicted on American art, and that they themselves were discredited, and their claims overlooked by the government they had a natural right to look to for encouragement. They very naturally asked what would be thought in England, France, or Prussia, of calling in the aid of American artists to decorate their national buildings. Such an act would have been regarded as a degradation of the art genius of their own country, and an acknowledgment that they had no artists to whom they dare trust the decoration of their public buildings.

With the view of applying a remedy for this evil a number of gentlemen, calling themselves the "Washington Art Union Association," got together on the 11th day of February, 1858, and appointed a committee "to consult upon and adopt a plan for calling a convention of the artists of the United States at the city of Washington." The committee was formed and met; but it is very clear that not a member of it knew exactly what he was to do, or in what way such a committee could aid the interests of art. It reported, however, after deliberation, that "Whereas we have established at the seat of government an institution for the promotion of the fine arts, and especially to facilitate their application to the patriotic requirements of this commemorative period of our national history, in the historical and illustrative works which are to adorn our national Capitol and Capitol grounds." Exactly what was meant by this is not clearly stated, and the reader will have to exercise his judgment in getting at the object to be gained. It was also resolved "that we do hereby invite the art institutions of the United States to appoint delegates, and also extend personal invitations to all artists, to meet us in convention at the city of Washington, on the 20th day of March, 1858. Mr. Horatio Stone, whose works are now a credit to the Capitol, signs himself president.

The convention met at the appointed time, was respectable in number and talent, delegates reporting from all parts of the country. The proceedings, however, seem to have been very dull and uninteresting, as a glance at the report will show. The convention evidently wanted to express its views on the valuable use to which art could be put in promoting the interests of a people, and what ought to be done by the government to protect and encourage it, especially that of native genius; but these objects are not clearly set forth in the report, which is a very weak, unsatisfactory document.

In short, though there were a number of speakers in the convention, it seems to have been sadly in need of some one capable of making a favorable impression in behalf of art, while stating the objects intended to be accomplished by the convention. It discussed a number of things at great length, but advanced no broad or comprehensive views concerning what should be done in decorating the Capitol. Most of the speakers, in fine, seemed to take very narrow views of what the government ought to do in the matter; so narrow, indeed, that a resolution was introduced and adopted recommending that works of art intended for the government buildings be executed on the soil of the United States. Nothing could have been more impracticable than the enforcement of such a law; indeed the injury it would have done to artists themselves, to say nothing of the damage it would have inflicted on art, must, after a little reflection, be apparent to the commonest understanding.

It does not seem to have occurred to these gentlemen that art makes the best progress when left unrestricted, and that artists may sometimes follow their profession to advantage with the examples and models of foreign countries before them. In fine, the whole action of

the convention makes us question whether artists are the best qualified to shape the conduct of a great government in its dealings with art.

Although the convention resolved itself into a permanent institution, to meet yearly, it does not seem to have had a very long life, for we hear nothing of it in future years. A memorial, however, was draughted and presented to Congress, in which it was set forth, "That your memorialists appear before your honorable bodies to solicit for American art that consideration and encouragement to which they conceive it to be entitled at the hands of the general government."

Their memorial, it must be here stated, is in the nature of a complaint, and embodies serious charges against the folly and extravagance displayed in decorating the Capitol, and the injustice of employing foreign artists to do what it was held Americans could do much better. There were upwards of one hundred names attached to this memorial, artists and patrons of art, prominent among which we find the names of S. R. Gifford, Bierstadt, H. K. Brown, and Durand.

Among all this array of names, however, we regret to say it would be difficult to find one to whom the government would have been justified in giving an order for a work to decorate the Capitol. Mr. Bierstadt, Mr. Elliott, Mr. Gifford, Mr. Inness, Mr. Durand, and Mr. Suydam were clever painters, in their peculiar line of landscape, portrait, and small interior. Not one of them, however, has given the slightest indication of capacity to paint an historical picture that would be satisfactory to the people, and do credit to the Capitol of this great nation.

Rapid as had been the progress we had made in landscape painting, and deserved as was the reputation some of our artists had made for their works, at home and abroad, we had to confess that we were still far behind in what is called historical painting. That branch of art in this country was confined to three or four men, none of whom had made any very deep impression on the public by their works.

WHAT CONGRESS DID.

Congress acted promptly on this memorial, and a select committee of five was appointed by the Speaker of the House of Representatives, with instructions to report upon the expediency of granting the petition of the memorialists, and with power to report by bill or otherwise. The committee was composed of Messrs. Humphrey Marshall, Lawrence M. Keitt, George Taylor, Edward Joy Morris, and George H. Pendleton. They were appointed on the 1st day of June, 1858, and reported March 3, 1859.

The report, we understand, was drawn up by Mr. Edward Joy Morris and Mr. George H. Pendleton, and does them great credit for the broad and national views it embodies.

"The art commission," say these gentlemen, "asked for by the artists of the United States in their memorial, your committee consider important and proper; but as a provision for such a commission has been made in the clause of the appropriation bill for the extension of the Capitol, your committee have not recommended a joint resolution for that purpose."

Further on in their report the committee says, "Painting and sculpture are the handmaidens of history to record the traits and characteristics of national life, and to convey to after ages, by images presented to the eye, the costumes, arts, and civilization of such periods as the artist may embody upon his canvas, or grave upon the marble. The ruins of Nineveh and Babylon furnish from their buried walls and broken statuary a more correct idea of the civilization that existed within them than enterprise can gather from any other sources. Art is language," says the committee, "and it is peculiarly useful as an index to the civilization of a people—a key to the volume of their national life." We quote the precise language used by the committee in its report:

"The eye of intelligence hunts," says the committee, in their report, "for the hidden mysteries of past greatness among such works of art as the antiquarian can discover, and the mind of the student artist reproduces, by the aid of these, the living pictures of ages long since passed and almost forgotten. The American people have a history, many of whose passages deserve to be engraved upon imperishable materials."

The committee takes a very wide range of discussion, but is not so clear as we could have desired as to what they intended to recommend. We can, however, get pretty nearly at what the committee intended to report upon. The committee condemns the policy of employing foreign artists to decorate a building in which everything should be strictly national, and is particularly severe on the extravagance displayed in useless ornamentation, which they declare to be little less than a libel on our national taste.

"The Capitol of the United States," says the committee, "is a most extensive edifice, on the structure of which millions of the public treasure have already been expended, and in the decoration of which, by statuary and painting, the widest field is open for the genius of our artists. It might have been made a splendid testimonial of the national taste by being adorned with illustrations of American history. For this purpose no class of men could have been employed with more assurance of success, both for designs and execution, than the practical and professional artists of our own country, who have attained the front rank of their profession. No other class," add the committee, "of the people combine the same knowledge of coloring, of forms, and the various objects of professional skill, that these memorialists certainly possess, and there are none superior to them in the sentiment of true patriotism. The committee have not been informed that American artists have been engaged upon the embellishment of the Capitol; but they have been made painfully conscious that the work has been prosecuted by foreign workmen, under the immediate supervision of a foreigner. As a consequence, the committee find nothing in the design and execution of the ornamental work of the Capitol, thus far, which represents our own country, or the genius and taste of her artists. * * * There is no necessity for attempting to fill up the niches and panels immediately; that should be the work of time, and for the employment of the highest professional skill and taste."

The committee are also afraid that the style of embellishment being carried on will offend the spectator, and therefore recommend that "a plain coat or two of whitewash is better, in the opinion of this committee, for a temporary finish, than the tawdry and exuberant ornament with which many of the rooms and passages are being crowded."

Well-directed as some of the remarks of this report are, it is evident that the committee did not have a very clear understanding of the questions it was called to consider, so far especially as they related to the technicalities and details of art. Its efforts seem to have been directed almost entirely against the abstract fact that the men employed to decorate the Capitol were foreigners, rather than against the style and quality of the work they were executing, and the recklessly extravagant cost of it; nor does the committee seem to have made any distinction between what is called "decorative art" and the fine arts, as represented in historical and other paintings in oil or water colors.

Fresco, distemper painting, and gilding belong to what is called "decorative art," which requires the exercise of nice mechanical skill, not genius, in what it performs. It is imitative, not creative, the painter working from designs already before him. Indeed it does not afford opportunities for the display of genius, being confined to mere ornamental work, better adapted to theatres, music halls, and buildings where show rather than correct taste is the object to be gained. The committee seem also to have overlooked the fact that Americans have given very little study to this branch of art, if such it may be called; indeed they have regarded it as a trade rather than a profession. It is almost entirely confined, even in this country, to Italian and French painters, both of which have shown superior mechanical skill in its execution.

This, then, was the style of painting these foreigners were called in to execute; and it was against the system adopted by those in power that the committee should have directed its inquiries, not the men as foreigners, who were simply mechanics called in to do the work cut out for them.

The error was first committed by those in power adopting a style of decoration in which Americans were not proficient, and at once bad, expensive, and unsuitable to such a building, and a libel on our taste as a people. It does not seem to have occurred to those in power that however suitable this style of decoration might be for a theatre, music or banqueting hall, something more subdued and impressive was required for a great national

building, where a grave and deliberative body of men met to discuss the affairs of the nation. No one would think of decorating a court-room in bright, shiny colors; why should the halls of Congress and committee rooms, where subjects are discussed requiring study and deep thought, be exposed to such aggression against correct taste? Another error was in permitting those men to go outside of their duties as ornamental painters and try their skill in the loftier sphere of the fine arts. What they did in that line, however, turned out a lamentable failure; the two or three pictures they gave us would pass, perhaps, for good bits of ornamental sign painting; but their claim to ranking as works of art is low indeed.

This ornamental work, however, notwithstanding all the expense and extravagance connected with it, was done hastily and badly, as a glance at the walls will show. It is to be regretted that the money wasted on this system of decoration was not devoted to the purchase of works of art, that would have not only had a lasting value, but had a healthful influence on the people, and served as a means of educating them in the history of their own country. The American artist would then have had a congenial field opened to him for the exercise of his talents.

But this country is not alone in expensive art failures, where art was called in to decorate public buildings. England has had a worse and even more expensive experience, as has been shown in the new houses of Parliament, the decorations of which have called forth the severest condemnation. Nor do we believe she has been any more fortunate in her statuary. Her satirists have been hurling their shafts against some of these for the last thirty years; and if we are to credit what they say, some of the equestrian statues of her military heroes erected in London, do as little credit to the art taste of the English people as those erected in Washington do to the art taste of Americans.

England, however, had expended ten times the amount of money we had on art, as the report of her art commission will show; and yet her failures, so far as they applied to her public buildings, were so transparent as to cause a general outcry against them. And yet Englishmen had appreciated art, and their government had encouraged and protected her artists, some of whom had made great reputations as animal and landscape painters. But, as in our own country, decorative painting had received but little attention, and Englishmen had not shown themselves proficient in it. Hence it was that when the new "Houses of Parliament" were decorated, foreign artists had to be called in to do the work, and English artists were held responsible for their failures.

Here again the committee of Parliament was misled in confounding "decorative art" with what is commonly known as the "fine arts." Painting had not been regarded as important to education in England, and schools, where women were instructed in the different branches of art, were unknown. But new and enlarged ideas as to the important uses to which art could be put were being developed; and the fact that it might be made a blessing to the poor as well as an indulgence to the rich was beginning to be felt by all who had the interests of the whole community at heart. Every Englishman interested in art looked forward to the erection of the new houses of Parliament as opening a new field for the development of the art genius of England. Appeals were made to the patriotism of members of the House of Commons not to overlook the native talent of the country, and asking that it share equally with foreigners.

The House of Commons responded promptly to the request, and a select committee was appointed to deliberate and devise the best means of employing the art talent of the country in decorating the public buildings. This committee was composed chiefly of gentlemen known for their taste and genuine sympathy with art, and whose decisions would be likely to have weight with the country. An ample appropriation was made, and it began its investigations, which were of the most thorough kind. The most distinguished artists in the world were called before it, and their opinions taken. Agents well versed in art matters were sent on the continent, at great expense, to examine the various schools and methods of painting, as well as the different systems of decorating public buildings. These agents obtained much valuable information, which is embodied in reports made to Parliament, and may be found in the Library of Congress, in Parliamentary Papers for 1841, '42, '43, '44, vols. 6, 25, 29, 31.

During one of the investigations made by one of the committees, Sir Martin Arthur Shee, accepted as good authority in such matters, was called before it, and his answers to questions, as well as his general remarks on the subject, are worthy of consideration. In reply to a question as to what would be his opinion as to the employment of foreign artists, he replied: "If the object is to encourage the arts of our own country, to elevate their character, &c., then I should think the proper mode would be to *employ and cultivate native talent*. If I am correct in supposing that the object of the committee in the present instance is to render the opportunity which the building of the houses of Parliament now affords available for the promotion of the fine arts; that the object of the committee is not so much to forward the arts themselves as, through their influence, to advance the great end which the promotion of the arts can be considered but as a means—the civilization of our people; to give to their minds a direction which may tend to withdraw them from habits of gross and sensual indulgence; to secure and sustain the intellectual supremacy of our own country, not only with respect to the present age, but with reference to posterity; and, above all, to prove that we are capable of appreciating their exploits of patriotism, those exertions of wisdom and virtue which have adorned the annals of British history, and that we are not at a loss for talents worthy of being employed in their commemoration; if these are the objects the committee have in view, I humbly conceive that the employment of foreigners on the occasion supposed would be inappropriate and inconsistent with such purpose."

Nothing could be more applicable to our own case than these few expressive words. They combine in themselves all that is requisite as an answer to the whole question of who ought and who ought not to be employed in our own country. England, like ourselves, had been unfortunate in the employment of foreign artists; still those who had the direction of decorating the new houses of Parliament were prejudiced in favor of the works of foreigners and against those of native artists. Nor was this prejudice confined to these persons, for it extended over the public mind, just as it does in this country to-day. Architects and superintendents of public buildings when applying the means of decoration have been more inclined to imitate old models than run the risk of failure by inventing something new. They have regarded native talent with doubt, and given to foreign a fancied superiority. And to this, perhaps, more than anything else, may be traced the many failures that have been made by applying a style of decoration to modern public buildings better suited to a past age.

England at once took means to check the evil and apply a remedy. She saw that to call in foreigners to decorate buildings so national in their character as the new houses of Parliament was not only seriously damaging the interests of native art, but producing confusion and failure. The competition invited to perform the work was finally confined to British subjects, including foreigners who may have resided ten years and upwards in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

These investigations, tedious and expensive as they were, produced a great deal of good in England. An art commission was appointed composed of four of her most eminent artists, to whom was given the power of directing and superintending the decoration and embellishment of their public buildings. This commission proceeded at once to change the costly and ill-advised system of decoration previously applied, and to adopt a more national and appropriate one. The result is that art in England, encouraged by this timely action, which gave it a new impetus, has been placed on a secure and permanent basis, and Englishmen are proud of the position their country now holds in the world of art as well as literature. Proper action on the part of Congress would produce equally beneficial results in this country, and give to art that position our artists feel they are capable of gaining for it under proper encouragement.

The committee of Congress, of which we have before spoken, may justly remark on this subject that art in England took a new life from this action. Native artists were no longer degraded by their own government. "Thus a corps of able-bodied men has been training for the work, and a series of important historical pictures and sculptures have been produced which private patronage never would have called forth."

Here again the committee seem to have overlooked the fact that pictures belong to one kind of art and decorative painting to quite another, and also that they are employed for

quite different purposes. The committee, in another part of its report, says: "What our artists want is recognition by their government, encouragement, protection, employment when it can be properly afforded, and then they will produce results worthy of the age and the land in which they live. But the history of art in all countries proves that without national aid art never has reached its highest development. * * * Let American artists, then feel the sustaining hand of their government, exerted through the intelligent management of an art commission appointed under a resolution of Congress, and whose functions shall be confined to the selection of designs for the embellishment of the Capitol and other public buildings and grounds at this national metropolis, and this committee entertain no doubt that the result will vindicate the ability of American artists to compete with any known to the world. But so long as by the employment of foreign artists and foreign workmen upon any department of the public buildings, whether mechanical, architectural, or ornamental, the native artist feels that some power divorces him from public sympathy, and that his profession and his proficiency in it are unappreciated by his country, we shall be deprived of the healthful influence of his genius."

In referring to what ought to have been done by American artists in decorating the Capitol, the committee says: "The committee regret to be compelled to abuse the deficiency in this particular, so far as the decorative work of the extension of the Capitol has progressed. An eagle and the national flag may be discovered occasionally amidst the confusion of scroll work and mythological figures presented to the eye; but the presence of conventional gods and goddesses, with meaningless scrolls and arabesques, albeit they may be wrapped in the 'red, white, and blue,' will never suggest to the American, as he wanders among the halls and committee-rooms, any idea to touch his heart or inspire his patriotism."

The committee's report, on the whole, was a good one; and if it did not enter into details, at least made valuable suggestions, pointed to the true source of the evil, and showed how an effective remedy could be applied. But those having charge of the work on the Capitol treated it with singular indifference. Indeed they regarded it as interfering with their prerogatives, and went on wasting money and disfiguring the interior of what was acknowledged to be one of the finest buildings in the world.

Foreign artists were still preferred and foreign decorators employed. The same ill-advised and expensive system of decoration was kept up, in which neither the history of the country nor the spirit or its institutions had any part. It seemed also to be the rule that one great failure made by a foreign artist was his best recommendation for securing another order. It may be generous to do this, but it certainly does not display good judgment, and even the generosity may be questioned when it is made at the expense of the people.

The most strange thing of all in the decoration of the Capitol—and it would seem incredible anywhere else—is the fact that to the artist who could paint so glaring a daub as that which now disfigures one of the panels in the House of Representatives, representing Washington receiving the commissioners, and which is a standing libel on the good taste of members, was given the order to paint a picture to fill one of the most prominent and important places in the Capitol, and which of all others should have been given to a native artist. In only one instance have we seen the apology advanced that we had not an American artist to whom we dare trust the order. The best answer to this is that if we had not, it would at least have been better to have let the place remain vacant until we had. In short, we could not well have got anything worse than we did for our money.

We refer to that strange combination of history and allegory set off in gaudy colors and unintelligible figures, and so confused as to completely bewilder those not versed in its mysteries, which fills what is called the eye of the dome. The conception and the execution are equally bad. The stranger from abroad very naturally asks how it was that with so much acknowledged talent among American artists—men who have shown no lack of inventive genius either—a foreigner should have been called in and intrusted with the painting of a picture which should have something in it to conform to the national character of the building, but which has not anything. Native artists are, in a measure, held responsible for the failure, inasmuch as it involves a censure on the art-taste of the country.

The artist, Mr. Brumidi, received $39,500 for this work. This was exclusive of material

and assistants, which were provided at the expense of the government. The whole cost of this picture cannot be far from $50,000. The same artist received from the government, from April 7, 1855, to December 3, 1864, $19,483 for decorating in fresco various committee and other rooms, at $10 per day. Other ornamental painting, Mr. Clark reports to Congress in February, 1869, in the halls of legislation, committee-rooms, and passages, has been done by the day's work, the cost of which cannot be ascertained from the rolls. It is safe to say that at least $30,000 more was spent on this specific description of decoration. This would make $99,483; of which Mr. Brumidi got $58,983—a pretty round sum, it will be admitted, to pay an artist whose works have been so severely criticised, and in whose favor but little can be said. This, however, is not all that was paid to Mr. Brumidi.

AN ART COMMISSION APPOINTED AND BETTER THINGS EXPECTED.

Mr. Humphrey Marshall submitted the committee's report to Congress on the 3d of March, 1859, (see Ex. Doc. No. 43, 36th Congress, 1st session,) and it was ordered to be printed. It was again brought up in the House, and action taken on it. Resolutions were introduced June 12, 1858, and March 3, 1859, authorizing the President of the United States to appoint an art commission, composed of three of the leading artists of the country, to examine and report on a system of decorating and embellishing our public buildings and grounds so as best to secure a harmonious result, &c., &c.

The President appointed Henry K. Brown, James R. Lambden, and John F. Kensett, as gentlemen well suited to represent the art interests of the country, and by their investigations give general satisfaction to the people. Mr. Kensett ranked high as a landscape painter; Mr. Brown had given us something really good in sculpture; and Mr. Lambden had attained a respectable position in his profession. It would have been exceedingly difficult to have selected men who would have been more acceptable to the profession, or whose opinions would have had greater weight with men of taste all over the country.

These gentlemen accepted the trust confided to them; assembled in Washington, and on the 15th of June, 1859, proceeded to their labors. What at first seemed to them a matter of easy solution increased in magnitude and difficulty as they progressed. They found those in charge of the Capitol inclined to regard the action of the commission as an interference with their rights. It must be confessed, also, that the commissioners do not seem to have been equal to the task before them, or capable of grasping all its difficult points. To paint a good landscape, or execute a good statue, was one thing; to devise a comprehensive and acceptable plan for the decoration of a great public building was quite another.

The result of this commission, which spent 13 months in Washington examining what had been done and deliberating over a plan of its own, at a cost to the government of $9,000 or more, was a brief and very unsatisfactory report of about seven document pages. Indeed, the commissioners seem to have confined themselves to condemning, and very properly, much that had been done, and directing their deliberations to questions of minor importance.

We are told, "The erection of a great national capitol seldom occurs but once in the life of a nation. The opportunity such an event affords is an important one for the expression of patriotic devotion, and the perpetuation, through the arts of painting and sculpture, of that which is high and noble and held in reverence by the people; and it becomes them as patriots to see to it that no taint of falsity is suffered to be transmitted to the future upon the escutcheon of our national honor in its artistic record." All of which simply means that native artists are the most proper persons to decorate a great national building like our Capitol; and that foreigners cannot be called in except at the risk of falsifying our history and our character. We may not state the point exactly as the commissioners intended it; but that is what they mean. The style of decoration begun had been nearly carried to completion at that time; and with so grave an error already committed, the difficulty of finding a remedy increased.

The commissioners very properly censured what had been done, which was very easy; but fell far below what was expected of them when it came to dealing with the future. If the system of decoration begun had been stopped where it was, or the foreigners discharged,

and the work given to Americans to finish, it is very likely we should have had a much worse failure to complain of than that which we now so loudly and justly condemn.

"It is presumed," add the commissioners, "to be the wish of government not only to decorate their present buildings in the best possible manner, but to use the opportunity which the occasion affords to protect and develop national art. If there is to be any discrimination between native and foreign artists, the preference should be given to citizens." Very likely those in power never for a moment took this question into consideration when they planned the internal arrangements of the Capitol extension, which, after all, are merely copies, with a few expensive experiments attempted as improvements. We look in vain among them for originality or inventive genius. Nor would any one of the commissioners have recognized the men who were performing this mere work of imitation as artists. The work they were doing was mere decorative painting, and could not by any stretch of technicality be elevated to the dignity of fine art.

"If," say the commissioners, "this assumption be correct"—meaning that the decoration of our public buildings shall express something of our national history—"the money expended by government for the last five or six years for this purpose has been misapplied. with the exception of commissions like those awarded to Crawford and Rodgers; for we find but little else which relates to our history, or in which the American mind will ever be interested. The arts afford a strong bond of national sympathy; and when they have fulfilled their mission here, by giving expression to subjects of national interest, in which the several States shall have been represented, it will be a crowning triumph of our civilization.

"Art, like nations, has its heroic history; its refined and manly history; its effeminate and sensuous history—the sure presage of national decay. Our art is just entering upon the first of these planes. Shall we allow it to be supplanted here in its young life by that of an effete and decayed race, which in no way represents us? Our pride should revolt at the very idea. We should not forget so soon the homely manners and tastes of our ancestors, and the hardships they endured with undaunted hearts; but it should be our pride to welcome their venerated forms in these buildings and grounds, and surround them with the insignia of a nation's love and homage; and patriotic hearts shall perform the noble work."

This may be very good as patriotism, but it is difficult to see what it has to do with the subject under consideration, which is simply to devise a plan of decoration, and advise as to the best way of doing the work. The commission wandered out of its way, and took a latitude hardly warranted, in its haste to condemn. They found an ill-contrived, badly ventilated and lighted, and unhealthy Senate chamber and Hall of Representatives, with an ample number of niches, panels, and staircases, where works of art, paintings, and statues could be put. It was the duty of the commissioners to tell us, in the simplest manner, what kind of works were best suited for the building, and how they should be placed to produce the best effect: and it is owing to the absence of this, and a disposition to condemn everything, and censure even where censure was not deserved, that the commission failed of its object. The homely tastes and manners of our ancestors, and the hardships they endured with undaunted hearts, had very little to do with the simple question of decorating the Capitol of a great nation like ours. Cappellano, Cusici, and Gevelot were misled by a similar fancy, and in attempting to depict the hardships and struggles of our ancestors gave us those hideous caricatures which excite ridicule, violate good taste, and disfigure the rotunda. These foreigners were no doubt sincere in believing that Americans know nothing about art, and that they must give us something to please a crude and barbarian taste. In short, we paid them well for making our great ancestors cut a sorry figure in art.

But as very few of us care about fixing the date of our ancestral history anterior to the Revolution, we will not stop to inquire how the manners of the present day will compare with that, or whether there had been any improvement at all. That there is a more correct and exacting taste in art cannot be denied; and it is the taste and manners of the present day that we must consult, respect, and adapt our art to; and it is because we have overlooked this fact, and attempted to imitate the models and style demanded by the taste of some effete nation, that we are found making so many costly failures. The same was the case in England; but the error has been corrected and a remedy applied through the medium of her art commissioners.

The report of our art commission, it must be confessed, falls far short of its object, and disappointed its best friends. In short, it was weak and feeble when compared with the searching and complete reports of the English art commission. This is why it has remained almost unnoticed by Congress; indeed, we have with difficulty found a member who had ever heard of it. The commission had it in its power to do much good, not only to the art interests of the country, but by showing how art could be made to promote the material industry of the country, and to give an increased value to our skilled labor. It is indeed to be regretted that the commissioners did not use their powers more extensively in this direction, show the duty of the government in the matter, and by pointing out the many branches of industry into which art, science, and even literature enter so largely, show where it would be justified in giving aid and protection to them. In the higher branches of skilled labor it must be acknowledged we are still behind France and England; and even there it has been much improved and made more valuable by the fostering hand of government, which, recognizing the great value of art as an educator, and science as a great developer of a nation's industry, has wisely protected and encouraged both.

The commission closed its report, of eight pages, with an estimate of $166,900 to carry out its recommendations. These recommendations, it must be said, are not always such as would improve the internal appearance of the building. What good four statues would be in the Senate retiring room it is difficult to see, if the interests of the public are to be served; nor will it seem quite clear what advantage is to be gained by placing two statues in the House of Representatives, one on each side of the Speaker's desk. Here is what they recommend:

For eight pictures to fill four panels in each of the halls of Congress	$40,000
For four statues for Senate retiring room	20,000
For two statues for eastern front door of south wing	5,400
For two colossal busts for Senate chamber	3,000
For two statues for House of Representatives	10,000
For painting Speaker's room	2,000
For painting private stairways and passages behind Speaker's chair	7,500
For painting room east of Speaker's room	2,000
For painting post office, south wing	4,000
For modelling rules for two eastern doorways	12,000
For casting and chasing the same in bronze, (original estimate)	16,000
For commencing the decoration of lobbies and halls of both wings of Capitol extension, and designs for the same	20,000
For casting statue of freedom for the new dome	15,000
For painting ante-room of Senate	10,000
Total	$166,900

Congress did not see what was to be gained by this large expenditure of money, and hence its refusal to act. Attempts have since been made to revive this commission, or have a new one appointed, but without success. Since that time art has in a measure been left to take care of itself.

"WESTWARD THE COURSE OF EMPIRE TAKES ITS WAY."

This picture, so conspicuous on the wall of the west stairway leading to the gallery of the Hall of Representatives, is by Emanuel Leutze, whose pictures are familiar in all the art galleries of the country. It is strongly American in its character, and very forcibly expresses the various features of the country in the far west, and the settlers who open it up to civilization. It attracts the attention of visitors more, perhaps, than any other picture in the Capitol; and the groups of persons seen standing before it every day when Congress is in session, studying its parts and discussing its merits, must be accepted as proof that it has qualities of no ordinary kind. Its figures are well drawn, bold, and strong, and stand

out vigorous and lifelike. The figure of the sturdy old guide, in the left corner, is painted with a freedom and boldness that few men beside Leutze could have drawn and executed.

The painter took his models from life; and those who knew him best can best appreciate the great care and time he gave to details, in order to have them correct. In short, some of the prominent figures in this picture are such as only a master-hand, and that guided by true genius, could paint. The more they are studied the better they will be appreciated.

We have said thus much because this picture has been singled out as a subject for a great deal of very adverse, and, we think, very unjust criticism. The sweeping nature of the attacks that have been made upon it, however, have lessened the force of their malignity. Some of these attacks have discovered greater skill in the art of condemning than of doing justice. It is also to be noticed that some of those most prominent in condemning this picture have exhibited an innocence of the commonest rules of art remarkable for persons who had set up for critics of art.

The painter is dead now; and we can afford to pass a more generous and just judgment on what he did. Even now writers are beginning to see beauties in Leutze's pictures where before they could only find faults. It is an instructive fact, that some of those who were most active in condemning Mr. Leutze's picture in the Capitol, did not even know to what style of painting it belonged. One said it was painted in "distemper;" a second said it was "a miserable fresco;" a third, more knowing than the rest, said it was not worth the "*canvas*" it was painted on. All three were wrong. It is painted in chromo silica, a style of painting quite popular in many parts of Europe, and even now practiced to a considerable extent. The old hard wall had to be softened, "pricked up," and prepared for the colors, which, after being applied, were allowed to remain and harden for a certain time, and were then "fixed," or covered with a substance that took the hardness and transparency of glass, and at the same time gave peculiar brilliancy to the colors.

Mr. Leutze had not had any practice in this style of painting. It was, in short, new to him—an experiment; and so far as producing brilliant effects in color is concerned it did not prove a success in his hands. Whether it was for want of proper knowledge of how the wall should be prepared, or that the *silica* did not perform its functions, and was not properly applied, we are not prepared to say; but the fact, however, is apparent that the colors have "sunk in," and are dull and lifeless. The substance that was to make them so clear and transparent has failed to perform what was expected of it.

It must not be forgotten, however, that the picture is in a bad light, and that the distance between it and the spectator is so short as to impair the view. If it were seen at a greater distance the train of figures which now seem to crowd confusedly into the foreground would then take more clear and distinct lines, and at the same time give proper development to the perspective, which is really good, but is regarded by many as one of the chief defects of the picture.

We have spoken of the merits of this picture; its defects are to be found in its composition and color. But some allowance ought to be made for the defects of composition even, when we consider the difficulties the artist had to contend with in order to give proper expression to so many features on one canvas. His great aim very properly was to show as much of the distinctive features of the country as possible and yet preserve the individuality of emigrant life, clear and distinct. To do this was no very easy task. The great question to be decided by the artist was whether he should make his figures subordinate to his landscape or his landscape subordinate to his figures. Out of two or three cartoons made he fixed on the one carrying out the former idea, and from this the present picture was painted. The next question was how he should put his figures in the foreground, grouped so as to properly balance the effects between landscape and figure, preserve harmony, and make both appear to the best advantage. The figures were good; the grouping of them defective, artistically. Seen at such a short distance, they seem to crowd on each other so much as to detract from the real merits of the picture. The artist himself discovered this defect when it was too late; and yet the defects of the picture are so entirely subordinate to its merits, that those who attempt to criticise it, if governed by a spirit of justice, can afford to point them out in kindness.

The scene here described is in the vicinity of Pike's Peak; and the story of the struggling emigrant, as he wends his way westward, his hopes, joys, and happiness at having reached the end of his journey and come in sight of the valley where he is to spend the rest of his life and make a home for his family, is cleverly and forcibly told.

The history of this picture is somewhat curious, and may be interesting to some. Mr. Leutze was a German by birth, but came to this country with his parents when a mere boy, and settled in Philadelphia. He grew up, became thoroughly identified with our character and institutions, and was as much an American in thought, feeling, and sentiment as any man born on the soil. He was impulsive, warmhearted, vigorous in thought and action, generous, and of acknowledged genius. He was devoted to his art, tenacious of his rights as an artist, and had given his life to historical painting, though it had not brought him fortune. He believed it, however, one of the most important engines in educating, civilizing, and advancing a people. And yet, with all his kindly traits of character, he was not a man calculated to make friends outside of the very narrow circle of those who knew him best. A generous patron of the fine arts in Philadelphia, early discovering Leutze's genius for color and drawing, sent him to Europe to study at his expense. Hence it was that he had the advantages of the best schools to be found there. He was a favorite and favored pupil at Dusseldorff, and the reputation secured for him there followed his return to this country, where his pictures were much sought after, and readily commanded great prices. Leutze was proud of his adopted country; and his highest ambition seemed to be to paint a picture for the Capitol of the nation, and in that way identify his name with the art history of the country.

General M. C. Meigs, at that time Superintendent of the Capitol, and to whom a large discretion was given over the work and decorations, assumed the responsibility of making a contract with Mr. Leutze for a picture for the Capitol. In this way the artist'sdesire was gratified. There are but few persons at the present time at all acquainted with art who do not approve this act of General Meigs, though it was somewhat censured then. A contract was made on the 9th day of July, 1861, when we were in the very midst of rebellion, and it is something to say that the picture was painted during the rebellion—a proof that art, science, and literature flourished in the free north in the midst of war.

Twenty thousand dollars was the price fixed upon to pay the artist for his work. It was necessary for him, however, to have an advance in money to relieve his wants and pay incidental expenses. He must go into the far west also, and make sketches of the country, and procure other material necessary to his picture. General Meigs took the responsibility of making such advances to the artist, in whom he had great confidence, as his needs demanded. After spending several months in the west the artist returned to Washington with his material, and completed his work in the autumn of 1862. The manner of making these advances was called in question by the Auditor, between whom and General Meigs a controversy was for some time carried on. The substance of this controversy may be gathered from a reply made by General Meigs at the time, and from which we make this extract:

"THE CAPITOL EXTENSION.

"The following payments to E. Leutze, for painting picture of 'Emigration' on wall over the stairway in the south wing of the Capitol, are objected to on account of proviso to acts of Congress of 12th of June, 1858, and 25th of June, 1860, viz. [Here various payments, amounting to $8,000, are specified, with their dates, &c., &c]

"Perhaps a short narrative of the facts attending this contract with Mr. Leutze, to paint a picture on the stairway of the Capitol, will show that the payments have been made to him without any intentional violation of law. The Auditor appears to find some discrepancies in dates and explanations:

"On my return from the Gulf of Mexico I was, by order of the new Secretary of War, directed to resume charge of the Capitol extension. Shortly after my return, viz., 2d of March, 1861, an appropriation for the Capitol extension, amounting to $250,000, was made, without any proviso prohibiting the completion of the decoration of the building.

"About this time, in view of this appropriation, Mr. Leutze, an eminent artist, was engaged to prepare a design for a picture. The picture, if the design should be approved and its painting authorized, was to be painted upon the wall of the Capitol. The appropriation of the 2d of March permitted this to be done. The negotiation at this time between Mr. Leutze and myself was verbal. He was anxious to have the opportunity to paint a picture and ready to make a design, which he undertook to do, so far as I remember, no question being made as to the terms upon which payment was to be made for that design.

"Very soon after giving the invitation I was ordered, by the President's (Lincoln) direction, back to the Gulf, to assist in an endeavor to save Fort Pickens from threatened capture by the rebels. Leaving very hastily I appointed another officer to act as my attorney at the Capitol extension, in order that the work might not be interrupted by my absence. * * *

"He was less familiar than myself with the history of the laws relating to the Capitol.

"The payment of 22d April, 1861, was made during my absence, without my knowledge, though I am otherwise responsible.

"The sum demanded by Mr. Leutze for his design, the prosecution of the work being threatened with interruption by the rebellion, was larger than I had expected.

"I consider, however, that I had a right in this case, as in many others, to pay an artist a fair price for a design, even if that design should not be carried out and executed. Many designs never executed in large upon works on the building were prepared and paid for during the progress of the Capitol extension, either being prepared by persons employed by the day or paid for by the piece. Artists as well as laborers and clerks require pay for the time they labor in order to live.

"I had, by the confidence of the administration under which I acted, been left to exercise a pretty free discretion in such matters; and this is the only one in which it has ever been questioned; and then not by the President or Secretary, but by the Auditor, whose remarks and careful citation of dates seem to indicate a suspicion that something is covered up in this arrangement, and also that an attempt has been made to cover the cost of the design in the subsequent contract. [The price demanded for the design was $3,500.]

"Mr. Leutze could not go on with the preparations for the picture, which required time, study, labor, and a journey into the plains for material—life and equipment of emigration—without money. Advances of money are not allowed, and yet some months must elapse before he could put his brush actually to the wall and begin painting. The plan, designs, studies, cartoons, &c., &c., were all needed, none of which was the painting itself.

"We came very near failing to make a contract at all, Mr. Leutze insisting upon the custom of artists to receive payment in advance while engaged in preliminary studies. Embarrassed by the rules of the treasury in regard to advances, I at length hit upon the form of contract finally signed, by which the sum of $3,500 in all should be paid as the cost of the design, to be finally deducted from the full sum of $20,000, which was fixed as the total cost of the picture, and its studies and designs.

"This," says General Meigs, "will explain the seeming discrepancy of dates which have excited the Auditor's suspicions. The whole transaction was open and correct. The contract, by express legislation, has since been approved by Congress, in the following terms, in the 11th section of the act making appropriations for the support of the army for the year ending 30th of June, 1863, and approved July 5.

"This section provides 'that the restriction or limitation contained in the proviso to the joint resolution, approved April 15, 1862, transferring the superintendency of the Capitol extension from the War Department to the Department of the Interior, shall not be so construed or applied as to prevent the completion of and the payment for the painting now in progress on the wall over the stairway on the western side of the south wing of the Capitol, agreeably to the terms of the contract made between General M. C. Meigs, on behalf of the government, and E. Leutze, the artist, on the 9th day of July, 1861.'"

Twenty thousand dollars seemed, at that time, a large amount to pay for a picture. Congress had not been accustomed to paying such a price for a work of art, and the apparent largeness of the sum created dissatisfaction in the minds of many members; and this, coupled with a strong opposition made by disappointed persons outside, led to the action which Con-

gress took in the matter, and which came very near stopping the work. Considerable censure, too, was cast on General Meigs for making such a contract, charges of extravagance being freely made. But time has shown that General Meigs did the best he could with the means at his disposal, and that he displayed good judgment in selecting Mr. Leutze to paint a picture for the Capitol. Mr. Leutze then stood at the head of his profession as an American historical painter; his position was recognized by the artists of the country and endorsed by the people.

It is something to the artist's credit to say that in a little more than eighteen months from the time the contract was made his picture was finished, and the contract fulfilled to the letter. He was a very rapid painter, as well as a man of great application.

CONGRESS MAKES ANOTHER CONTRACT FOR A PICTURE WITH MR. POWELL.

If twenty thousand dollars was considered a high price for a picture for the Capitol by Emanuel Leutze, what shall be said of the motive which prompted Congress to put so great a premium on mediocrity as to profess its readiness to give Mr. Powell $25,000 for another picture. It would have been only natural to suppose that an artist who had made one lamentable failure in painting a picture to be placed in the Capitol of the nation should at least be required to give some evidence of improvement in his profession before he were intrusted with an order for another.

This simple and very safe rule, however, does not seem to have been taken into consideration in the case of Mr. Powell. The picture already painted for us by him, and now in the rotunda, has been very generally and very justly condemned. Indeed, so glaring are its defects that generosity only lends itself to injustice in attempting to excuse them. Nor can it be urged for Mr. Powell that his position among the artists of his country was such as to give a shadow of excuse to Congress for again putting the Treasury of the United States under tribute to him. Strangest of all is the fact that although $10,000 was always considered as a very high price for the picture already painted for us by Mr. Powell, $25,000 was not thought too much for another. Had there been any certainty of our getting of Mr. Powell a picture worth $15,000 more than the one already in possession of the government, there might be some excuse for so remarkable a display of generosity. But the certainty was the other way.

The effect of such action on the part of Congress is seriously damaging to the interests of art all over the country. It discourages the true artist, seeking to obtain through merit alone a high place in his profession, by putting a premium on mediocrity. It discourages, also, because it overlooks that recognition which genius everywhere seeks as its reward; and it strikes a heavy blow at that rivalry, so healthy in its influence on the art interests of the nation, which looks forward hopefully when assured that merit only will secure the reward.

This contract was secured by a joint resolution introduced by Mr. Schenck, of Ohio, in March, 1865, and of which the following is a copy:

"*Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States af America in Congress assembled*, That the Joint Committee on the Library be, and they are hereby, directed to enter into a contract with William H. Powell, of the State of Ohio, to paint a picture for the United States, to be placed at the head of one of the grand staircases in the Capitol, illustrative of some naval victory; the particular subject of the painting to be agreed on by the committee and the artist: *Provided*, That the entire expense of said picture shall not exceed twenty-five thousand dollars; and two thousand dollars shall be paid to said Powell in advance, to enable him to prepare for the work; the remainder of said instalments at intervals of not less than one year; the last instalment to be retained until the picture is completed and put up." This was approved March 2, 1865.

It is now four years since a contract was made in accordance with this resolution; and yet Mr. Powell's picture is not produced. In short, the fact that he had received an order to paint another picture seemed to have been almost forgotten by Congress; and it was only recently that the matter was brought to the notice of the Library Committee, and some action taken on it. A somewhat curious state of things concerning this work was developed through a short inquiry. It was shown that Mr. Powell had received advances to the

amount of $10,000, though what progress he had made with his picture could not be satisfactorily ascertained. As long ago as last August Mr. Powell expressed a desire to have the committee visit his studio in New York, and see for themselves how far he had progressed. And yet, on the 1st of February, 1869, he is not quite ready to report progress, and expresses a desire that the time of exhibiting what progress he has made may be deferred for a time. We have not been able to ascertain exactly what progress has been made with this picture, notwithstanding we have made diligent inquiry. In the meantime the Library Committee, feeling that the matter called for prompt and decisive action, have stopped any further advances being made for the present. Drafts for $4,000 of the $10,000 received by Mr. Powell being held here by one of our banks, payment of them is being pressed on the committee, which, up to the present time, has refused to sanction their payment. But having made the contract, and given Mr. Powell such power to control his advances, the committee should see to it that innocent persons do not suffer by its own errors.

It is to be hoped that Mr. Powell will finish his picture without further delay, relieve the Library Committee of the embarrassment it now labors under with respect to further advances, and let the people see what they have got for their money.

The success of Mr. Powell in obtaining a "twenty-five thousand dollar order" from Congress brought a great number of ambitious young painters to Washington in pursuit of similar favors. Examples of what they could do were hung in various parts of the Capitol; and the number of artists with pictures they were willing to sell Congress, for sums ranging from $20,000 to $25,000, seemed to multiply every day. The Library Committee, however, proved a serious obstacle to the designs of those ambitious gentlemen, many of whom were unknown to the Academy of Designs of New York. Many of those gentlemen attributed their want of success to the inability of the Library Committee to appreciate what was really good in art. All sorts of influences have been brought to bear on this committee without effect. The present Library Committee, composed as it is of gentlemen of wealth, taste, and education, some of them being liberal patrons of art, have exercised a judgment in these matters highly commendable. They have shown that they can distinguish between merit and pretension; and, if they can prevent it, the government shall no longer offer $25,000 for mediocrity. The question of what American artists shall hereafter be employed to paint pictures for the Capitol, or such art galleries as we may hereafter possess, may, we think, be safely left in their hands. We recommend this because it is evident, from the action of Congress in the case of Mr. Powell, that the suggestions and recommendations of the art commissioners, composed of the artists, Kensett, Brown, and Lambden, received not the slightest attention. In fine, Congress paid no attention to it whatever. Such commissions have done much good in England and France; but it was because they were made very thorough, and the governments to which they addressed themselves were governed by their advice.

PROPOSITION BY ALBERT BIERSTADT TO PAINT TWO PICTURES FOR CONGRESS.

During the session of 1866–'67 Hon. N. P. Banks, of Massachusetts, in the House of Representatives, introduced a joint resolution to employ Mr. Albert Bierstadt to paint two pictures, such as should be agreed upon by the Library Committee and the artist, to fill vacant panels in the Hall of Representatives. This resolution was introduced without opposition and referred to the Library Committee. This was a movement in the right direction, and was highly commended by the press all over the country. Mr. Bierstadt then stood at the very head of his profession as a landscape painter, capable of reflecting nature in all her truth and purity. In addition to this, it was felt that he would give us something really good and true in art—something that would be a credit to our national taste, represent fairly the progress we had made in art, and be appreciated by the government and the people.

The committee called a meeting to consider the question of employing Mr. Bierstadt to paint these pictures, and, we are informed, were disposed to make a liberal contract with him. A letter, however, was placed before the committee from Mr. Bierstadt, demanding $40,000 each—$80,000 for two pictures. This was alike unfortunate for Mr. Bierstadt and

the interests of American art, which he professed to represent. The demand seemed to the committee so exorbitant, and so at variance with the spirit of patriotism which should inspire an artist to get one of his works on the walls of the Capitol, that the proposal was promptly rejected, and was not again brought up in the committee.

Very likely Mr. Bierstadt was prompted in this matter as well by the large prices he was securing from private citizens as by the large price given to Mr. Powell by Congress. If Congress could afford to pay Mr. Powell $5,000 more for a picture than it had paid Emanuel Leutze, Mr. Bierstadt very naturally thought Congress would not object to give him $15,000 more than it had given Mr. Powell for a picture. In short, we cannot more clearly set forth the bad effect of Congress giving orders for works of art indiscriminately than is illustrated in this one transaction. If an artist is to be magnificently rewarded because he has made a magnificent failure; if all proper tests are to be set aside, and the walls of the Capitol are to be given over to those who can find friends in Congress to encourage and press their pretensions, genius has nothing to hope for from the government, which should be its first and best protector.

It is very much to be regretted that such artists as Mr. Bierstadt, Mr. Church, and two or three others we might mention, are not represented on the walls of the Capitol. The whole art world has paid homage to their genius; and while pictures by them would elevate and instruct the people, and faithfully represent the progress we had made in art, they would also act as a standard by which to judge between real merit and pretension—to correct our taste for art. They would also act as a powerful instrument in checking a spirit, now too prevalent, for disfiguring the walls of the Capitol with works, which have no claim to merit.

It has been urged, however, that landscapes are not appropriate to the decoration of great public buildings; that they do not record important events in its history. But landscapes can be so expressed as to serve a great and good purpose in promoting the interests of a people. That they can be made more useful in interesting and instructing a people than poor and bad figure or historical paintings, so called, there cannot be a doubt. In short, a careful review of the pictures in the Capitol will show that, great as has been the progress our artists have made in landscape painting, we are yet far behind Europe in figure or historical painting. In casting about for an historical painter who can do something creditable to the art progress of the country, and to whom it would be safe to entrust an order for a picture for the Capitol, it is difficult, we confess, to find even one now living who has made any great reputation with the people. Leutze is dead, Weir paints nothing for the public now, and we have only Rothermel, as an historical painter, who is at all recognized by the people.

This is a singular confession, yet it is true. Historical painting has not proved profitable to those who pursued it, most of them either having died poor or deeply in debt. Hence it is that most of our leading artists have chosen the more profitable and less arduous style of landscape painting.

Decorative art has very nearly performed its part in the Capitol. Whether the expensive style chosen was the best for the purpose is a question that has been much discussed. It has always seemed to us that a more subdued, less expensive, and more impressive style of decoration would not only have been more appropriate to such a building as the Capitol, but have served a better purpose and been more in harmony with the correct taste of our people.

It now only remains for high art to step in and do its part in filling the niches and panels with statuary and pictures, such as shall be appropriate to the building. That the preference should be given to American artists, whenever they have shown themselves capable ot producing works of real merit, cannot be too forcibly urged on Congress. Care ought also to be taken that none but artists who have established their reputation with the public, and have also been properly recognized by the principal academies of design, shall be entrusted with orders to paint at the expense of the government. We cannot afford to give up these panels and niches to mere experiment. If we have not now got artists we dare trust with orders to execute, we had better let the niches and panels of the Capitol remain vacant until we have.

PRIVATE GALLERIES IN THE CITY.

The more we can embellish and make Washington attractive, the deeper will be the interest taken in it by the whole country. As a nation we have increased so rapidly in wealth and power, have so far exceeded anything the world ever saw before in mental and material development, and as a people have become so engaged in the race for riches, as almost to forget our duty to art, science, and literature, to which we are indebted for so much that has made us great and powerful. A great nation like ours, then, should have a capital city worthy of representing it, and in which all the beauties art, science, and literature are capable of developing might be found, for the instruction and entertainment of the whole people. And yet Washington presents only the crude beginning of what we intend to do hereafter. We have our magnificent and costly public buildings, but, singular as it may seem to strangers from abroad, we have not an art gallery or museum. We have only one building "Dedicated to Art," and for that even are indebted to the munificence of a private citizen, who erected it at a cost of $160,000, or thereabouts, and intended it as a gift to the city and for the benefit of the people.

And yet art has always found warm friends and generous patrons in Washington. The taste for it has been steadily improving and its influence increasing, until now some of its more wealthy citizens may be numbered with the best patrons American art has. Mr. W. W. Corcoran, Mr. G. W. Riggs, and Mr. Charles Knap have each valuable and well-selected collections of pictures, among which are to be found some of the very best specimens of the skill of our leading artists. The liberal encouragement these gentlemen have given to American art, and the correct judgment they have shown in the selection of works, offer examples it might be profitable for the government to follow.

There stands on the corner of Pennsylvania avenue and Seventeenth street a spacious and chastely designed brown-stone building, which seems to form a more than ordinary attraction to strangers, and bears the significant inscription: "Dedicated to Art." You instinctively feel, while looking at the building, that art will find a pleasant and appropriate home in it. This building, to which we have referred above, was erected by Mr. W. W. Corcoran, who intended to transfer his valuable collection of pictures, statuary, and other works of art to it, and present it to the city for the benefit of the people. Unfortunately, the war interposed to prevent the carrying out of this worthy purpose. Instead of becoming the home of art, and diffusing its kindly influences over society, the building was taken possession of by the government and transferred to the Quartermaster General, who has occupied it ever since.

As Mr. Corcoran intended to confer a benefit on the people, and to do for the city what should have been done by the government, it is to be hoped that those in authority will see the wisdom of giving the building up to its owner as speedily as possible, so that it may be devoted to the benevolent purpose he designed it for. The good such an institution as this would have conferred on a city like Washington cannot be too highly estimated. We are informed that, among other things, it was the intention of the owner to have a yearly or semi-yearly exhibition of pictures by American artists, and to which artists all over the country would be invited to contribute. Exhibitions like these, at the capital of the nation, where persons of taste, wealth, and education from all parts of the country assemble during winter for entertainment and instruction, would be of great benefit to artists and the art interests of the country. They would give to such artists as had only a local a general and extended reputation.

We believe also that it was the intention of Mr. Corcoran to establish, in connection with this building, schools of art, in which drawing, painting, and sculpture would be taught free. When we reflect how much good has been derived by the people of France and England through these and similar schools, and what they have done for the skilled industry of these countries, we cannot too highly appreciate the MOTIVE which prompted the act.

THE ECONOMY OF OUR GOVERNMENT, IN ITS ENCOURAGEMENT OF ART AND SCIENCE, AS COMPARED WITH THOSE OF FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

The charges so frequently male in this country against Congress, of extravagance in spending the people's money for pictures and statuary, have but a very slight foundation to stand upon. Most of them are made by persons who give but little attention to the subject, and very likely could not be made to appreciate the power art and science exercise in stimulating and expanding our industrial enterprises. Those who will take the trouble to compare the estimates (government) for the United States, France, and England for a single year will see at a glance how inconsistent those charges are.

The estimates for the Capitol, made for the session of 1867-'8, are as follows:

Appropriated March 2, 1867:	
For continuing work at the Capitol extension	$250,000
For minor repairs	12,000
For heating the Supreme Court-room by steam, law library and the passages and stairways adjacent, the court-room, and for other improvements and repairs of said court-room	15,000
For repairs of the dome of the Capitol	15,000
For casual repairs of all the furnaces under the Capitol	500
For lighting the rotunda of the Capitol by electricity	3,000
For eight additional Monatechie columns	11,200
For ventilating apparatus	9,000
For supplying deficiency in appropriation for work on the Capitol extension	29,800
Appropriated July 20, 1868:	
For repairing and finishing Capitol extension	100,000
For work on the new dome	5,000
	450,500

This, it must be borne in mind, however, is exclusively for the Capitol and for work to be carried on under the direction of the architect. The appropriations for other public buildings, furniture, repairs, &c., would reach nearly $1,000,000, making well on to $1,500,000. In all this amount scarcely anything will be found appropriated to the encouragement of art, science, or education.

Let us turn now to the estimates for the civil service of England for 1867-'8 and see what we find there. Under the head of royal palaces we find—

	£	s.	d.
For restoring pictures and frames	£200	0	0
PUBLIC BUILDINGS.			
National Gallery	277	0	0
National Portrait Gallery, repairs	85	0	0
Rent paid for National Portrait Gallery	350	0	0
Stained windows, Parliament Hall	2,000	0	0
For furniture of National Portrait Gallery	26	2	5
For furniture of National Gallery	72	10	11
NEW HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.			
For St. Stephen's crypt, (frescoed,) Royal Gallery, and Queen's Robing-room	5,140	0	0
For ornamental railing and other works in Parliament square	6,000	0	0
PEERS' ROBING-ROOM.			
Fresco painting, ("Judgment of Daniel,") by J. R. Herbert, R.A.	6,000	0	0
Three works, by E. W. Ward, R. A., for the Commons' corridor, at £600 each	1,800	0	0

Amount recommended to be paid Mr. Ward on the completion of his pictures over and above	£800	0	0
For two statues of British sovereigns now in course of execution	1,600	0	0
Enlargement of National Gallery	700	0	0
Repairs and improvement of Royal Irish Academy	352	0	0
Repairs and improvements of National Gallery of Ireland	401	0	0
During the same session of Parliament there was voted for public education in Great Britain 1867–'8	705,865	0	0
Education, Science, and Art Department	206,387	0	0
For public education in Ireland	334,700	0	0
Royal Irish Academy	700	0	0
National Gallery of Ireland, for works of art	2,183	0	0
National Gallery of England, works of art	15,895	0	0
British National Portrait Gallery	1,650	0	0
Scientific works and experiments	13,215	0	0
Universal Exhibition at Paris	53,799	0	0
	1,359,400	2	4

Or more than six million and a half of dollars.

Twenty-two thousand pounds of that appropriated to education, science, and art, was devoted to what are called schools of art for the laboring poor artisans, who attend night classes; national scholarships, free students, salaries of teachers, living models, &c., &c. There was also voted the same year, for the completion and decoration of new and prominent buildings for the National Portrait exhibitions, £195,000. One hundred and five thousand four hundred and eighty persons received lessons in drawing, &c., &c., through the aid of Parliament, at a cost to the government of 5s. 2¾d. each. Seven hundred and four local medals and books and six thousand nine hundred and seventy-nine drawing instruments and books were awarded during the year among one hundred and five thousand four hundred and eighty persons receiving art instruction.

There are thirty-nine training schools for art masters and mistresses at South Kensington, and one hundred and four art schools throughout the kingdom.

It will here be seen from this how carefully England guards and protects, and how extensively she encourages, art and science, both of which enter so largely into her skilled labor, and at the same time do so much to extend and increase the value of her commerce.

The government of France gives 1,400,000 francs yearly to the encouragement of art alone. Portions of this sum find their way into the most obscure towns and villages in the country, where every child in the municipal schools is taught at least the rudiments of drawing. France, in short, makes art an important medium of educating her people. The Beaux Arts sends a pupil every year to Rome, pays his expenses while there, (a period of four years,) living, tuition, and everything, in order that he shall receive the benefit of Italian study. In 1867 the government offered a premium of 100,000 francs to the artist who would paint the best picture during the year. As to the famous public galleries, the Louvre and Luxembourg, an artist has only to distinguish himself by his works to be liberally paid to represent himself upon their walls. The skilled labor of France, pre-eminent all over the world, and which is the very life of her commerce, owes its importance more to the encouragement given to art by the government than anything else.

THE MARBLES AND BRONZES IN THE CAPITOL.

Perhaps the most interesting features presented by art in the Capitol are to be found in the marbles and bronzes. The marked improvement made by American sculptors from time to time is nowhere more prominent. That we should have made mistakes at first was only natural. Similar mistakes were made in England, even at a later day. Most of ours, however, were the result of a doubt of the skill and experience of our own artists, and a too implicit confidence that we must look abroad for anything good in art. Some of these mar-

les are very offensive to our taste, so coarse, and even vulgar in design, as to be regarded with regret.

And here again we have the fact forcibly presented to us that foreign artists, however anxious they may be to excel in their art, rarely comprehend the spirit of our institutions or properly appreciate the tastes of our people. This is seen in the prominence given to the grotesque and uncouth presented in the designs of some of these marbles, instead of keeping them more in harmony with the architectural unity of the building.

We now have the most encouraging signs of improvement, and feel satisfied that a more correct taste predominates; and to none are we more indebted for this than to American artists themselves. The works of Crawford, Powers, Rodgers, and Stone are an encouraging feature of what sculpture has done to redeem the Capitol from the bad effects of what had been done by others, and which, if they do not make us entirely overlook these wretched failures, make us feel more charitably toward them.

The difficulty of getting at the facts connected with some of these marbles we have found to be very great, owing to the orders being given for them and the works paid for by different departments. In some instances the President was authorized to make the contract for a work and pay the artist; in others, the War Department assumed the authority and paid, or rather advanced, the artist money without any reference to Congress. Again, Congress assumed control over all art matters, and made contracts and negotiated with artists through the Library Committee. The State Department, too, has had something to do with art; and the Interior Department has more than once had the matter in its keeping. There are instances, also, where one department made the contract for a work of art and another paid for it. It can be very easily seen how much this singular complication must have increased the difficulty of getting at the facts as to what was paid, who the artists were, and under what circumstances their work was performed. It was also important to know whether some of these works were executed from designs by the sculptors themselves or were a mere development of the ideas of some one else. But no record evidence on which the slightest reliance can be placed is to be found. As an example of this we may here mention that we have made diligent search in all the departments for some record evidence of how much was paid to Cusici, Cappellano, and Gevelot for those wretched caricatures which so disfigure the rotunda and puzzle the wits of strangers to tell what they mean, but without success. It would have been interesting to know under what circumstances they were designed and executed, and whether these artists or some one else was responsible for them. A number of persons have theories respecting them as absurd as they are unreliable. A gentleman who has been many years about the Capitol, and whose friends regard him as a profound authority in art matters, asserts that these grotesque works are from designs by Jefferson. He adds also that they are nothing more than an expression of the dislike he was known to entertain for certain persons and things. Jefferson never liked the Pilgrims, he says; and as for Penn, he was by no means an admirer of his character, regarding him as a speculator in treaties with the Indians, and who had after all a mean way of always getting the best of the bargain. He also assures us that the unsteady condition in which Gevelot has made his somewhat dilapidated specimen of the tribe appear as he lands from the boat and looks doubtingly at the ear of corn presented by the Indian, was intended as a keen bit of satire aimed at New England. We can, perhaps, understand Jefferson's idea of representing Penn as a quiet, well-fed, and well-disposed old gentleman with an eye to business, but why should he desire to punish brave Daniel Boone by illustrating him in all the hideousness art was capable of investing him with?

Of course there is not a word of truth in the above. Jefferson had a good deal of natural sympathy for art and cultivated a taste for it while in Paris; and however strong his likes or dislikes for persons and things, he certainly was not the man to have made art perform so disagreeable a part as it is made to do in these relievos. We must not forget to mention also that both Mr. Jefferson and John Q. Adams had taste for drawing, were friends and patrons of art, and have left us fair specimens of their skill in the Capitol. They also advocated a liberal encouragement of art by the government, appreciating fully how much it improved the mechanical labor of the country and extended the interests of commerce.

In getting up this work it has been our aim to provide a means whereby Congress could see at a glance what it had cost to decorate the Capitol, what encouragement the government has given to art from time to time, what each work cost, when and by whom it was executed, and whether by an American or foreigner. A comparison of what has been done can then be made, and a correct judgment formed as to what ought to be done in the future. We are indebted to Mr. Clarke, the present architect of the Capitol, for many valuable facts relating to the bronzes and marbles of a more recent date; also for a valuable report just made to Congress by him in response to a resolution introduced by Mr. Hubbard, of Connecticut, calling for information on the subject of art and decoration.

THE MARBLES, RELIEVOS, AND BRONZES.

No. 1. In treating of these marbles and relievos we come first to what has been done in the rotunda. Here we have those grotesque exaggerations of Cusici, Cappellano, and Gevelot—the two first Italian, and the other a French artist—works which few persons entering the rotunda can tell what they were intended to illustrate. They certainly add nothing to history, and are simply a libel on our taste as a people. Art is here made to do what it can to make human nature hideous. Such works do not appeal to the finer and more elevating sensibilities of our nature, and hence the best interests of art are not promoted by them. No doubt these foreign artists were misled in regard to our national tastes. Indeed, it is difficult to suppress the thought that those artists fancied they were designing and executing for a people very similar in tastes to the Egyptians and Assyrians; that they regarded our taste as of a sadly primitive order, and that we were a people soon to pass away, and to be remembered only as a rude race who had chiselled its history in energetic but crude relief for the study and wonder of those who came after us. These works were executed in 1825-'26: but although we have made diligent search in nearly every department of the government we have not been able to ascertain by record proof what was paid for them. N. Gevelot's name is mentioned in the general appropriation bill for 1827 as receiving $750, balance of compensation. It is stated, on pretty good authority, that the vouchers on which these artists were paid were destroyed by fire in the Capitol. It is also stated, on pretty good authority, that $3,500 each was the price paid. Cost, $14,000.

No. 2. The elaborately designed wreath just over the works described above and intersected with heads of Sir Walter Raleigh, La Salle, and Cabot, names very appropriately enshrined here, were by Cappello and Cusici. We have as yet searched in vain for record proof of what this work cost.

No. 3. The next object of art which attracts attention is the stately figure of "Liberty," in plaster, in the old hall of representatives, and over where the Speaker's desk used to stand. The design is bold and strong, and the execution exceedingly delicate; in short, the whole work is a proof that Cusici, the artist, could do something really good when confined within the limits of work he had been accustomed to. The eagle, just beneath the female figure, is chiselled in stone by an Italian artist of the name of Valperti. It is an exceedingly fine piece of work, and was copied from nature, the artist having procured one of the finest specimens of the bird ever seen in the country for a model. This is the only specimen of his work the artist has left in this country. Valperti was an acknowledged genius, but a man of eccentric habits, and misanthropic. He came to Washington poor, but with the hope of finding a new field for the exercise of his genius and bettering his condition. He had been led to believe that he would get important orders from Congress for works to decorate the public buildings. In this he was mistaken; and being of too sensitive a nature to push his own claims, did not succeed. After finishing this one work he suddenly disappeared from Washington, and nothing more was heard of him. It is very generally believed that he committed suicide by drowning, in the Potomac, and in that way put an end to his troubles. Here, again, we can find no record proof of what was paid him for this work. It is said by one who professes to know, that $500 was paid the artist, and that he was more than seven months executing the work.

No. 4. Just over the door opening into the old hall of representatives stands the statue of a female, in white marble, representing "History." There is something exquisitely chaste

about the conception and execution of this work, and few persons, as they pass to and fro, casting a hurried glance at it, appreciate its rare merits. "History" stands in a winged car, also of white marble, elaborately worked, with a book open, and recording the events of the nation as she rolled round the globe. All this beautiful piece of art is merely an accessory to the House clock. The wheel of the car is made the dial on which the hands record time. The artist who designed and executed this clever work was an Italian of the name of Franzoni, who died in this city a short time after this work was finished and put up. We have been unable to find any record evidence of what this work cost. It is only proper to state here that we have been informed, and on what we consider good authority, that many of the vouchers on which these works were paid for are now to be found amongst the records of the Commissioner of Public Buildings. Having made several applications to General Michler, the present incumbent, for information and an examination of the records of his office, we regret to report that we have made them in vain. We have not been able to get any information whatever from that office, though in every other department of the government we have received prompt attention and every facility in the power of the officials in charge extended to aid us in prosecuting our object.

No. 5. The "Genius of America," so called, as represented on the east front tympanum, and represented in a female figure of colossal size, is another work of art which attracts the attention of the spectator. The female figure is drawn with great strength, and fidelity to nature, and the details are very delicately worked out. It is said that this very expressive work was designed by John Q. Adams, who was a friend and patron of the artist. It certainly developes more than ordinary invention, and more than artists in general are accredited for by the public. The figure is semi-colossal; a shield is in her right hand, and poised and inscribed on it are the letters U. S. A., emblazoned in a ray of glory. The shield rests on an altar or tablet, on the front of which a wreath of oak leaves is ingeniously worked, and in which is the inscription: "July 4th, 1776." There is a broad spear behind her, and her head is crowned with a star; and she turns anxiously towards the figure of "Hope," with her anchor, to whose prophesies she seems to be listening with marked attention. The design of this is certainly very fine, better, indeed, than the execution—full of poetry, thought, fire, and prophesy. If it were due to the inventive genius of John Q. Adams we are glad to record it as another laurel in the flower of his fame. But we may here be permitted to state that we have not been able to find, by record evidence, that Mr. Adams had anything to do with designing this work or who the artist was that executed it. The Commissioner of Public Buildings may be able to afford the people some light on this subject.

No. 6. The bronze statue of Jefferson, in front of the President's house, a piece of work that would do credit to any artist for its simplicity and naturalness, was the gift of Captain Levy, of the navy, an admirer of Jefferson, who subsequently purchased his old homestead, from which he was driven by the enemies of the government at the outbreak of the late war. There was something beautiful, even touching, in this genuine old sailor's love for Jefferson, to whose memory he raised this statue. No one has yet been able to find out how much was paid for it, or who the artist was who executed the work. It is reported, and believed by many, that the work was done in Genoa, by an Italian artist.

No. 6. In the appropriation bill passed Marth 3, 1829, there is a clause "to enable the President to contract with Luigi Persico to execute two statues for the east front of the Capitol; and to enable the President to carry out the design $4,000 are appropriated. These are the statues of "Peace" and "War," so beautiful in their design and execution, which now stand in niches on the east front of the Capitol. The design, however, is merely a copy. Persico has here shown that in a single figure he was capable of doing something really good. Persico was a favorite with Americans at that time, no one believing that an American could ever do anything in sculpture that would be even respectable. Persico, however, must have progressed very slowly with his work, for on referring to the records we find that an appropriation for niches for these statues was not made by Congress until 1835, six years after. These statues cost $12,000 each, the last payment being made in 1833.

No. 7. The first instance we have of an American being employed to do anything in marble for the government is in 1836. In that year Hiram Powers, we find, was paid, through an

appropriation by Congress, $500 for an ornamental fountain, in marble, to decorate the west front of the Capitol. The whole cost of this fountain was $1,022, of which Mr. Powers got only $500. The work was so satisfactory, however, as to surprise and even enlist the admiration of those who had before held that we never could expect anything good in sculpture from an American. Indeed, it was confessed on all sides that an American might do something good in art, and, in time, be appreciated by his own countrymen. In short the success of Mr. Powers in this early effort of his was a new event in the history of American sculpture. And yet, notwithstanding he had here given an unmistakable proof of his genius, and needed encouragement from his government to do something better, Congress turned a deaf ear to him, continued to bestow its favors on foreigners, and seemed to forget that there was such a thing as native talent.

No. 8. In the appropriation bill passed March 2, 1831, John Frazee is awarded $400 for a bust of John Jay, for the Supreme Court-room. It was not good, however, and objection was afterwards made to receiving it.

No. 9. On May 5, 1832, an amendment was introduced into the appropriation bill giving $4,000, "if so much shall be deemed necessary by the Committee on the Library, for the purchase of the bust of Thomas Jefferson, executed by Ceracci, and now in the possession of Mr. Jefferson's executors, the same to be placed in some conspicuous place."

GREENOUGH'S STATUE OF WASHINGTON.

No. 10. The undraped colossal statue of Washington, sitting clumsily on a broad, low pedestal in the green park, east of the Capitol, is by Horatio Greenough, an American, and has been the subject of more ridicule and adverse criticism than any other work of art in the Capitol, perhaps in the world. The statue is in itself a contradiction; and the first question which naturally suggests itself to the stranger is as to what the artist intended to express through it. The history of this work of art is alike curious, interesting, and instructive—instructive we say, for if dearly-bought experience had any weight with us, or did anything to shape our future relations with art, the lesson here written would be of great value to us. It would teach us that art has certain fixed rules which cannot be violated except at heavy cost in money and reputation. It will not be denied that Mr. Greenough was a man of genius, capable of doing something really good, but his mind ran to exaggeration, and his ruin was the result of a too liberal government patronage, which permitted him to indulge his fancies rather than correct and improve his judgment. Greenough was a man of generous sympathies, but of an impulsive nature. An exacting critic himself, quick to point out the faults of others, ready always to instruct Congress in its duty to American artists, he was singularly unfortunate in what he did for the government. He had a number of plans he was always ready to urge on Congress for decorating the Capitol, knew exactly what works of art should be executed, and where they should be placed. But none of his plans were practicable; and it is only generous to say that his execution was not equal to his conception. In short, we had in Horatio Greenough another forcible example of the fact that a very good critic may be an indifferent artist. And yet Mr. Greenough had given us several examples of artistic taste of a very high order, as well as a delicate appreciation of the beautiful.

In proceeding to design his "Washington" it is evident that Mr. Greenough departed from the ordinary rules of art and set out to indulge his fancy and to give the world a statue of Washington such as it had never seen before. In that he succeeded admirably. But his Washington was so different from the accepted ideal of the people and so at variance with what they conceived to be correct taste as to bring down upon it very general condemnation. The effect of this was to retard rather than advance the interests of American art at the Capitol. It might be bold, striking, and undoubtedly it was original, the people said, but it was a Washington of the artist's fancy only. They preferred something approximating as near as possible to the original, as seen by their fathers.

It must be borne in mind, however, that so colossal a statue, and in such a posture, is seen to very great disadvantage on so low a pedestal. It should be elevated at least twenty-five feet from the ground. Then its lines would assume a more graceful and delicate outline,

and the whole effect be more in harmony to the eye. Its defects are made too apparent to the eye where it stands. Elevated at the distance we have described, many of them would disappear. It had been the ambition of Mr. Greenough's life to receive from Congress an order for a statue of Washington, so that he could give freedom to some of his peculiar conceptions and embody them in marble. This desire was gratified by a clause introduced into the civil and diplomatic service bill, July 14, 1832, "to enable the President of the United States to contract with a skilful artist, an American, to execute, in marble, a *pedestrian* statue of George Washington, to be placed in the centre of the rotunda of the Capitol." This led to the contract with Greenough for his Washington. Five thousand dollars was appropriated for carrying the contract into effect. It will be observed that the wording of this contract is, to say the least, not very clear. It was even then a question as to what constituted a pedestrian statue, and various opinions were given. If the government contracted for a pedestrian statue, the question arises as to what and how the changes were effected that found it accepting Washington in a sitting posture. There is no record evidence showing why this change was made; and it is to be presumed that the artist followed the bent of his own will and took a liberty not warranted by the contract. Certain it is that Mr. Greenough put the most liberal construction he could on the contract, and proceeded in excess of its limitations, as well in regard to the amount of money to be paid as the design of the work.

Five different appropriations for the payment of this work were made, as follows:

July 14, 1832,	statue of Washington		$5,000
March 3, 1833,	"	"	5,000
June 27, 1834,	"	"	5,000
March 13, 1835	"	"	5,000
Sept. 9, 1841,	"	" in final settlement	8,000

The last amount of $8,000 was made through a joint resolution of Congress, authorizing "that the accounts of Horatio Greenough, for expenses incurred in the execution of the *pedestrian* statue of Washington," (it will be seen that Congress still designated it a pedestrian statue,) "authorized by a resolution of Congress, February 13, 1832, and the accounts and charges for freight of the same to the United States, be settled, under the direction of the Secretary of State, according to the rights of the claimants under their several contracts, liberally construed: *Provided*, That not more than $6,500 shall be allowed the said Greenough, in the event that the Secretary of State, under such construction as aforesaid, shall consider him entitled to charge the same; and not more than $6,000 for the freight aforesaid, and detention of the ship, and for an iron railing around the statue, including the sum of $1,500 assumed to be paid by the said Greenough, in addition to the original contract, as made by Commodore Hull; and the sum of $15,100, or as much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated for the purposes aforesaid."

Five thousand dollars was also appropriated for the purpose of removing the said statue from the navy-yard at Washington. Eight years had passed since the making of the contract, and we were notified that the statue of Washington by Greenough, of which we had heard so much from travellers abroad, was ready. But it was in Florence, an unwieldy mass, weighing nearly twenty-one tons, and the next question was how we were to get it to this country.

Congress passed a resolution on the 27th of May, 1840, authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to take immediate measures for the importation and erection of the statue of Washington by Greenough. A ship of war was sent to take it on board, but it was found that her hatches, more than ordinarily large, were not sufficient to admit it into her hold without the coamings being knocked away and her decks ripped up, an operation Commodore Hull was not willing she should be subjected to. A merchantman (the American ship Sea, Captain Delano) was at length chartered, her hatches enlarged, and the deck otherwise prepared to receive the unwieldy pedestrian statue. The danger to a ship with such a solid mass in her hold, in case of a gale, will very readily be appreciated by any one having the least knowledge of nautical affairs. We had paid for the statue; and now the great responsibility of getting it home safe, to say nothing of the expense, began to loom up in all its magnificent

proportions. The statue, however, reached here in the spring of 1841; and here a new series of troubles began. The labor, expense, and time required to move so heavy a mass, pedestrian though it was, even for so short a distance, was very great, and the feeling of relief caused by its safe arrival at the Capitol is expressed in forcible language in an article in the columns of the National Intelligencer at the time.

The statue, when uncovered, instead of exciting admiration, created a feeling of very general disappointment. Then it was found that the doors at the east front of the Capitol were not large enough to admit it, and measures had to be taken to cut away the masonry and increase the space. This incurred another heavy expense. The statue was got into the rotunda at last, and here another serious difficulty arose. It was found that its great weight, nearly 21 tons, might seriously damage the floor of the rotunda, to avoid which an abutment of solid masonry was built between the first and second stories, incurring another heavy expense.

Nor was this all. It soon became apparent, even to the artist himself, that the centre of the rotunda of the Capitol was not a fit resting-place for this unfortunate statue. Indeed, it soon became more of an incumbrance than an ornament, and afforded a ready subject for such ungenerous critics as were then hurling their merciless satire at it. The artist saw that he had made a serious mistake, as well in regard to light as in not adapting his statue to the proportions of the rotunda; but to again set it in motion would involve another heavy expense, and perhaps seriously damage his reputation.

Convinced that the statue would not remain long where it was, Mr. Greenough wrote a letter to the committee of Congress asking its removal to a more suitable place, complaining that the light in the rotunda was defective, and that in it the statue could not be seen to advantage.

Congress, it seems, was glad to have an opportunity of voting it out of the Capitol, and proceeded to act on Mr. Greenough's suggestions, and grant his request.

On Wednesday, May 11, 1842, (see Globe reports, second session 27th Congress,) the subject of the removal of the statue to a more suitable place came up in the house, when an interesting but somewhat acrimonious debate followed. A short account of this debate cannot fail to interest the reader:

The next amendment reported from the Senate was, "for the removal of the statue of Washington, under the direction of the joint committee of both houses of Congress, the account for which shall be audited and certified by said committee, a sum not exceeding $1,000."

Mr. Keim, of Pennsylvania, "moved to amend this by an appropriation of $3,500 for the construction of a suitable pedestal to the statue, to be approved by the President and heads of departments."

Mr. Calhoun interrupted with a few remarks, which were inaudible to the reporters.

Mr. Keim continued, and referred to a letter from the Secretary of the Navy (who, it seems, had previously entered into an oral agreement with another artist for a pedestal) in explanation of the propriety of the provision proposed. He (the Secretary of the Navy) said that were the question now whether we would order this statue or not, he should be among the first to vote in the negative; but Congress had already spent about $40,000 upon it, and it was here, and to have it standing on a rude structure of yellow pine boards would be a reflection on the character of the nation. He would advocate the appropriation for a durable pedestal of stone.

Mr. Fillmore asked Mr. Keim if he was a member of the committee that had been appointed to superintend the removal of the statue. Mr. Keim said he was not. So far as the committee was concerned, he added, they were willing that the statue, with its wooden pedestal, should remain as it was, much like a Hindoo suttee, with a marble corpse on a funeral pile. He deprecated the idea of any party feeling entering into the discussion, saying the question was merely whether the statue of Washington should remain on a pedestal of yellow pine boards, coated over with coal-dust, or be removed to a more appropriate place, and have a suitable pedestal.

Mr. Fillmore thought there had been a tacit understanding between the committee and

Mr. Greenough, that he, being the author of the statue, should have the direction of the form and construction of the pedestal.

Mr. Pendleton informed the House that he was a member of the committee, and that the wooden pedestal was only intended to be temporary. The committee had agreed that the location from the centre of the rotunda must be changed, and after various experiments, both as to position and elevation, they finally agreed on the spot where it now stands.

The statue, it must be remembered, had previously been removed from the rotunda, the space between the doors again being enlarged before its *exit* could be effected. Here it was for some time, boarded over, and remained an unsightly object.

Mr. Pendleton continued: "The committee could have no understanding with Mr. Greenough as to the construction of the pedestal, as they had received no power on that subject, but they were unanimously of opinion that it would be but justice to him, as the sculptor of the statue, that he should be allowed to complete the whole design." He concluded by saying he could not for a moment imagine how the gentleman from Pennsylvania could assume it to be the intention of anybody that the present wooden support of the statue should stand as its permanent pedestal, on the supposition of which he had grounded a somewhat tart criticism on the committee.

Here several voices cried out, "Withdraw your amendment—that's a good fellow!"

Mr. Adams (J. Q.) was for giving the work on the pedestal to the artist who had made the statue, Mr. Greenough. He had heard that there was a plan on foot for employing another artist on the pedestal. The friends of Mr. Greenough were indignant at such a proposition, so much so that he believed they would prefer to see the statue share the fate which had fallen upon another statue of the same man (Washington) by an equally transcendent artist, [he evidently alluded to the statue by Canova, buried in the capitol at Raleigh,] to having him exposed to an indignity so mortifying as that of calling in another artist to finish what he had begun. He hoped Mr. Greenough would be allowed to complete his own work, and that for this labor he would be properly compensated.

Mr. Adams had previously voted for the removal of the statue from the rotunda for the reason that water dripped down on it. The discussion, it will be seen, took a very wide range, but not one of the speakers seemed to comprehend the real question at issue or to have any very correct ideas concerning art matters. The statue and its pedestal are, among artists, considered as things entirely separate. The one belongs to the genius of art, the other to its mechanism. An artist may furnish the design, and suggest the proportions and placing of a pedestal, but in his contract for a statue the pedestal does not form a part. And if the friends of Mr. Greenough had any such feeling as is here described by Mr. Adams, it was a mistaken one, and must have arisen from insufficient knowledge of the subject. Very few sculptors care about having anything to do with what they consider the mechanical part of the work.

The debate was further continued by Messrs. C. J. Ingersoll, Pendleton, and Joseph R. Ingersoll. Referring to the action of the Secretary of the Navy, the last speaker said: "He had accordingly caused it to be removed from the navy yard, where it was first landed, to the rotunda of the Capitol, an operation which had been performed with remarkable skill and care. The statue had been placed in the centre of the rotunda, in a spot which had been previously prepared to receive so great a weight, by the erection, in the story below, of a mass of solid mason-work, reaching up to and supporting the floor. The Secretary of the Navy had also given directions, not final, not irrevocable, to the sculptor Pettrick to prepare a suitable design for the pedestal. These directions were preparatory merely, and not such as to interfere in any way with the rights of Mr. Greenough, if he had rights in the case." Mr. Ingersoll spoke at length on the subject, and closed with some complimentary remarks on the skill of Mr. Pettrick as a sculptor.

Mr. Henry A. Wise wished to inquire of the committee having the matter in charge, whether the pedestal was not, in strictness, a part of the statue? and whether Mr. Greenough was not bound to complete it as such for the compensation already allowed him?

Mr. Pendleton replied that the committee had nothing to do with that question, their duty being merely to locate it

Mr. Wise here began a speech, in which he denounced the statue in the most caustic and bitter language. He hurled against it all the invective he was capable of commanding. In the course of his speech he said it seemed to him like Jewing the government to send them an incomplete thing, and then claim to do the residue for a new compensation. He denounced the statue as unfit to be made, ridiculed its want of drapery, and criticised the Latin inscription, which he said was "bad Latin written in Italy."

This statue has cost the government nearly $43,000, enough to have purchased at least four good and satisfactory statues, had the business been properly managed. It has been said, and with truth, we think, that the value of a statue is to be found in what it suggests more than in the merits of its execution or design. The history of this unfortunate statue in a measure illustrates the force of such an argument. Its effect on the people is clearly not such as the artist intended it should have. The four statues that might have, properly selected, been procured with this money, would have given satisfaction to the people, reflected credit on American art, and, what was of more value to the artists of the country, prompted Congress to go on encouraging American artists with its patronage. We were also in the habit of dealing very loosely with artists. And another and very important thing illustrated in the history of this statue of Washington is the bad and very expensive policy of making a contract with an artist for a specified work and allowing him to produce something entirely different. An artist has no more right to disregard his contract with the government, and ask it to accept something very different in cost and design from what it bargained for, than any other person.

No. 11. On May 9, 1836, an appropriation of $500 was made to pay for a bust, in marble, of Chief Justice Marshall. The artist's name is not given. This bust is to be found in the hall now occupied by the Supreme Court of the United States.

Nos. 12 and 13. These are the two semi-colossal groups of statuary now on the blockings at the east front of the Capitol. That on the south blocking, representing Columbus explaining the mysteries of the globe to a naked and crouching Indian woman, is by Persico, who was our favorite Italian artist at that time. That on the north blocking, and known as "The Rescue," is by Greenough.

On the 4th of March, 1837, Congress passed a joint resolution authorizing the President of the United States to contract for two "groups of statues" to adorn the two blockings on the east front of the Capitol, and appropriated $8,000 to carry it into effect.

Pesrico, the Italian, received the first order; it was urged by Mr. Greenough's friends that the other should be given to him, as a sort of counterbalance between American and foreign skill. It was also urged that in this way an excellent opportunity would be afforded to compare the relative merits of foreign and American skill in sculpture. The order was given to Mr. Greenough. Strange as it must seem, we have been unable to find copies of the original contracts. It must be remembered, however, that the order to execute this group was given to Mr. Greenough while he was at work, in Florence, on his Washington, and before we had had time to see whether it was a success or failure. Those who urged that the order should be given to Greenough seem to have backed up their arguments with what had been said of his Washington by those who had seen it in his studio. But little can be said in favor of either of those groups. Both have been severely criticised, as well for their design as execution. The execution of that by Persico is, perhaps, more elaborate, especially the figure of Columbus; but the crouching position of the female figure destroys the effect of the whole, and suggests a subject for ridicule rather than admiration. That by Greenough, "The Rescue," has been described as a huge Scotchman trying to break the back of a big Indian. The description is not without force. It is said that Mr. Greenough designed this group with a view to showing his power of invention, as contrasted with the statue of Washington. He evidently intended to do something bold and strong—something that would catch the public eye and produce a lasting impression. But the very exaggeration of the design renders it weak and meaningless, while the execution is only commonplace. The group consists of five figures—a dog, a stalwart backwoodsman, a naked Indian, and a woman with a child in her arms.

For a long time the Indian held a prominent place in all our art development in Washing-

ton; in short, he seemed to be a favorite model in the fancy of every artist the Government employed, and his highest efforts were directed to making his Indian as hideous as possible. We would suggest that when the east front of the Capitol is extended, so as to conform to the wings, these groups be removed to some of the squares about the city, and their places filled with works designed and executed more in harmony with the general outline of the building.

Twenty-four thousand dollars each was paid to the artists for these statues, advanced in instalments of $4,000 cash. But we find that both Persico and Greenough received additional compensation, making their whole cost to the government nearly $56,000. Greenough finished his group in the summer of 1851, very nearly twelve years after he had received the order and first advance. It was claimed by his friends that he was four years "delayed in getting a suitable block of marble," and that he was occupied eight years in the work. On the other hand, it was shown that for a considerable portion of this time he was occupied in executing works to fill private orders.

A somewhat curious feature of the history of this statue of Washington is, that Mr. Greenough, after getting the $20,000 he agreed with Mr. Livingston, then Secretary of State, to make it for, rendered an account of expenses, charging the rent of his studio in Florence, salary of his servant, postage, and various other things of a similar character, amounting in the aggregate to upwards of $8,000. But what is more curious, he succeeded in getting it allowed.

The very general disappointment caused by these works (we include Persico's Columbus) had a very damaging effect on the interests of American art. Congress looked with distrust on all efforts to obtain orders, and for several years refused to patronize art. In the meantime an improved and more correct taste for art began to manifest itself among the people of Washington, several of whom began to extend a liberal patronage to our leading American artists.

No. 14. On March 3, 1837, a resolution was introduced into Congress to pay Mr. Auger $400 for a marble bust of the late Chief Justice Ellsworth.

EQUESTRIAN STATUES OF CLARK MILLS.

Nos. 15 and 16. These are the bronze horses of Mr. Clark Mills—one standing in Lafayette square, and rode by General Andrew Jackson; the other in the Circle, at the west end of Pennsylvania avenue, and rode by General George Washington. Some time in the year 1849, induced by the promise of genius on the part of Mr. Mills, and the exhibition by him of a miniature equestrian statue of General Jackson, in which the horse was made to stand rampant on his hinder feet, a number of prominent and patriotic citizens, friends, and admirers of the general formed themselves into a body, called the "Jackson Monument Association." These gentlemen subscribed $12,000 to enable Mr. Mills to carry out his design; and to them we are indebted for the equestrian statue of Jackson in Lafayette square.

A little foundry and studio combined were erected just south of the Treasury, and there Mr. Mills worked with machinery of the most primitive kind. His means were small; and he certainly deserves praise for his perseverance, if for nothing else. Three different resolutions were introduced into Congress, appropriating cannon captured at various times, to supply him with metal. In one of these resolutions "the guns captured at Pensacola by General Andrew Jackson" were ordered to be delivered to Mr. Mills for his equestrian statue. The work was set up and uncovered with considerable ceremony, the address being made by Mr. Stephen A. Douglas—General Scott and several other officers being present in uniform—on the 8th of January, 1853. The poising of the horse on his hinder feet, for which a great achievement in art was claimed at the time, was simply a question of mechanics. The government voted $5,000 for a suitable pedestal; and in March, 1853, also voted $3,000 "for the purpose of completing the pedestal of the equestrian statue of Andrew Jackson, in Lafayette square, and the erection of a suitable iron railing around the same."

Mr. Mills urged that he had been insufficiently paid for his work, and the Jackson Monument Committee very generously proposed to relinquish all interest in the work to the gov-

ernment, provided Congress made the artist an additional appropriation of $20,000. This Congress agreed to do; and in section 18 of the civil and diplomatic appropriation bill, passed March 3, 1853, the "President of the United States" has placed at his disposal "the sum of $20,000, to enable him to compensate Mr. Clark Mills for the execution of the equestrian statue of Andrew Jackson, recently placed upon the public square in the city of Washington north of the Executive Mansion, and to make the same the property of the United States; and that the said sum be paid under the direction of the President out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, when a clear and satisfactory title to the said statue shall be vested in the United States, provided that the sum of $10,000 thereof be invested for the family of the said Mills, and after his death to be given to such children of the said Mills as may survive him."

On March 31, 1854, an appropriation of $500 was made for completing the pedestal for the statue of Andrew Jackson. The whole amount paid by the government, inclusive of the metal, was $38,500. This statue weighs 15 tons, the hind parts of the horse being of solid metal. The Jackson Monument Committee were given a deed of the ground on which the statue stands, and which it is said they still hold.

Congress seemed to be so well pleased with this first effort of Mr. Mills, and in such great haste to do justice to what it considered genius of an extraordinary kind, that on the 25th day of January, 1853, it passed a joint resolution setting forth "that the sum of $50,000 be and is hereby appropriated, to enable the President of the United States to employ Clark Mills to erect, at the city of Washington, a colossal equestrian statue of George Washington, at such place on the public grounds in said city as shall be designated by the President of the United States." In addition to this, Congress voted cannon for the metal.

That Mr. Mills deserves great credit for his perseverance will not be denied; but his contributions to art, if they can be called by that name, are not such as will give him a high position among the sculptors of the country. The stranger in Washington looks for, and very naturally expects to find, in the capital city of so great and wealthy a nation as ours, the very best examples of American art; and it may be questioned whether we have a right to confuse and perplex his mind by merely saying that our best artists are not represented here, and that their works are only to be found in the possession of private gentlemen.

The extension of the Capitol opened a new field, as well as a new history, in our art progress. From being over-cautious we suddenly ran to the extreme of extravagance, and the vagaries we committed in decorative art, referred to in the early part of this report, make us regret them if we cannot recall them. When our own inventive genius failed we called in mythology, and so confounded it with the things of ordinary life as to mystify the mind and confound the common understanding. We have been unable to get at the precise amount paid for decorative art on the north and south wings of the Capitol, the workmen, chiefly Italians, being employed and paid by the day. It is safe, however, to say that at least $200,000 were expended for decorative art alone, much of which is of a very poor quality, and can have no good effect.

MARBLES BY POWERS AND CRAWFORD.

No. 17. On the 3d of March, 1855, a joint resolution passed Congress appropriating $25,000 to enable the President of the United States to contract with Hiram Powers "for some works of art executed or to be executed." The statues of Franklin and Jefferson, now in the Capitol, are the result of this order. They were executed at a cost of $10,000 each, leaving a surplus of $5,000, which was afterwards appropriated to another object of art. These works, though not the highest examples of Mr. Powers's skill, are a credit to us, and will always be cherished by the people for their real worth.

Regrets have from time to time been expressed that Mr. Powers had not been more liberally patronized by his government, and that his works were not more frequently found in our public buildings. But Mr. Powers has never been a seeker after orders from the government, having as many private orders as he could fill, and being unwilling to enter into competition for government favors, asserting that the pretender who had the least claims

would work the hardest and use means not the most honorable, and in the end was almost sure to carry off such prizes.

When General Meigs had charge of the Capitol extension he was charged with giving undue preference to foreign artists, and employing them to the neglect of native talent. But nothing could have been more unjust. One of the greatest difficulties General Meigs had to overcome was the unwillingness of American artists of the highest reputation to lay aside their prejudices and enter into competition for such works as were needed for the Capitol. Most of them were unwilling to be bound by contract, and wanted to work under such conditions as the government would not agree to.

When it was decided to fill the north and south pediments of the east front wings with groups of statuary, General Meigs, anxious that they should be the works of prominent American artists, addressed letters to Powers and Crawford inviting them to do the work. Not a word was said about price. Mr. Powers was at Florence, Mr. Crawford in Rome. The latter responded at once, in a letter breathing of patriotism, and expressing a readiness to proceed without delay to make the design and execute the models. The figures in the north pediment, so much admired for their real merit, and forming such a harmonious group, are the result of this order. After some time a letter was also received from Mr. Powers, couched in language of indifference, and, indeed, expressing an unwillingness to undertake anything of the kind. He was afraid also that his work might share a fate similar to that of a statue by a famous predecessor. Hence we have the south pediment yet vacant.

The amount paid Mr. Crawford for designing and modelling this group of figures for the north pediment, and also for designing and modelling the figures of "Justice" and "History" over the doorway of the north wing—an exquisite piece of work—was $20,000.

The cutting of these figures was done by Italians, and cost $25,950.

The marble for these figures is American, and was taken from the quarries at Lee, Massachusetts, and is of a very fine quality. As near as we have been able to ascertain, the whole group, as now placed, cost the government nearly $51,000.

BRONZE DOORS.

No. 18. The bronze door for the main entrance to the north wing, east front, was designed and modelled by Crawford, for which he received $6,000. This door was cast by Mr. James T. Ames, also an American, for which he received $50,495, making in all $56,495. Mr. Crawford also designed the door for the main entrance to the south wing, the plaster model for which was made by Mr. W. H. Rinehart, and cost $8,940.

The massive bronze doors in the passage leading from the old House of Representatives to the new were designed and modelled by Rogers, a young artist from the west, and of whom we have good reason to feel proud. These doors were cast in bronze abroad, by F. Von Miller, a German. Eight thousand dollars was paid to Mr. Rogers for his models, and $17,000 to Mr. Miller for the casting, making $25,000. In addition to this, nearly $3,000 were paid for freight and expenses, in all $28,000. The difference between the cost of these doors and those cast by Mr. Ames is worthy of notice.

FIGURE OF FREEDOM ON THE DOME.

No. 19. This is the female figure intended to represent "Freedom," which surmounts the dome. This figure was designed and modelled by Crawford, and, we regret to say, is a failure. At the great altitude it is placed it loses shape and outline, and the eye sees only an unintelligible shaft. We would call attention here to the great cost attending this work, which, it will be seen, is unnecessarily large. Three thousand dollars was paid Mr. Crawford for designing and casting the model in plaster, a sum moderate enough. But the amount paid to Mr. Clark Mills for labor, iron-work, and copper, and casting the statue in bronze, was $20,796 82. This is exclusive of machinery and cost of placing it on the dome. The cost of casting this figure, it will be seen, is at least three times as large as any private gentleman in any other city could have got such work done for. The casting, too, was of a very inferior kind.

BUSTS, STATUES, AND BRONZES.

No. 20. Mr. G. Bretti, an Italian, for a pedestal in a niche in the Senate retiring room, for modelling a work of "Justice" for the door of the House of Representatives, and for modelling an eagle, was paid $560.

No. 21. The bronze eagle over the clock in the House of Representatives is the work of Messrs. Archer, Warner & Miskey, Americans, and cost $150. It is good, as well in design as execution.

No. 22 was by the same as No. 21. These are the bronze railings, so elaborately designed and cleverly executed, on the stairways leading to the House and Senate. Their effect is lost for want of space and light, and but few persons stop to examine their exquisite workmanship. The question is frequently asked why such really valuable works are placed where their merits show to so great a disadvantage. These railings cost the government $22,498 12. It seems a pity that so much money could not have been spent on works that would have had some really good influence on the interests of art.

No. 23. The bronze Corinthian caps for columns and pilasters in the main stairway, and also the bronze arms to the seats in the gallery of the House of Representatives, were designed and executed by Cornelius & Baker, Americans, for which they were paid $6,196.

On the 18th day of August, 1865, Congress appropriated $20,000 for works of art to decorate the Capitol, to be expended under the Joint Committee of the Library; and, in July, 1866, appropriated a further sum of $5,000 for a similar purpose, to be expended under the direction of the same committee. With these appropriations the following works of art were purchased:

No. 24. A marble bust of Kosciusko, by H. D. Saunders, an American, $500.

No. 25. A statue of Hancock, by Dr. Horatio Stone, an American, $5,500.

No. 26. A bust of President Lincoln, by Mrs. S. F. Ames, American, $1,500.

No. 26. This is a portrait of Joshua R. Giddings, by Miss C. L. Ransom, American, $1,000.

No. 26. Statue of Hamilton, by Dr. Horatio Stone, American, $10,000.

No. 27. Congress, in 1866, appropriated $10,000 for a full-length statue of Mr. Abraham Lincoln, by Miss Vinnie Ream, a young lady who has chosen sculpture as a profession. Miss Ream has finished her model in plaster, and, what is more, received her money. But her statue is what artists call hard and mechanical; and we look in vain in the features for any trace of the pleasant, genial, and kind-hearted Lincoln.

All our sympathies are with genius struggling to elevate itself, but, were we ever so kindly disposed, we cannot forget that the interests of art are best served by fair and honest criticism. It is clear to us that Miss Ream has undertaken something far beyond her power, and that Congress in giving her so important an order was governed more by a feeling of charity than a proper respect for that justice which is due to genius. That Miss Ream should have made a failure was only natural. Genius, no matter how transcendent, needs culture and experience before it can produce works worthy of a high place in the art galleries of a great nation like ours. Those national influences which art and science exert in directing and educating the mind of a people, and which do so much to improve and extend their enterprise, cannot be too highly estimated. But if we are to pay first-rate prices and get only third-rate articles, the result is equally injurious to every interest into which art enters. Congress passed an act July 21, 1868, giving Mrs. S. F. Ames $500 additional compensation for her bust of President Lincoln, making in all $2,000.

Mr. Stone's statues of Hancock and Hamilton are the only works of any real value purchased out of the appropriation referred to above. His Hamilton is remarkably fine; and it is worthy of notice here that these works, costing so little in comparison with others purchased by the government, should be so much more valuable for their artistic merit. It is also to the credit of Mr. Stone that he filled his contract promptly, according to the agreement, and has not called on Congress for extra compensation.

No. 28. On the 2d of March, 1867, Congress passed a joint resolution "authorizing and directing the Secretary of War to contract with Henry K. Brown, of Newburg, New York, at a price not exceeding $20,000 for an equestrian statue in bronze of Brevet Lieutenant

General Winfield Scott, to be made of the guns captured in Mexico, and to be placed in Franklin square, in the city of Washington, or such other place in the said city as the Secretary of War may designate."

It will be seen by this that only $20,000 was appropriated for a work by Mr. Brown very similar in its classification to that for which Mr. Clark Mills was voted $50,000. Mr. Brown stands, and deservedly so, at the very head of his profession in this country, and his equestrian statue of General Washington, in Union square, New York, is a work of great artistic merit. Of the works of Mr. Mills we have nothing more to say. The public has already made up its mind as to their value; and there they stand, a defiance to criticism and good taste. It is not easy, however, for the ordinary mind to comprehend why Congress should think $50,000 little enough to pay one artist for an equestrian statue in bronze and ask another to make one similar in character and size for $30,000 less. And the fact that most is expected of the artist who is awarded this small amount adds to the difficulty of explaining the cause. It certainly could not be that Washington had to be got a-horseback with so much more care and attention to details that it required $30,000 extra to do it, while Scott, who had a remarkable weakness for trappings, presented a figure an artist could handle more cheaply. What we need is something to check the evil tendency this kind of legislation has on art and artists. Another bad effect to which we would call attention here is, that the Library Committee is again overlooked, and the power to contract with Mr. Brown is given to the Secretary of War. All our troubles in art matters have arisen from the want of a uniform system in dealing with artists. Nearly every department of the government has been intrusted with making contracts with artists for works of art, and yet it would be very difficult to find one that regarded itself responsible for either the success or failure of a work. The Library Committee, as at present constructed, is the proper channel through which all these orders should pass. It has heretofore exercised a wise discretion in art matters, and has saved the government many thousands of dollars. We would, therefore, again recommend that all matters concerning art be left to its decision. Art commissioners, composed entirely of artists, do not, as a general thing, take a sufficiently broad and generous view of the subject, and hence their reports would have but little effect on Congress.

It is only right that we should say here that Mr. Brown, in accepting this commission from Congress, did so under an apprehension that the amount was inadequate. He went to work, however, with the feelings of a patriot, resolved to do the best he could with the means at his disposal—to do justice by the government and give the people something of real value as a work of art for their money. He has made his model, and is proceeding rapidly with his work, of which we have seen a photograph, and which promises to give us an example of what is real and what is pretentious in art. With this statue by Mr. Brown we shall be able to judge by comparison of the merits of works the people have been paying extravagant prices for.

There is another matter connected with art to which we particularly desire to call the attention of Congress, and that is the anomalous position held by Brevet Brigadier General Eastman. We have not been able to find out what his duties are, how he has performed them, or what salary he receives. He, we believe, professes to act under a law of Congress which gives him a supervision over certain art matters in the Capitol, though we have never seen a report from him or seen any person who ever saw him in the Capitol. A mystery seems to surround his office, and as yet we have found no one who could penetrate it. Some light is cast on the subject, however, by the report of the architect of the Capitol for October, 1868, in which we find the following curious sentence:

"Amount paid to Brevet Brigadier General Eastman for commutation, fuel, and quarters, while on duty painting committee-room of Indian Affairs, House of Representatives, $1,284 04." How much Brevet Brigadier General Eastman got for salary, out of what fund he was paid, what he received for works he may have painted, if any, and what his merits as a painter are, we have been unable to ascertain. In the course of our researches into this wilderness the government has invested its art history with, we have met many strange and curious things; but the position of Brigadier General Eastman, as an artist-at-large in the pay of the government, is the strangest of them all.

PORTRAITS IN EXECUTIVE MANSION.

In our enumeration of the works of art that have been executed for the government we have not included the portraits in the executive mansion. In short, we have not as yet been able to get the record proof necessary to their history. There are a number of portraits there, some full length, others half size, of Presidents Washington, Adams, Jackson, Harrison, Tylor, Fillmore, Pierce, and others, some of which are by celebrated artists, and are very good examples of their skill. We would suggest that when the new executive mansion is built arrangements be made for a gallery in which the portraits of all our Presidents and Vice-Presidents shall have a place. The lives of these men and the events in which their administrations were involved form an important element in the history of the country. Everything which attaches to them personally will increase in interest as the nation advances. It is only proper, then, that the government of a nation so great and powerful as ours, should provide, for the benefit and instruction of the people, a means which, next to their living presence, calls up recollections of the men who did so much to create and preserve our institutions.

The royal portrait galleries of England, in which the portraits of many of her eminent statesmen are preserved, as well as her kings and queens, form one of the most prominent and interesting features of her art history. The government expends on those galleries many thousand pounds every year, and feels that it is amply repaid by the gratification and instruction they afford the people. And the people, in return, show how much they appreciate the government's generosity by their liberal patronage. The portraits now in the executive mansion would form an important and valuable nucleus for what we have suggested for the new building.

What we have said of a portrait gallery for the executive mansion would apply with equal force to the Capitol. Picture galleries, we know, are not popular with many members of Congress, who are inclined to regard them as an unnecessary expense in a government which at least affects simplicity and practical wisdom. Still it has long been felt, and even urged, that there should be a gallery in the Capitol, in which likenesses of all the Speakers of the House of Representatives, the Chief Justices of the Supreme Court, and statesmen whose lives have become a part of the history of the country, should be preserved. The little collection of cheap photographic and lithographic likenesses of several Speakers, and now in the Speaker's room at the Capitol, were got together by order of General Banks, several years ago. Even these are of some interest, as preserving the features of men who had occupied a position of importance next only to that of President of the United States. The cost of such a gallery would not be very great, while a small portion of the money spent on works of art which are of no earthly use to us now would serve to furnish it with pictures.

GALLERY OF SPEAKERS OF THE HOUSE, ETC., SUGGESTED.

The hall of the old House of Representatives, as it is called, might be advantageously converted into a gallery for statues and portraits. The means of lighting from above can very easily be so improved and enlarged as to furnish a good and strong light over all parts of it. Upper and lower galleries could be built, and fitted with panels and niches, one for pictures, the other for statues. In this way it might be made an interesting, instructive, and attractive feature of the Capitol. The present vacant and unsightly appearance of that hall would then be changed, made attractive, and of some practical use. The statues we already possess, distributed as they are over the building where the light is bad, and almost buried in niches, show to the very worst advantage. This is particularly so with the two fine works by Powers. Niches were not intended to bury statues in but to give them softness and shadow. They act as a relief, and that is what they were intended for.

Table showing the number of paintings, what they cost, when they were painted, and the name of the artist.

Year.	Name of picture.	Cost.
1817	Signing the Declaration of Independence. (John Trumbull)	$8,000
1817	Surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown. do.	8,000
1817	Surrender of Burgoyne at Saratoga. do.	8,000
1817	Washington resigning his commission. do.	8,000
1836	Embarcation of the Pilgrims. (Robert Weir)	10,000
to '42	Baptism of Pocahontas. (J. C. Chapman)	10,000
1842	Landing of Columbus. (John Vanderlyn)	10,000
	(Order. No picture.) Henry Inman	6,000
1850	De Soto discovering the Mississippi. (W. H. Powell)	12,000
1860	Battle of Chepultepec. (Walker)	6,137
	Portrait of Washington. (Sully)	
	Portrait of Lafayette. (Airy Shaffer)	
1862	Westward Ho! (Leutze)	20,000
1864	Allegory in the dome. (Brumidi)	50,000
1864	Amount paid to the same artist for frescoes	19,483
1862	Amount paid to Art Commission for 13 months' services	9,000
1865	Portrait of Joshua Giddings. (Miss C. L. Ransom)	1,000
1865	Amount voted Mr. W. H. Powell for another picture	25,000
		200,620

In addition to this we have discovered that nearly $20,000 have been voted for works we have been unable to find in the building, and which we infer were such utter failures that they are hidden away from the public. This would make a sum total, exclusive of incidental charges, of $220,620.

Table showing the marbles and bronzes executed by order of the government, names of the artists who executed them, and what they cost.

Year.	Marbles and bronzes.	Cost.
1826	Grotesque relievos in the rotunda. (By Cappellano, Causici, and Gevelot	$14,000 00
1827	Frieze of wreath-work, containing portraits of Cabot, La Salle, Raleigh, and others	9,500 00
1829	Figure of Liberty and eagle, Hall of Representatives	1,850 00
1830	History recording events. (Franzoni)	
1830	Design and model of figures on east front tympanum	1,500 00
1832	Statues of Peace and War. (Persico)	24,000 00
1836	Ornamental fountain. (Hiram Powers)	500 00
1836	Additional cast for same	522 00
1832	Bust of John Jay. (Frazee)	400 00
1839	Bust of Thomas Jefferson. (Ceracci)	4,000 00
1840	Undraped statue of Washington. (Greenough)	43,000 00
1845	The Rescue—group. (Greenough)	24,000 00
1846	Columbus describing the globe. (Persico)	24,000 00
1836	Bust of Chief Justice Marshall	500 00
1837	Bust of Chief Justice Ellsworth. (Auger)	400 00
1853	Equestrian statue of General Jackson (bronze) in Lafayette square. (Clark Mills)	28,500 00
1858	Equestrian statue of General Washington in the Circle. (Clark Mills)	50,000 00
1859	Marble statue of Franklin. (Hiram Powers)	10,000 00
1861	Marble statue of Jefferson. (Hiram Powers)	10,000 00
1862	Group of figures for north pediment. (Crawford)	45,950 00
1864	Bronze door, Senate, north wing. (Crawford)	56,495 00
1864	Design in plaster for bronze door, south wing. (Crawford)	8,940 00

Table showing the marbles and bronzes executed, &c.—Continued

Year.	Marbles and bronzes.	Cost.
1864	Bronze door leading to the House of Representatives. (Rogers)	$28,000 00
1865	Figure of Freedom surmounting the dome. (Crawford)	23,796 00
1866	Amount paid Mr. Bretti for pedestals	560 00
1866	Bronze eagle over clock in House of Representatives	150 00
1866	Massive bronze railings leading to House of Representatives and Senate. (Archer, Warner, & Miskey)	22,498 00
1866	Bronze ornaments in the Senate and House	6,196 00
1866	Bust of Kosciusko. (H. D. Saunders)	500 00
1866	Bust of President Lincoln. (Mrs. S. F. Ames)	2,000 00
1866	Statue of Hancock. (Dr. H. Stone)	5,500 00
1866	Statue of Hamilton. (Dr. H. Stone)	10,000 00
1866	Statue of President Lincoln, not yet finished. (Miss Vinnie Ream)	10,000 00
1867	Equestrian statue of General Scott, not yet finished. (J. K. Brown)	20,000 00
1868	Amount paid Brevet Brigadier General Eastman	1,284 04
		261,869 04

In addition to this amount it is safe to say that at least $200,000 have been expended for decorative art, and the material and labor incident to it, to embellish the Capitol, making a total of $889,161 04.

It will be seen from these figures that large sums of money have been appropriated by the government for art purposes since the year 1817. This seems effectually to do away with the charge that the government has not extended a liberal hand to art. Its patronage, however, has been strangely misapplied; and, considering how few works of real merit we have got for our money, it is no wonder the people complain that proper judgment has not been exercised in the ordering of these works, that a criminal indifference is shown in the cost of many of them, and that orders for them were secured through improper influences by persons using that pure shield which the associations of art are supposed to afford to character, only to serve mercenary ends.

With many thanks for your co-operation in the search for official data on which to base this report, I remain your obedient servant,

F. C. ADAMS.

To Hon. HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner of Education.

NOTE.

We are happy in being able to add that the intention of Mr. W. W. Corcoran to complete his design of dedicating the spacious and tasteful structure erected by him on the corner of Pennsylvania avenue and Seventeenth street to purposes of art has been consummated since the above communication was made, as will be seen by the following correspondence.

To the foregoing comprehensive survey of the condition of art in the District of Columbia, and particularly of the appropriations made by Congress for works of art in the Capitol, we append a brief statement of the historical development of schools and academies of design and the fine arts in Belgium, and particularly of the encouragement extended by its government to systematic instruction in art, in its æsthetic as well as in its industrial bearings.

H. B.

CORCORAN ART GALLERY.

The following documents give the history of this munificent endowment for art:

LETTER FROM WILLIAM W. CORCORAN TO JAMES M. CARLISLE AND OTHERS.

WASHINGTON, *May* 10, 1869.

GENTLEMEN: It is known to you that the building at the northeast corner of Pennsylvania avenue and Seventeenth street was designed by me for the encouragement of the fine arts, as is indicated by the dedication upon its front.

The work was begun in the year 1859, and was prosecuted with the heartiness naturally incident to such an undertaking, until it was interrupted by the breaking out of the late civil war, when the public exigencies led to the immediate occupation of the building for military purposes; and to these uses it has been devoted ever since, until, being no longer required by the War Department, it is about to be restored to my possession.

It was my cherished hope to have placed the proposed establishment, complete in all its appointments, in successful operation before divesting myself of the title by any formal instrument, but the years which have thus passed away, and the accumulation of other cares and duties, warn me no longer to indulge the pleasing anticipation.

I have, therefore, not doubting your general interest in the subject, taken the liberty of executing to you, as trustees, a deed, which I herewith deliver, sufficiently defining the trusts which I ask you to accept.

In addition to the title to the property itself, you will observe that the instrument vests in you, for the purposes of the trust, the right to receive the rents, wholly unpaid, for the period during which it has been occupied by the government, now nearly eight years, which will doubtless be adjusted with you, in the absence of any special agreement, upon fair and perhaps liberal terms.

As soon as the interior of the building shall have been completed, according to the original plans, (which will be placed at your disposal,) for which the rents in arrears will more than suffice, I shall ask you to receive as a *nucleus* my own gallery of art, which has been collected at no inconsiderable pains, and I have assurances from friends in other cities, whose tastes and liberality have taken this direction, that they will contribute fine works of art from their respective collections.

I may add, that it is my intention to provide further endowment of the institution in such manner and to such extent as may consist with other objects which claim my attention; and I venture to hope that with your kind co-operation and judicious management we shall have provided, at no distant day, not only a pure and refined pleasure for residents and visitors at the national metropolis, but have accomplished something useful in the development of American genius.

I am, gentlemen, with great respect and regard, your obedient servant,

W. W. CORCORAN.

To JAMES M. CARLISLE, JAMES C. HALL, GEORGE W. RIGGS, ANTHONY HYDE, JAMES G. BERRET, JAMES C. KENNEDY, HENRY D. COOK, JAMES C. MCGUIRE, WILLIAM T. WALTERS.

To this letter the trustees made the following reply:

WASHINGTON, *May* 10, 1869.

DEAR SIR: We have accepted the trust confided to us by your deed of this date, in the formal manner indicated by the deed itself.

But we desire, individually and collectively, to add the expression of our personal appreciation of the privilege of endeavoring efficiently to administer such an institution, projected spontaneously by your liberal mind, and securely founded by your sole munificence.

While we cannot doubt that, at least in the time of our successors, all your anticipations

will be realized, we sincerely hope that you may yourself live to enjoy the high and pure gratification of witnessing the complete success of your generous intentions.

With great respect and warm regard, we remain very truly yours,

J. M. CARLISLE.	J. C. HALL.	GEO. W. RIGGS.
A. HYDE.	JAMES G. BERRET.	JAMES C. KENNEDY.
HENRY D. COOKE.	J. C. McGUIRE.	W. T. WALTERS.

To WILLIAM W. CORCORAN, Esq.

DEED OF GIFT AND TRUST.

This indenture, made this tenth day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-nine, by and between William W. Corcoran, of the city of Washington, District of Columbia, of the first part, and James M. Carlisle, James C. Hall, George W. Riggs, Anthony Hyde, James G. Berret, James C. Kennedy, Henry D. Cooke, and James C. McGuire, of the city of Washington, and William T. Walters, of the city of Baltimore, State of Maryland, of the second part, witnesseth:

Whereas the said William W. Corcoran, in the execution of a long-cherished desire to establish an institution in Washington city to be 'dedicated to art,' and used solely for the purpose of encouraging American genius, in the production and preservation of works pertaining to the 'fine arts,' and kindred objects, has determined to convey to a board of trustees the property hereinafter described, to which he may hereafter make other gifts and donations, to be held by said board and used for the purposes aforesaid: Now, therefore, the said William W. Corcoran, in consideration of the premises, and of the sum of one dollar, current money of the United States, to him in hand paid by the said parties of the second part, the receipt whereof is hereby acknowledged, hath granted, bargained, and sold, aliened, enfeoffed, and conveyed, and by these presents doth grant, bargain, and sell, alien, enfeoff, and convey unto the said parties of the second part, and the survivors of them, and the heirs and assignees of such survivor—

Lots numbered 5, (five,) 6, (six,) 7, (seven,) and 8, (eight,) in square numbered 167, (one hundred and sixty-seven,) in the city of Washington and District of Columbia, as the same is laid down and distinguished upon the public plat of said city, fronting 196 feet 9 inches, more or less, on President's square, and 160.17 feet, more or less, on Seventeenth street west, together with all and singular the buildings, improvements, hereditaments, and appurtenances thereto appertaining or in any wise belonging, and all the estate, right, title, and interest of the said party of the first part in and to the same:

To have and to hold all and singular the lots and parcels of ground and premises aforesaid, with the appurtenances unto, and to the use of them, the said parties of the second part, and the survivors and survivor of them, and the heirs and assigns of such survivor, in trust, nevertheless, and to and for the intents and purposes hereinafter expressed and described, that is to say:

First. That the said parties of the second part shall, without unnecessary delay, after their acceptance of this trust, to be signified by their signing and sealing the memorandum to that effect hereunder written, organize themselves into a permanent board of trustees, with such officers to be selected from their own number as to them may seem necessary or convenient for the orderly management of this trust, and the more efficient attainment of the ends and objects designed by the said party of the first part, as indicated by his general intent, to be gathered from this instrument in all its parts and provisions, and with the same intent and for the same ends and objects, shall make, and as often as may be necessary from time to time, make, alter, amend, repeal, and re-enact, in whole or in part, all necessary by-laws, rules, and regulations in the premises in execution of, and not inconsistent with the provisions and true intent of this instrument; in all which they shall act by a concurrence of a majority of the whole number of trustees.

Secondly. That when the number of the said original board of trustees, being the said parties of the second part, shall, by death, resignation, or inability, to be ascertained by a resolution of the said board acting by a majority of the whole number, shall have been reduced below the number of nine members, the remaining members shall elect suitable per-

sons, in their discretion, from time to time, as often as may be necessary, so that the board shall always be composed of nine members.

Thirdly. That all the property, real, personal, and mixed, rights, credits, choses in action, or other valuable thing whatsoever hereby conveyed or intended to be conveyed, or which may hereafter be conveyed, given, or transferred and assigned and delivered to the said board of trustees, whether composed of the said parties of the second part or of their successors, chosen and elected as hereinbefore provided, whether in whole or in part, shall be held, managed, limited, used, and devoted to executing the trusts, and giving effect, according to the best judgment of the said board of trustees, from time to time; and all legal rights and titles in the premises shall be taken and held in such manner, and with such legal forms, as shall serve the trusts, intents, uses, and purposes declared or plainly indicated or implied in and by the terms of this instrument.

Fourthly. The property so received and held, or which may be received and held by the said board of trustees, shall be held, used, managed, and disposed of by them and their successors and assigns, whether under this instrument alone or under any act of incorporation hereafter to be procured for the perpetual establishment and maintenance of a public gallery and museum for the promotion and encouragement of the arts of painting and sculpture and the fine arts generally, upon such system and with such regulations and limitations as the board of trustees may, from time to time, whether corporate or incorporate, prescribe, limit, and ordain: *Provided always*, That the gallery and museum shall be open to visitors, without any pecuniary charge whatever, at least two days in each week, for such convenient and customary hours as shall be, from time to time, prescribed and made public; and at such other times, not being such public days as aforesaid, such moderate and reasonable fees for admission may be prescribed and received, to be applied to the current expenses of preserving and keeping in proper order the building and its contents.

Fifthly. While the officers necessary or appropriate to the organization of the board of trustees shall be elected from their own number, it is understood that the board shall and may, at its discretion, at all times, employ other persons to be the officers, agents, and servants of the board, for orderly and efficient management and conduct of the institution.

Sixthly. The system and the appropriate measures for increasing the collection of paintings, statues, and kindred works of art, of which the private gallery of the party of the first part will form the nucleus, and such other voluntary donations as the trustees may from time to time receive, are confided to the direction and judgment of the trustees, as is also the management generally of the institution.

Seventhly. The general intent of the said party of the first part being expressed in general terms in the premises and recitals of this instrument, and further indicated, with certain specifications, in the aforegoing articles, numbered from one to six, inclusive, it is hereby declared that, all and singular, the gifts, grants, conveyances, and assignments herein expressed and set forth, are to and for the trusts, intents, and purposes so as aforesaid expressed, implied, set forth or indicated, and to none other whatsoever; and that, while it is the intention of the grantor and donor herein that no unruly, technical, or formal breach of, or departure from, the terms and conditions of this trust shall operate as any forfeiture or defeasance in favor of his heirs, or of any claiming in his right, it is hereby declared, and these presents are upon the express and strict condition that these presents, and every matter and thing hereinbefore contained, and every estate, right, title, interest, and power thereby given, granted, conveyed, and limited, shall cease and determine, and become utterly void and of no effect, whensoever it shall be decreed, adjudged, or declared, by the highest judicial authority having jurisdiction, upon a proper proceeding, in law or in equity, to be instituted by the heirs, devisees, or assigns of the said party of the first part, that the real estate hereinbefore conveyed shall have been diverted from the purposes of this trust, to be gathered from this instrument in all its parts and provisions, so as substantially to defeat or plainly to be inconsistent with and repugnant to this trust, construed and interpreted in a liberal and sensible spirit; and thereupon, as in case of a breach of a strict condition subsequent, the heirs, devisees, assigns, or other proper legal representatives in the premises of the said William W. Corcoran shall be entitled to re-enter upon the said real estate as of his, the said

William W. Corcoran's right and title prior to the execution of these presents, and as if the same had never been executed; and in like manner all and every other estate, property, chattel, or valuable thing, the title to which shall have proceeded in the premises from the said William W. Corcoran to the said trustees or their successors and assigns, shall, as far as may be consistent with the rules and principles of law and equity, revert and be revested in right of the said Corcoran or his proper legal representatives therein.

Eighthly. That the said board of trustees may at any time hereafter, in its discretion, apply for and accept an act of Congress incorporating them and their successors, so as to facilitate the execution of this trust, by vesting the same in a perpetual body corporate, with the like powers and for the same trusts, intents, and purposes herein declared, expressed, or indicated, but for no other trusts, intents, or purposes whatsoever; such act of incorporation to refer to this deed, and to be expressed to be in execution of the trusts thereof; and thereupon the said parties of the second part, and the survivors and survivor of them, or the heirs and assigns of such survivor, shall execute such conveyances as may be necessary to transfer the whole property of this trust to such corporation upon the trusts of this deed.

And whereas the lots of ground and improvements hereinbefore described and referred to have, by reason of the exigencies of the public service of the United States, been rented and occupied for the public use, without any special contract, but subject to the constitutional provision that 'private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation,' which just compensation for the whole period of such occupation by the United States now remains to be paid; and considering the same property to belong to this trust, as being of the rents, issues, and profits of the ground and buildings which he had heretofore, and as early as the year 1859, devoted and dedicated to the trusts and purposes hereinbefore formally declared: Now, therefore, in consideration of the premises, and of the sum of one dollar by the said parties of the second part to him in hand paid, he, the said party of the first part, hath assigned, transferred, and set over, and by these presents doth assign, transfer, and set over, unto the said parties of the second part, and the survivors and survivor of them, and the executors, administrators, and assigns of such survivor, all and singular the rents, issues, and profits of the lots of ground and improvements hereinbefore described, for and during the whole period of the occupation and possession of the same by the government of the United States, and all the just compensation which may be due from the United States for the public use of the same, hereby authorizing and empowering the said parties of the second part, or a majority of them, either by themselves or by any substituted attorney or attorneys, to be named and appointed by them, or a majority of them, to acquit and release and receipt for the same in any sufficient legal form of acquittance which may be according to law, as fully as he, the said party of the first part, could personally release and acquit the same.

Which rents, issues, and profits, and just compensation for the public use of the said property, shall be received and held by the said parties of the second part for the same uses, intents, and purposes hereinbefore declared; but shall, as far as may be necessary, be applied, before all other objects, to the completion of the interior of said building, and to putting it in a condition to be immediately applied to the primary intents and purposes of this trust, as expressed in the recital in the premises of this deed.

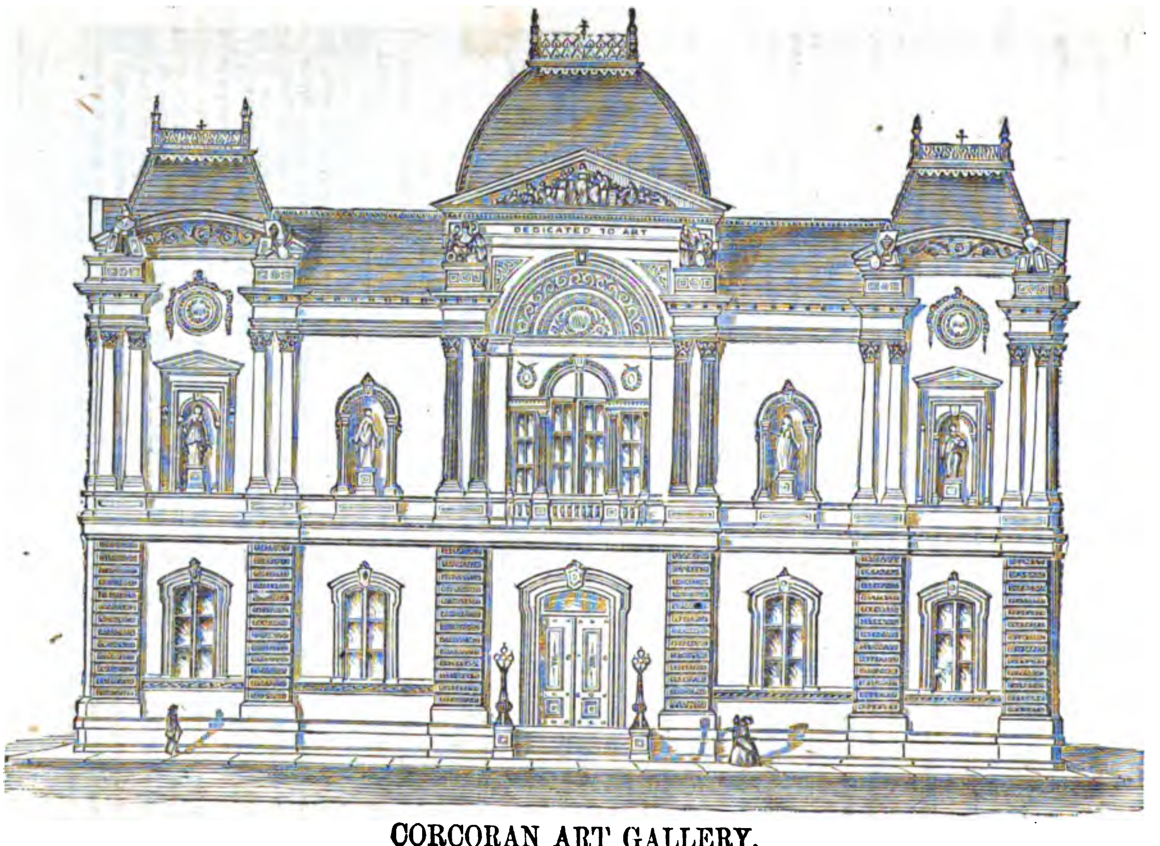
In testimony whereof the said party of the first part hath hereunto set his hand and affixed his seal, the day and year first hereinbefore written.

W. W. CORCORAN.

Signed, sealed, and delivered in the presence of John Hunter and A. T. Brice.

The trusts set forth in the foregoing instrument were jointly and severally accepted by the persons named therein, and the deed itself, properly attested, has been recorded.

The trustees have made a temporary organization by the appointment of Mr. Carlisle chairman, and Mr. Hyde secretary. A committee has also been appointed to prepare a system of by-laws and regulations, &c., another to attend to the restoration of the house by the government, and a third to ask a law from the corporation exempting the property from axation.



CORCORAN ART GALLERY,
WASHINGTON D. C.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CORCORAN ART BUILDING.

The Corcoran Art Building is in the Renaissance style of architecture, 104 feet front on Pennsylvania avenue, and extending 124 feet 6 inches on Seventeenth street.

The interior is arranged with a cellar or ground floor, containing the heating apparatus, rooms for storage, packing, &c., and two principal floors, the lower to receive works of sculpture, and the upper, paintings and engravings.

The front or grand entrance is on Pennsylvania avenue, and opens into a vestibule 25 feet by 28 feet, from which lead the broad stairs to the second story. These stairs are of freestone, 10 feet wide, with an iron balustrade on either side, and carved in scroll-work at the ends. On each side of these stairs are passages eight feet four inches wide, and leading to the principal gallery arranged for sculpture, which is in the rear of the building. The stairs and halls are lighted by two courts.

The vestibule to the sculpture gallery is 19 feet wide by 28 feet long, with two spacious bay-windows at the ends. The sculpture gallery extends the whole distance across the rear of the building, and is 96 feet 4 inches long by 25 feet wide, and is amply lighted by 10 windows.

The janitor's apartments are on the right of the main or front vestibule; and just behind them, and connecting with the main sculpture gallery, are two rooms, one 19 feet by 43 feet 6 inches, the other 19 feet square. These rooms can be used for a school of design.

On the left of the vestibule is a gallery 25 feet wide on Pennsylvania avenue, and extending back on Seventeenth street 32 feet 10 inches. Just in the rear of this, and between it and the sculpture gallery, is another gallery, 19 feet wide and 32 feet 10 inches long. These galleries are connected by spacious arched doors.

The picture galleries are on the second floor. The main stairs open into a hall 28 feet wide by 43 feet 6 inches long, on either side of which the various galleries for pictures are situated. There are, however, three small galleries fronting on Pennsylvania avenue, the center one being an octagon 25 feet on the floor, and intended for very valuable or famous pictures. The other two are 25 feet by 32 feet 2 inches. In the rear of these, and extending along the sides of the building, are two galleries 19 feet 6 inches by 43 feet 6 inches. The main or grand picture gallery, which extends across the rear of the building on this floor, is 45 feet wide by 96 feet 4 inches long. All these galleries are lighted by sky or top lights, and are so arranged that the quantity can be regulated as desired. These galleries communicate with each other by lofty arched doors, thus affording a continuous passage around the floor.

The cornices and ceilings of the various galleries are enriched with panel ornaments and moldings representing American foliage.

The floors are laid on brick arches, on which are iron girders; everything being done in the most thorough and substantial manner. The exterior of the building is constructed of the very best Baltimore-made brick, with facings, trimmings, and ornaments of Belleville freestone.

The front on Pennsylvania avenue is divided into a central pavilion, with a curtain on either side, and, as architects would say, is flanked by two other pavilions, one on either corner, and divided into two stories. The central pavilion has vermiculated quoins in the corner; and these inclose the grand entrance door, with an exquisitely carved jamb and arch, overtopped with a fierce tiger's head carved in *relievo*. The anticom of the first story is remarkably simple in its design and detail, and at the same time corresponds to the massiveness of the quoins at the corners of the building.

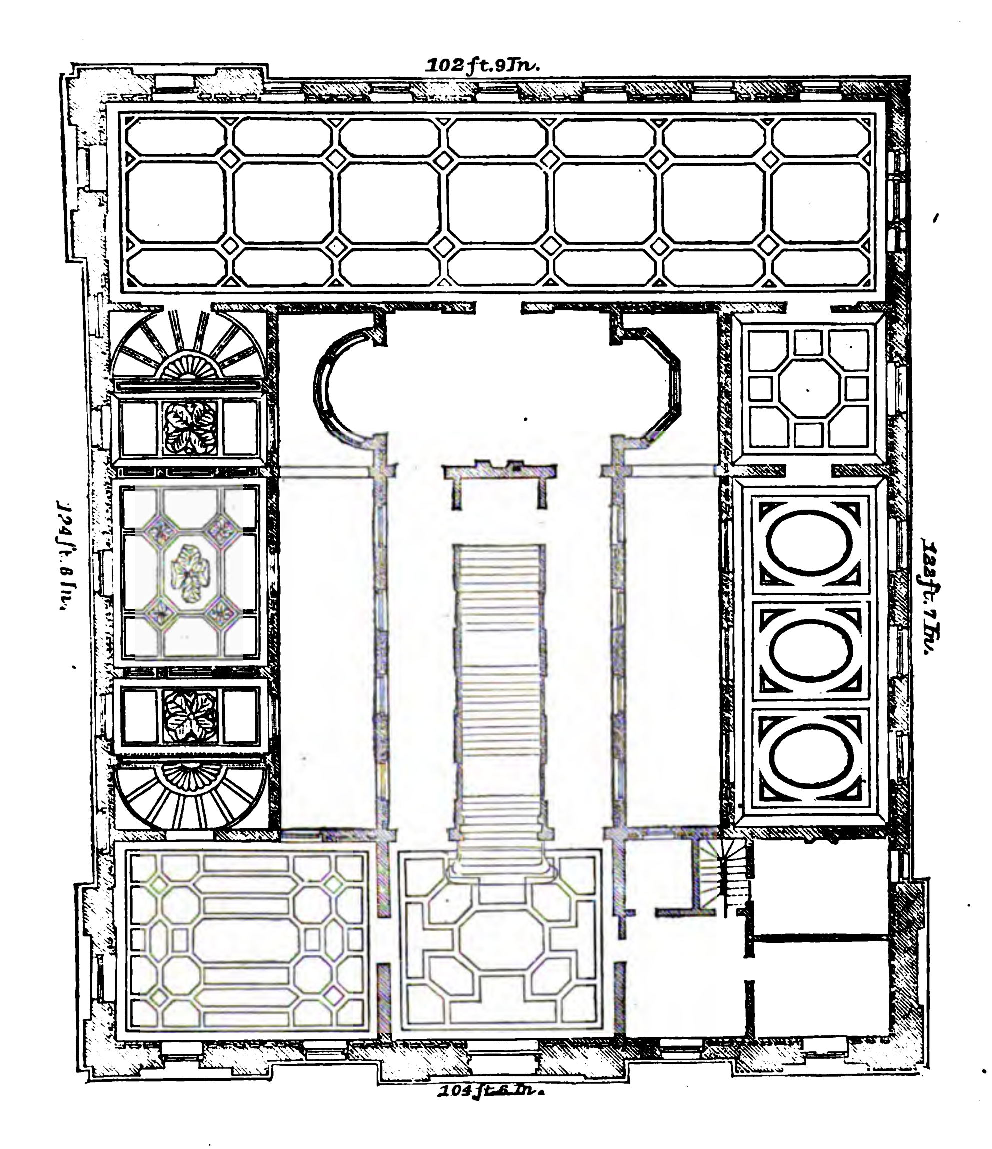
The second story of the central pavilion consists of an arched recess. The span between the impost and the suffit of the arch is filled with decorations, and contains the monogram of the founder, surrounded by carved wreaths and enscrollments. Just beneath this there is a palladium window, with fluted pilasters and columns, and capitals expressing American foliage, exquisitely carved. In the arch are two wreaths encircling various implements of painting and sculpture.

The central pavilion is flanked on either side by two fluted columns, with capitals representing the broad leaves and fruit of the corn-stalk. And these support an entablature or pedestal, on which are trophies representing the arts, on the frieze of the central pavilion. And on this is inscribed the words "Dedicated to art," in bold and impressive letters. The cornice over this has a pediment, in the tympanum of which is a bas-relief representing the genius of painting, surrounded by figures emblematical of the sister arts.

The whole building is surmounted with a high and imposing Mansard roof, heavily slated, and carried some 10 feet higher than the ordinary roof of the building.

The architects were Mr. James Renwick, jr., and R. T. Auchmuty, New York.

The cost of the land, building, and equipment contemplated by Mr. Corcoran cannot be less than $600,000, not including his private collections, which have cost over $100,000, and which he has signified his intention to transfer to the gallery as soon as ready for their reception.


102 ft. 9 In.
124 ft. 8 In.
122 ft. 7 In.
104 ft. 6 In.

ART INSTRUCTION IN PENNSYLVANIA.

In Pennsylvania there are at this time four institutions devoted exclusively to teaching the principles and practice of art, besides others that include it in the round of studies without making it a specialty, as, for example, the University of Pennsylvania and the Franklin Institute for the Promotion of the Mechanic Arts. In addition there are private schools, such as that of Professor Vanderwielen in Philadelphia.

1. Of all these means the *Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts*, located in Philadelphia, and incorporated by the State Legislature as far back as the year 1806, is the most important, imparting instruction in the highest branches known in the art, and entirely free of expense to the student. The pupils are both male and female, and at the present time the numbers of each sex are about equal. For admission to a studentship nothing more is needed than to submit a drawing or other work, and if the Professor deems that sufficient advancement has been made in the first mere rudiments, a ticket of unlimited duration is made out, thus the advantages of the academy are free to all, talent being the sole test. The mode of instruction will be stated as soon as the other institutions alluded to have been enumerated.

2. Next in importance is the *Philadelphia School of Design for Women*, also located in the same city, as its name implies. It differs somewhat in its aim from the Academy, but at the same time its object is of the very highest consequence, being no less than the training of females in the art of drawing and designing, mainly to qualify them for usefulness in the decorative arts and all art manufactures. In France and other European countries the talents of the most accomplished artists are in request, and liberally compensated, in inventing and drawing patterns for wall-papers, carpets, and other articles used in furnishing and beautifying the home. By qualifying women for this branch of art advantages are attained besides the obvious one—that of opening out one more opportunity for profitable employment to the sex. The means of instruction will be referred to hereafter.

3. The *School of Design for Women* at Pittsburg has the same objects in view as that at Philadelphia.

4. At *Wilkesbarre* (to be transferred to Scranton) also there is established a *School of Design for Women* on the same plan and for the same objects. Both the last named are offshoots from the Philadelphia School of Design.

5. The Pennsylvania University has lately added drawing classes to its other established branches of study, and although at present confined to geometric, mechanical, perspective, and architectural work, it is destined to fuller development and wider range in the future. It is under the intelligent direction of the accomplished architect, Professor Thomas W. Richards.

6. The same branches of drawing have long been taught to evening classes in the Franklin Institute.

7. The directors of the School of Design for Women have made repeated attempts, through their Principal, Professor T. W. Braidwood, to cause the practice of drawing to be introduced into the public schools of Philadelphia, as part of the regular instruction, and during the past year some experimental beginnings have been effected, but on a very limited scale.

8. Of the private schools, where the instruction imparted is limited to art studies alone, the most advanced is that of Professor Vanderwielen at Philadelphia. In it is taught not merely the art of representing the visible appearance of objects, and of drawing the human figure, but the more difficult science of composition, color, and pictorial effect. For this the principal has been well qualified by his own course of successful study under the competent professors of the Academy of Fine Arts at Antwerp.

Several other artists, in addition to the regular practice of their profession, receive pupils and devote a portion of their time to teaching the principles and practice of art.

1.—THE PENNSYLVANIA ACADEMY OF THE FINE ARTS.

The programme of study in this admirably conducted Institution consists:

FIRST. In the study of the antique from casts of the most approved examples of ancient art preserved in the various museums of Europe. Of these the Academy possesses a very fine collection, and which will be still further enlarged as soon as increased accommodations are obtained in a new building, for which arrangements are now being made. The studies are made sometimes in oil-color, (black and white,) but chiefly in crayon. Those studying to become sculptors model in clay, and have a special gallery of antiques appropriated to their use.

SECOND. The study of the living model, for which there are *three* classes. One class where the student necessarily works only in light and shade without color, because the model is lit by artificial light. This class was not discontinued at the time of the establishment of the day classes, only because some of those who attend it are otherwise engaged in the day-time, and would thus be deprived of the advantages of a life school. One of the two day classes is for ladies exclusively, and it is the custom in both to paint in oil colors, thus learning at the same time the practice of painting and the study of form.

THIRD. The study of anatomy, to assist the student in an intelligent interpretation of the human form in the delineation, whether of the antique or of the living model. The lectures (twenty in 1868–'9) are only in part illustrated by actual dissections.

FOURTH. The study of drapery. This is done by arranging the material on a manikin, or lay figure, prepared with movable joints, so as to be capable of imitating and being fixed in every position that the human form assumes in natural action. Thus the drapery remains unaltered in its folds for any length of time required, while on the living model it would be constantly changing, to the great perplexity of the student.

FIFTH. Exercises in invention, composition, and design. For this the Professor, at regular stated intervals, gives out some subject, selected from history or fiction, and the pupils illustrate it by original designs of their own. The corrections and criticism on these, and the practice thus acquired, form lessons of great value in the application of the principles learned in the other various classes.

SIXTH. Painting in the galleries from pictures belonging to the Academy. This collection is gradually increasing, and contains many fine examples from the pencil of artists both of the past and present time. This is the only branch of practice in the Academy in which the student does not work from the *round* object.

SEVENTH. The directors have appropriated funds to purchase a cabinet of materials of costume, of ceramic wares, of ornamental metals, and of arms and armor, and a collection of similar articles, which it is so important to artists should be accessible to them to paint from during the progress of many of their genre or historic pictures. It will be procured as soon as the Academy is able to obtain enlarged and suitable accommodations in a new building for the arrangement and use of it.

THE LIBRARY, for the most part composed of books relating to art, is constantly accessible in the day-time to the use of the students (except during the annual six weeks exhibition) and is receiving important additions from year to year.

FAC-SIMILES OF THE DRAWINGS BY THE GREAT MASTERS, of every school of Europe. cover the walls of the gallery in which the students paint from the model, and are a valuable means of study and example.

EXHIBITIONS are held by the Academy annually, composed of original works in each department of the fine arts, and continue open six weeks. They are not only instructive to the student, but also aid greatly in cultivating and diffusing a taste for art throughout the community.

The Academy is a joint stock company, but stockholders receive no dividends—on the contrary, they are subject to the payment of annual dues, or a fixed sum at one time as commutation therefor. The government of the institution resides in a board of thirteen directors, elected annually by the stockholders from among themselves, assisted in the exhibitions and schools by a council of seven academicians, artists, who are also elected annually by the board of academicians from their own body.

The officers for the year ending June, 1870, are—

President, Caleb Cope; directors, G. S. Pepper, S. Welsh, J. Harrison, F. Peale, W. Struthers, A. Stevenson, J. L. Claghorn, J. G. Fell, A. D. Jessup, J. Sartain, J. Bohlen, F. W. Lewis; corresponding and recording secretary, John Sartain; treasurer, W. Struthers; committee of instruction, John Sartain, P. A., A. May Stevenson, Jos. Harrison, D. R. Knight, P. A., Edward Moran, P. A., Samuel Sartain, P. A.

2—PHILADELPHIA SCHOOL OF DESIGN FOR WOMEN.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

The following extract from a letter addressed by Professor Braidwood to the Commissioner of Education, in reply to circular asking for information, will give the progressive development of this institution:

"The enterprise was commenced in November, 1848, by Mrs. Sarah Peter, (wife of the Hon. Wm. Peter, at that time British consul in Philadelphia,) at her dwelling, and was carried on there with encouraging success, when that lady, (a native of Ohio,) in a letter dated March 27, 1850, addressed to Samuel V. Merrick, esq., then president of the Franklin Institute, proposed a connection of her school "as a co-operative but separate branch" with that institution.

In that communication Mrs. Peter says: "Having for a series of years observed, with deep concern, the deprivation and suffering to which a large and increasing number of deserving women are exposed, in this city and elsewhere, for the want of a wider scope in which to exercise their abilities for the maintenance of themselves and their children," * * * and that "our women are confined to the narrowest possible range of employments, and owing to the increasing drain, by emigration to the West and elsewhere of young and enterprising men, we have a constantly increasing number of young women who are chiefly or entirely dependant on their own resources, possessing respectable acquirements, good abilities, sometimes even fine talents, yet who are shut out from every means of exercising them profitably for themselves or others. To such as these the School of Design opens at once the prospect of a comfortable livelihood, with the assurance of a useful and not ignoble career."

The proposition of Mrs. Peter was accepted by the Franklin Institute, and the School of Design for Women was publicly opened at No. 70 Walnut street on December 2, 1850, Bishop Alonzo Potter, presiding, who, in his opening address, said: "It is fervently hoped that through the generous co-operation of the public, and the favoring smiles of Providence, the effort now commenced may be abundantly successful in our own city, and may incite to corresponding efforts throughout the land."

The school was transferred by the Franklin Institute to a board of directors in 1853, the date of its incorporation. We never received any aid from the city.

We own the lot, the building, (122½ feet long,) and all therein; were never in debt, and never expect to be; are quite poor, the instructors little more that half paid; but are hopeful.

We have had legacies amounting to twelve thousand four hundred dollars ($12,400), and within ten years we have had State aid amounting to fifteen thousand dollars ($15,000). Of this sum two annual appropriations, of two thousand dollars ($2,000) each, were deducted from the Philadelphia school fund.

In 1868 we commenced to form an art library from donations, and by annual subscriptions of ten dollars each, We purchase a book, or books, as near the subscription as possible, and the subscriber's name is placed thereon. We have less than one hundred volumes, but nearly all are very useful works.

We have made efforts to encourage and foster the establishment of like schools in different parts of the country. A short time after we had started the Pittsburgh and Wilkesbarre schools, in this State, we visited Chicago with the view of seeking the establishment of a similar instituton there, and was only unsuccessful because of sickness and increasing duties at home. The citizens were quite willing to give money for its support. Indeed it is our standing conviction of years that schools of design could be organized and supported in every city of the United States of twenty thousand inhabitants. All that we require is the means to enable us to do so.

We possess the moulds, prints, &c., to introduce to any extent all the requisite copies and examples needed in the commencement of schools of art and design; and a few thousand dollars would enable us to make moulds, &c., from our highest studies, such as figure and architectural ornament from the antique, and examples of ornament, &c., from all the best periods of art."

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

The courses of instruction pursued in the school have for their object the systematic training of young women in the practice of art, and in the knowledge of its scientific prin-

ciples, with a view of qualifying them to impart to others a careful art education, and to develop its application to the common usages of life, and its relation to the requirements of trade and manufactures.

The stages in the elementary course, with the lectures, have been arranged solely in view of developing a knowledge of form, the laws of light and shade, color, and perspective, none of which can safely be dispensed with, whether in the practice of the "fine" or "applied arts." The course lasts from two and a half to four and a half years, depending upon the industry or aptitude of the student.

Although the leading idea controlling the studies of the pupils is to qualify them as designers for art manufactures, still they are not confined to the various styles of ornamentation alone, and to that practice of geometric and perspective drawing which is preparatory to it, and those botanical and other forms in nature, applicable to the conventional designs of ornamentation. They are allowed, after having passed through certain stages of the course, to enter classes for the study of landscape and figure painting. A well selected collection of casts from the antique present the best possible models for the study of the human figure, and this is further assisted by a course of lectures on anatomy.

ORDER OF STUDIES.

STAGE 1. (a.) Drawing and shading. from Casts and Geometrical figures. (b.) Drawing in outline from "flat" examples. (c.) Practice in the handling of instruments. (d.) Ornamental Geometry. (e.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 2. (a.) Drawing and shading, from Casts of Vases. (b.) Drawing in outline, from "flat" examples. (c.) Elementary Perspective. (d.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 3. (a.) Drawing and shading, from groups composed of Geometrical Figures and Vases. (b.) Drawing in outline, from "flat" examples. (c.) Drawing and shading, from 12 Casts of single leaves. (d.) Drawing and shading, from Casts of Details of Architectural Ornament, consisting of a leaf moulding from the Temple of Mars; the centre rosette from Trajan's Scroll; and a moulding Boss, from St. Stephens, Westminster. (e.) At this point the student must be able to exhibit well drawn diagrams, illustrating the primary rules of perspective. (f.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 4. (a.) Drawing from "flat" examples in outline. (b.) Drawing and shading from Casts from Nature of the Callo Ethiopica, Water Lily, Branch of Apples, Branch of Gourd and Leaf, Branch of Grapes, and a Branch of Blackberries. (c.) Coloring Diagrams in the Primary Colors, by which the Student sees how the Secondary, Tertiary, and Complementary Colors are produced. (d.) Drawing and shading, from Details of Architectural Ornament, consisting of Casts from the upper cornice of Trajan's pillar; a Gothic capital from Stone Church, Kent; a Taracenic panel from the Alhambra; and a Byzantine panel from Bonn. (e.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 5. (a.) Drawing, from "flat" examples in outline. (b.) Drawing and shading, from Details of Architectural Ornament, consisting of Casts of a spandrel from Stone Church, Kent; the Egg-plant and Pomegranate portion of the Frieze of the Ghiberti Gates, Florence; part of a pilaster from the Madelaine, Paris; and a panel from the Ducal Palace at Venice. (c.) The students at this point must be able to answer questions satisfactorily, relating to the human skeleton. (d.) Drawing the feet, hands and skull of the human skeleton. (e.) Drawing and shading, from Casts of Antique Features, consisting of the Nose and Eye of Hadrian, Bacchante, Laocoon, and a pair of Ears, the Nose and Mouth, of Hadrian, Esculapius, Antinous, Venus d'Arles, Juno, Caracalla, and Adonis. (f.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 6. (a.) Drawing from "flat" examples in outline. (b.) Drawing and shading, from Casts of Hands, Arms and Feet, from the Antique, and from the Life. (c.) Drawing and shading, from Casts of the Faces of Clytie, daughter of Niobe, and Brutus. (d.) Painting in monochrome (in oil) from Casts of the faces of Clytie, Daughter of Niobe, and Brutus. (e.) Drawing and shading Landscape, from "flat" examples. (f.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 7. (Painting Ornament from Casts of Centre Rosette and Moulding Boss, in monochrome (in oil.) (b.) Drawing and shading, from Casts of Antique Busts, viz: Dione, Venus of Milo, the Young Hercules, Mercury, Juno, Hercules, Antinous, German Prisoner, Ajax, and the Apollo Belvedere, in different positions. (c.) Painting from the Busts of Juno, Cupid, and Ajax, in monochrome (in oil.) (d.) Anatomical Drawing from the Skeleton, and Cast of the Muscular System, on which must be written the names of the principal bones and superficial muscles—the origin and insertion of the latter to be carefully expressed. (e.) Painting Landscape from "flat" copies, in monochrome (water colors.) (f.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 8. (a.) Drawing in outline (the muscles to be also outlined and the names written thereon,) of Antinous of the Capitol, Venus of Milo, Jason, and the Fighting Gladiator. The proportionality to be strictly observed. (b.) Flower Painting from the "flat," in monochrome (water color.) (c.) Flower Painting from the "flat" in natural colors. (d.) The same figures mentioned in Section A, of this Stage, in crayon. (e.) Landscape from the "flat" in natural colors (in water.) (f.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 9. (a.) The same figures mentioned in Section A, Stage 8, in monochrome (in oil.) (b.) Painting from "flat" examples of studies from the life, (in oil.) (c.) Landscape Painting from Elementary Studies from the "flat," (in oil.) (d.) Elementary Design.

STAGE 10. (a.) Painting in Water Colors, from the "flat," a series of styles of colored ornament, as applied to manufactures. (b.) Applied Design.

STAGE 11. Figure from Life (in crayon and oil.)

STAGE 12. Landscape from Nature (in oil.)

STAGE 13. Drapery (in crayon and oil.)

STAGE 14. Composition.

At the termination of these elementary studies the student will be conducted through whatever special branch of practical art she may possess the aptitude for. These branches consist of pattern designing, lithography, wood engraving, landscape and figure painting in oil, &c.

Students who have made creditable progress to the end of Stage 4 may enter the landscape or lithography classes, for elementary instruction; and those who make like progress to the end of Stage 5 may enter the figure class for elementary instruction—it being understood that the "order of studies" must be continued by the students availing themselves of these privileges.

The officers of the Institution in 1869 were: W. J. Horstman, *president*; J. H. Orne, *vice-president*; P. P. Morris, *secretary*; J. L. Claghorn, *treasurer*; T. W. Braidwood, *principal*.

Information has been received respecting the institutions and movements named below, which will be described in detail in the *Special Report on Schools of Science and the Arts* in different countries.

The *School of Design for Women* in the organization of the Cooper Union, (established by Peter Cooper, who is still living, for the promotion of Science and the Arts in the city of New York, at an original outlay of $640,000 for the purchase of ground, erection of buildings, and providing apparatus and cabinets, for the purposes of the endowment, and of $100,000 since towards the annual expenses, was opened in 1859. Up to 1869 1,500 pupils had received instruction in drawing, wood engraving, &c., at an aggregate expense of $35,000, paid out of the income of the endowment.

A school of design exists in the Polytechnic Institute—the industrial department of Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. The annual circular for 1867 announces that "the school is under the direction of a practical and competent artist. The rooms in the hall of the institute, appropriated to its uses, are well supplied with models and works of art. The school embraces three classes—the primary, the antique, and the life."

A school of art has been established in Yale College, New Haven, Connecticut, called the Street School of Art, after the donor, Augustus R. Street, who erected at his sole expense ($140,000) on the grounds of the college a spacious building devoted to the exhibition of paintings, sculpture, engravings, &c., and to instruction in the arts of design, &c.

Instruction in drawing, as applied to mechanical construction, has been given in New Haven by Professor Lewis Bail since 1857, who is now professor in this department in the Sheffield Scientific School, and who also gives instruction in the public schools of New Haven.

Professor Bail has recently addressed a communication to a committee of the Massachusetts Board of Education, charged with the consideration of a proposition before the Legislature of that State to make drawing an obligatory study in all towns having more than 5,000 inhabitants. This letter is full of useful suggestions, and we introduce it here, slightly abridged in the closing paragraphs.

LETTER ON DRAWING BY PROFESSOR LOUIS BAIL.

SHEFFIELD SCIENTIFIC SCHOOL, NEW HAVEN, *January* 4, 1770.

GENTLEMEN: In answer to your communication of December 17th, I respectfully submit:

"1. The advantages which might be expected to result from the contemplated instruction in mechanical or industrial drawing."

Such instructions will make our nation richer by making our artisans more tasteful and skillful, and by developing the latent talent of the industrial classes.

Without this cultivation no people can aspire to become a first-class manufacturing nation; nor will they be able to compete successfully with the products of skilled industry in the great markets of the world.

Special scientific schools or colleges are indispensible to the high development of the arts under consideration, but they are insufficient; for they fail to reach the masses, and therefore cannot reform the industry of the country. The scientific schools have little effect upon the masses of our mechanics, except to prove the height to which the mechanical profession may aspire. They furnish no means acceptable to the great body of mechanics, and offer them no systematic means of instruction by means of which they may become intelligent and skillful in the performance of their labors.

There is too much guess work in our mechanical operations, that can only be obviated by such instruction as you propose. A great deal of time is wasted in "cutting and fitting." and making things only "about right," when absolute certainty and correctness of plan should have been secured beforehand. There is no form, however complex, that cannot be indicated by drawing in such a manner that an intelligent workman, who is competent to read or understand drawings, can execute the object represented with absolute certainty. The simple ability to read plans and drawings fit a man for a good position. In fact the foreman of a shop is often the only man able to do this. By leaving our mechanics in this semi-barbarous condition we lose much money and credit, and lower the intellectual and moral condition of our artisans. The more mind a man brings to bear upon his business the more respectable and self-respecting he will become.

Why is it that a majority of our apprentices are of foreign parentage? Why is it that American boys are growing too proud to "learn a trade?" Is not the cause found in the fact that our whole system of education has quite ignored an industrial life? The only legitimate result of our educational system will be the production of lawyers and doctors, or at the least clerks and school teachers. In consequence of this defect children receive the impression that education has no bearing on mechanics; that a trade is only manual drudgery. The result is that boys select the most effeminate employment in preference to manly mechanical work.

When our educational system provides our youth with some intelligent preparation for the prosecution of industrial labor, the trades will be filled by a more cultivated class of young men, and our boys will blush to be found selling pins and needles; but they will not be ashamed to be seen using the hammer and chisel.

The whole nation is deploring the lack of good ornamental designers. We are becoming tired of sending yearly so many millions to Europe for articles that we might produce cheaper at home if we had skillful designers. This branch of industry affects articles of homeliest use. Beauty of form and ornamentation is the quality always referred to as perfecting the claim to notice and value. It is hoped that the female population will, so far as it is possible, occupy a field so well suited to their capacity and taste.

"2. The course and methods of instruction appropriate for the object in view."

I shall perhaps be pardoned if, under this head, I allude freely to my own experience and labors. In apology for this I will add that I was, when quite young, appointed professor in the Technic Institution in Nuremberg, Bavaria, which sustained, in connection with the regular scientific (polytechnic) and trade school, an industrial school for mechanics. I have, since this time, been much occupied in consideration of the interests of the industrial class, and have had constant experience by the *actual teaching* of persons engaged in every common branch of industrial labor. I commenced work in this country in the Mechanics' Institute, New York, and have since had several thousand artisans under my instruction. My experience has led me to entertain the most sanguine hopes for the future of American industrial art. I believe there is no other class so willing to make great sacrifices to obtain instruction. Mechanics are the sinew of the commonwealth and deserve the highest consideration of educators. At the conclusion of a lesson, gray-haired mechanics have often almost overpowered me with thanks, saying to me, "This lesson is worth hundreds of dollars to me," or "I shall work better all my life for this." I have often found a pupil repeating the lessons to others, poorer than himself. I have become so affected by the conviction of the need of mechanics, and their desire for knowledge, that I resolved to give a free course of lessons each year to those who are unable to pay for instruction. Of last year's course our school superintendent says, in his report: "Within a few weeks I have been told by members of that class that the knowledge obtained is worth hundreds of dollars to them, in the increased facility and exactness with which they are enabled, in their daily work, to prepare their patterns and construct difficult forms in mechanical operations."

In no department of our industry would the result of judicious training prove more speedy, obvious, and profitable than in the ornamental design. Any system of instruction that fails to provide for this important branch of industry will be defective. The mechanical use of copy-books will never make a designer. The competent teacher in ornamental design will be able to do much for his pupils in a few lectures. He will commence by illustrating the simplest form of ornamentation by the use of the dot. He will bring examples from nature, as feathers, shells, flowers, &c. Next he will draw lines giving the simplest forms, and show their different changes and combinations. A figure composed of a multitude of lines only serves to confuse the mind of the pupil. As the power of analysis increases more complicated ornaments should be presented. The various styles of ornaments peculiar to different nations, beautiful forms of vases, &c., must be presented as models. The taste of the pupil will soon become informed; but he will reap little practical benefit unless these instructions are preceded by sound elementary training of the hand and eye. This training should form the initial step to every department of drawing.

The pupil in mechanical drawing must first acquire knowledge of the use of the mathematical instruments. He must then learn to draw practical problems in plane and descriptive geometry, which will be found to be the language and interpreter of all mechanical drawing. At the conclusion of these lessons the pupils are divided into different classes, in accordance with their pursuits.

The instructor should possess broad culture, but he should not confuse his pupils with the variety and extent of his knowledge. He should be able to bring out of his treasures "things new and old," but he should not present any question for speculation or display. He should study to present principles of the greatest practical use to his pupils, and to teach them the practical applications of these principles. Our mechanics, as a rule, are too much wearied with labor to find interest in questions outside their calling. They want the prospect of some tangible good to incite them to industry and improvement. It appears to me, therefore, that the initial undertaking should be devoted chiefly to practical results in the industrial arts.

The principal special classes will be as follows: 1, machinists; 2, carriage-makers; 3, carpenters, joiners, and stair-builders; 4, tinners; 5, masons and stone-cutters; 6, carvers and modelers. Lessons should be given in physics, mechanics, and mathematics.

"3. The models, casts, patterns, and other apparatus necessary to be supplied."

For descriptive geometry: Models of various planes, superficies, and solids.

For perspective: The perspective plane, with various apparatus; also, model for explaining the arches, &c.

For machine drawing: Models of wood of various parts of machinery, a sectional working model of an engine, models for illustrating the principles of belting pulleys, the various wheels, and other simple models.

For architectural drawing: Models of the Grecian and Roman orders, and of various styles, models of roofs of houses and steeples, of frame-work of houses, and models of various winding stairs, doors and windows, &c.

For carriage-makers: A simple frame of a carriage to explain the "French rule."

For tinners: Envelopes of various geometrical figures and solids.

For carvers, modelers, decorators, and designers for fresco, paper-hangings, carpets, calico, silver and glass-ware: A variety of plaster models and ornaments, with a large variety of patterns, ornaments, examples of various styles and countries.

"4. The organization and supervision of the proposed drawing schools."

Success or failure of the enterprise must depend in a great degree upon the zeal and intelligence of the teachers. The Normal schools should be provided with a thorough and systematic course of instruction. It would be wise to convene a special session, with the express object of preparing teachers for the work. These teachers should be required to submit to an examination by a competent authority, who should also supervise their work.

My experience as teacher leads me to conclude that the preparation of teachers may be accomplished without special difficulty. I have seldom given a course of lessons in industrial drawing to mechanics but at the conclusion of the term some leading member of the class would step into the front rank and take the position of teacher. Their labors have often been attended with marked success.

Without doubt each town of five thousand inhabitants has a teacher or teachers somewhat skilled in drawing, and who would be willing, with such encouragement as the Board will be able to offer, to fit himself fully for the work. The Board should define strictly the duties of these teachers. In the large towns special drawing schools should be established.

"5. The best means of promoting among the people an interest in the subject of art education."

To promote a permanent interest in art education, there is nothing like true teaching to arouse and retain the popular heart.

A good lecture upon art does indeed act as a stimulant, but cannot afford nutrition and growth. "Talking" without "chalking" is to little practical purpose with the masses.

Your obedient servant,

LOUIS BAIL.

DRAWING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF EVERY GRADE.

Thirty-one years ago (1839) the writer of the following letter, in an address delivered in the House of Representatives at New Haven, and repeated in the course of the next five years in eleven States, (in Detroit, Mich.; Columbus, Ohio; Frankfort, Ky.; New Orleans, La.; Charleston, S. C.; Providence, R. I.; Concord, N. H.; Montpelier, Vt.; Nashville, Tenn.; Chicago, Ill.; Madison, Wis.,) on "The Condition and Improvement of Common Public Schools" in the United States, remarked:

"The most disastrous omission in the subjects and course of instruction in our public schools—the most fruitful addition, both in mental discipline and development and for future use, to be made to the acquisitions of our American youth, no matter what may be his future position—is DRAWING, the power of representing real objects (solid forms) or ideal conceptions by lines upon surfaces, the training of the eye and hand, and through them the inner sense of beauty, and the enjoyment of its exhibition in the productions of nature and art. To the teacher, this power of visible illustration in presenting distant objects or abstract truths in geography, mathematics, and natural science, is almost indispensable. Its absence accounts for the dry, unfruitful, almost repulsive and deadening teaching of these subjects in our schools. Seeing is believing, and the sooner our teachers can enlist the eye as well as the ear in the work of the school-room, or of the private study of the pupil, the better. To the man or woman who has a house to build, a machine to be constructed or dress to be fitted, a pattern to be shaped; to the mechanic, inventor, manufacturer; to the traveller, who would preserve his recollection of public buildings, or the sublime and beautiful in nature; to the artist or the man of taste who would fix the fleeting images which his imagination conceives; to the student in natural history, and in almost every domain of science, drawing is a valuable acquisition; and yet I do not know and cannot learn that there is a single public school in this country in which drawing is part of the regular course of instruction. In a few young ladies' seminaries, to their credit, be it said, although the special aim and method are often wretchedly low, linear drawing is introduced; and the pupil works up a jagged tree, a broken fence, a clumsy gate, or outlandish castle, or some similar *picturesque* object, to the admiration of visitors and parents. But the study of drawing, in its essential geometrical principles, in the laws of perspective, after models prepared from a minute analysis of form, and the applications of these principles to architecture, furniture, and the ornamentation of our homes, to machinery and to manufactures, are apparently unthought of, and the suggestion that this fact is not creditable to our practical good sense, and that drawing should at once be taught by skilled masters, not to the poor or the rich, but to all, and especially to the future mechanic and manufacturer, will be deemed extravagant. But this is my conviction, and I hope to see the time when drawing will constitute a regular branch of American popular education."

LETTER FROM THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION.

In reply to the circular of the Massachusetts Board of Education before cited, the Commissioner of Education at Washington writes:

(1.) "In respect to the advantages which might be expected to result from the contemplated instruction in mechanical or industrial drawing," for thirty years I have advocated the introduction of drawing as a regular and indispensable branch of study in public schools of every grade, as a part of general as well as special culture for the training of the eye and hand, of the conceptive faculty, and the sense of the beautiful in nature and art. If we are ever to have a system of industrial as well as of art education, or if any provision is to be made for the future occupation of the mass of our pupils in the public schools, *drawing must be introduced as the very alphabet and key to the whole scheme.* No one power, after the ability to read, write, and cipher, can be made more pleasurable and useful, both in its acquisition and manifold applications. No attainment can introduce its possessor more directly into the region of the beautiful, the true and the good, both intellectually and morally, or prove so directly useful in every mechanical occupation, as well as in the work itself of instruction in natural history, natural science, geography, and other studies.

(2.) "The course and methods of instruction in industrial drawing" must depend, to a great extent, on the class of schools into which it is to be introduced, and the special object to be accomplished, although the first principles are as applicable to one school and one object as to another. Your inquiries, addressed as they will be to practical teachers in different parts of the country, wherever a beginning has been made in this department, to the professors of drawing in the School of Design of the Lowell Institute, and in the Institute of Technology, Boston; to Prof. Woodman, of the Chandler Scientific School at Dartmouth College; to Prof. Gladwin (a pupil of the Central School of Art in London) at the Worcester Technical School; to Prof. Bail, of the Sheffield Scientific School, and of the New Haven and Hartford schools; to the principal of the Philadelphia School of Design for Women, and also of a similar school in Cooper Union, New York; to the Professor of Drawing in the public schools of Cincinnati, and other practical teachers, will secure responses which will at least give you the results of the experience thus far reached in our own country. But, as the subject is new with us, we can profitably turn to the schools

and the experience of other countries, and learn how the problem of instruction in drawing, both in its introduction and in its modifications to adapt it to the different industries, has been solved. To aid you in this branch of your inquiry, I will send you, as soon as Congress shall take action on its publication, a special report on "*Scientific and Industrial Education, or an account of the systems, institutions, and courses of instruction on the principles of science applied to the arts of Peace and War.*" In this document (a volume of 800 pages) you will find schemes of industrial instruction in different countries, and in more than one hundred schools of different kinds and grades, from the polytechnic to the Sunday and evening school and class. In all of these schools much time, through the whole course, is allotted to drawing. You will also find in the same report several extended and elaborate reports and programmes on the special subject of drawing.

In the chapter on France you will find a very able report by Mr. Ravisson, Inspector General of Superior Instruction, in the name and behalf of a Special Commission created by the Minister of Public Instruction to consider the whole subject, in its general as well as special bearings, its educational discipline and industrial uses. The suggestions and recommendations of this report were made the basis of the present system of instruction in drawing in all the secondary schools of France. In the same chapter you will find the programme of instruction in this branch drawn up and prescribed by the Minister of Public Instruction for all the *secondary special schools* which have been established within the last three years, as one of the results of the governmental inquiry into technical education. You will also find the report and action of a committee of the municipal authorities of Paris, with reference to the introduction of drawing into all the public schools of that city, as well as the conclusions of a conference of teachers of art schools held in Paris in 1869.

Under the head of Belgium, where a system of instruction in drawing in reference to national industries, as well as to the fine arts, technically so called, has existed for a century, you will find the course prescribed for the Academies and Schools of Design, for the support of which the Government makes an annual appropriation of over $50,000, as well as that in the industrial schools and apprentices' workshops, which are aided by the State and the local authorities, both municipal and provincial. For the encouragement of art studies, this little kingdom of about five millions of inhabitants appropriated over $200,000 in 1868. For the advancement of this study both in the higher and the elementary schools, a conference of all the directors and teachers of the schools of art was held in Brussels in 1869, the proceedings and conclusions of which will be found in the same chapter.

In the chapter on Prussia, you will find the regulations for instruction in this branch drawn up by the Minister of Public Instruction in 1831, and revised and reissued in 1863, "after taking the advice of the professors in the Royal Academies of Art in Berlin, Dusseldorf, and of Konigsberg, and of the provincial academic councils, and of several teachers of long experience," in reference to the requirements of art and industrial education for the different classes in all the secondary, polytechnic and trade schools in the kingdom. To this programme is appended a valuable paper on the best plan of giving instruction in drawing in common schools, prepared by Dr. Hentschel, an eminent teacher and writer on education.

You will find much to interest and instruct you, not only in the special objects of your inquiry, but in the whole subject of technical education, in the chapter on Wurtemberg, a kingdom in which elementary education is more nearly universal than in any other country of the same population in the world, and in which a most thorough and comprehensive system of scientific and industrial schools is in actual operation, in addition to a system of general public schools, embracing all grades, from the infant school to the university. In this chapter I have introduced a special report of the Minister of Education on the details and results of the plan of instruction in drawing introduced into all the popular schools of the kingdom—the common, real and trade schools—for the avowed purpose of bringing the mechanical and manufacturing industries of the country up to the standard of France, Belgium, Bavaria and other countries, which had of late years done much for the artistic training of their workmen.

In the account which I shall present of the present state of this movement in England, so as to induce special technical instruction beyond the art of design, I shall introduce the testimony of many manufacturers and capitalists, as well as the observations of engineers and committees, as to both the necessity of this instruction and the best modes of introducing and extending it, which may prove serviceable in the enlargement of your present plans.

(3.) As to "the models, casts," etc., "necessary to be supplied," you will find in my report several lists of such as have been found most useful in similar instruction in the different European schools, and the modes in which they have been multiplied. Copies of all can be very cheaply obtained by application to the proper governmental authorities having charge of this subject in Wurtemberg, France, and England, and from them a selection can be made, adapted to the wants of your own state.

(4.) The details of "organization and supervision" should be committed to a special committee, acting under the general direction of the Board of Education, of which committee the secretary of the board should be a member, and one or more of the professors of this branch.

(5.) "The best means of promoting," or at least an effectual means "of promoting among the people, an interest in the subject of art education," will be to make an exhibition

of the results of this teaching in one good school in each of the different counties, as one good school in a county will be the best argument that can be addressed to the people of other towns in the same county in behalf of the introduction of this new branch of instruction.

(6) The success of the whole scheme will depend: *first*, on the selection of competent teachers; *second*, the training of the students at the Normal Schools in the best methods of teaching drawing; and for this purpose a special term should be given them for prosecuting the study, in addition to the daily practice during their connection with the school: *third*, the selection of the proper models, casts, and patterns, which should be made by the State Committee, and furnished to the several schools without cost, or at least at a reduced price: *fourth*, an annual exposition of the results of this teaching at some central point in the county; for example, at the meetings of the Agricultural Societies, or at the meetings of Teachers' Institutes or County Associations; and finally, in some Central Museum of Industrial Art in Boston connected with the Mechanics' Association or the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which, I trust, will ere long equal the *Conservatoire* of Paris, the Technological Museums of St. Petersburg, Berlin, Stuttgardt, and the Kensington Museum of London.

Should you think the distribution of any of the chapters in this Special Report will promote the object contemplated in your appointment, I shall be very glad to have them struck off for your use.

Very respectfully, HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner of Education.

The Special Committee, to whom the above and other communications were addressed, reported in favor of an enactment by the legislature requiring drawing to be taught in the public schools, and making it obligatory on every town and city having more than ten thousand inhabitants to provide "free instruction in industrial or mechanical drawing to persons over fifteen years of age, either in day or evening schools, under the direction of the Select Committee," [which enactment was made May 16, 1870.]

Your committee are more than ever impressed with the importance of urging upon the people of the Commonwealth the introduction of free-hand drawing into all our public schools.

It cannot be denied, that the almost total neglect of this branch of instruction in past times has been a great defect in our system of education.

While great progress has been made in general and practical knowledge, the taste and love for the arts, and art-culture generally, have not much improved.

That we are far behind many other nations in all the means of art-culture is very evident. We have few models or museums of art in our country to which students can resort for study and instruction.

Our native artisans and mechanics feel this sad defect. Foreign workmen occupy the best and most responsible places in our factories and workshops. Our most promising students in sculpture and painting are compelled to seek in other countries the advantages which are necessary to their success; and, when they become distinguished, they elect to remain where they can receive the greatest encouragement and the highest appreciation of their skill and genius. Our State and country need the influences of refined art-culture. Before we can reach a very high position, a generation at least must be educated, with improved tastes; and a more general appreciation of the nature and value of true art-culture must prevail amongst the people. Much can and must be done for the present generation of mechanics and artisans. In all our large towns and cities where a sufficient number of adult pupils can be found, schools should be established, and every encouragement afforded for improvement in those branches of drawing which belong to the industrial arts.

Agents could be employed to go through the Commonwealth and interest the people in this most important subject. Wherever evening classes can be formed of the young or old, free instruction should be furnished in free-hand drawing: and, in a few years, our enterprising people will begin to discover in our own communities and schools as good artists and artisans as can be found in the most favored portions of other countries.

We have no doubt that the greatest good will be accomplished by proper instruction in our public schools, and that our chief efforts should be directed towards this end. Teachers should be required to be qualified to instruct in free-hand drawing; and the work should be begun in the primary departments, and should be continued with zeal and fidelity through the period of school life.

An Act relating to free instruction in drawing.

Be it enacted, &c. 1. The first section of chapter thirty-eight of the general statutes is hereby amended so as to include drawing among the branches of learning which are, by said section, required to be taught in the public schools.

2. Any city or town may, and every city and town having more than ten thousand inhabitants shall, annually make provision for giving free instruction in industrial or mechanical drawing to persons over fifteen years of age, either in day or evening schools, under the direction of the school committee.

3. This act shall take effect upon its passage.

Approved May 16, 1870.

SCIENTIFIC AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION: an Account of Systems, Institutions, and Courses of Instruction in the Principles of Science applied to the Arts of Peace and War in different Countries.

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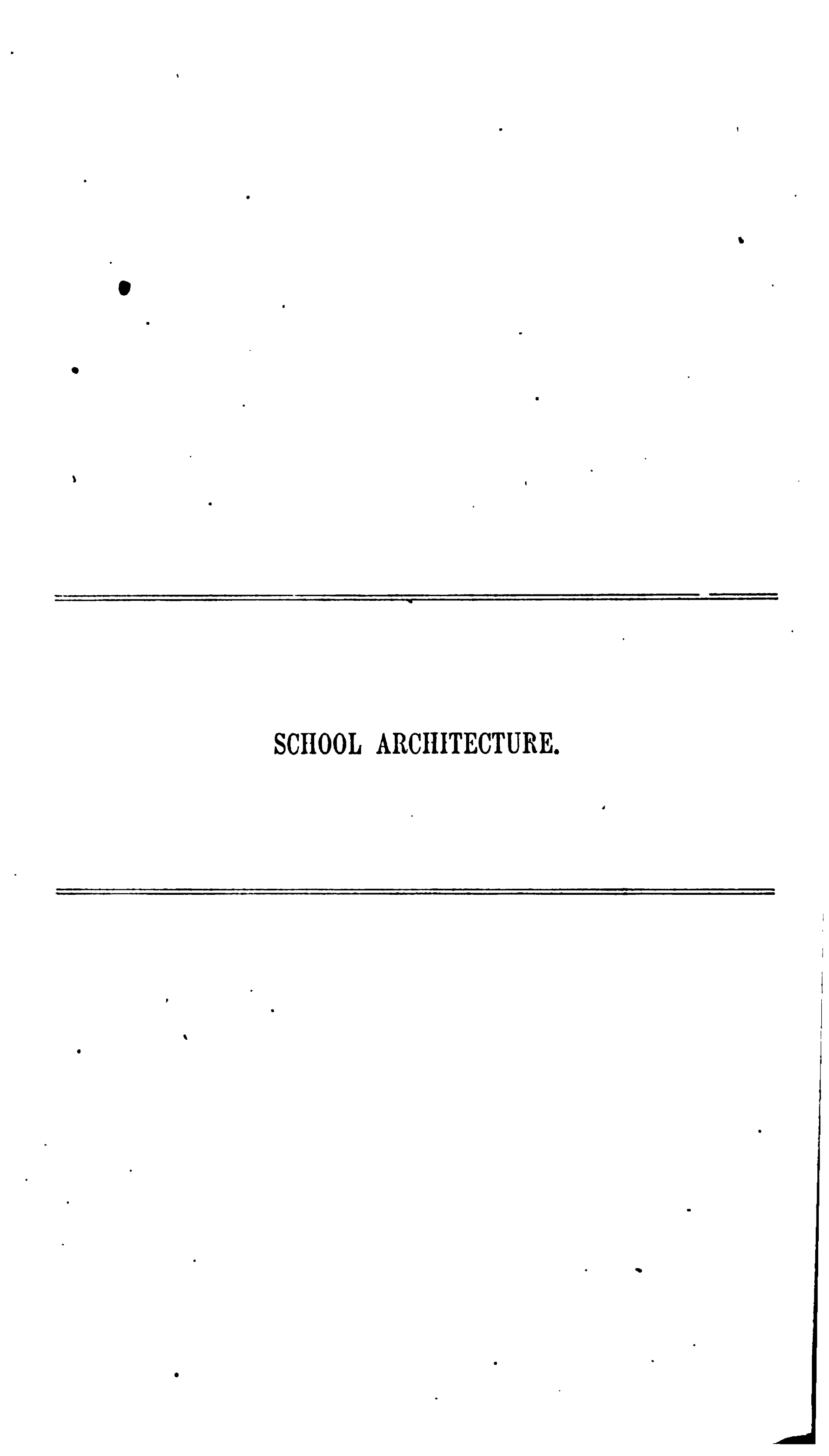
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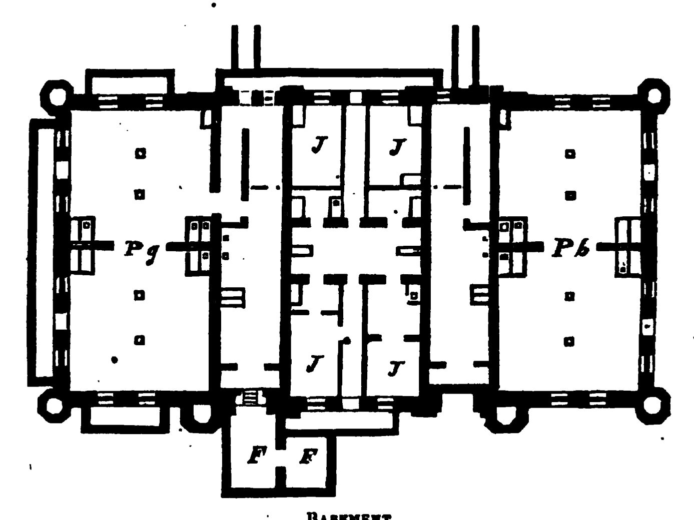
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SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

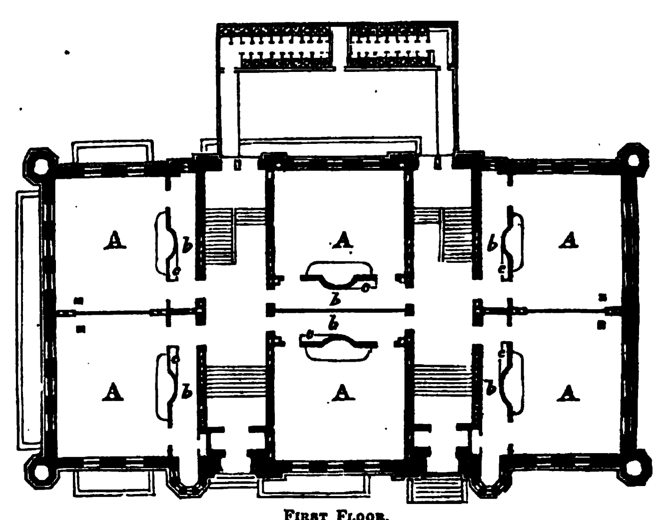


FRANKLIN PUBLIC SCHOOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.
Erected in 1868. Kluss and Kamerhueber, Architects.



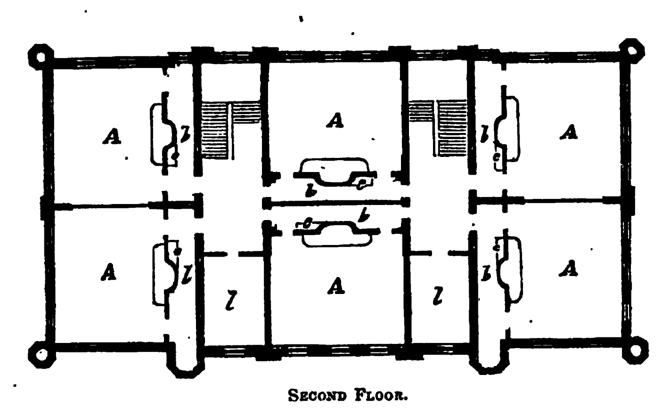
BASEMENT.

P. g. Play-ground, boys.
P. g. " " girls.
J. Janitor's apartments.
F. Fuel.



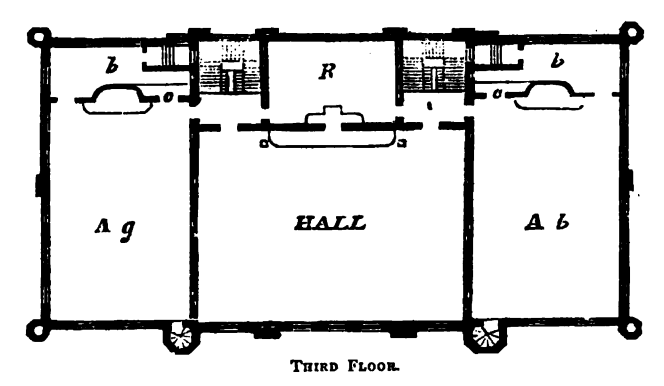
FIRST FLOOR.

A. Class rooms, 27×33 feet.
b. Pupils' cloak rooms, 6 ft. 3×33 feet.
c. Teachers' closets.



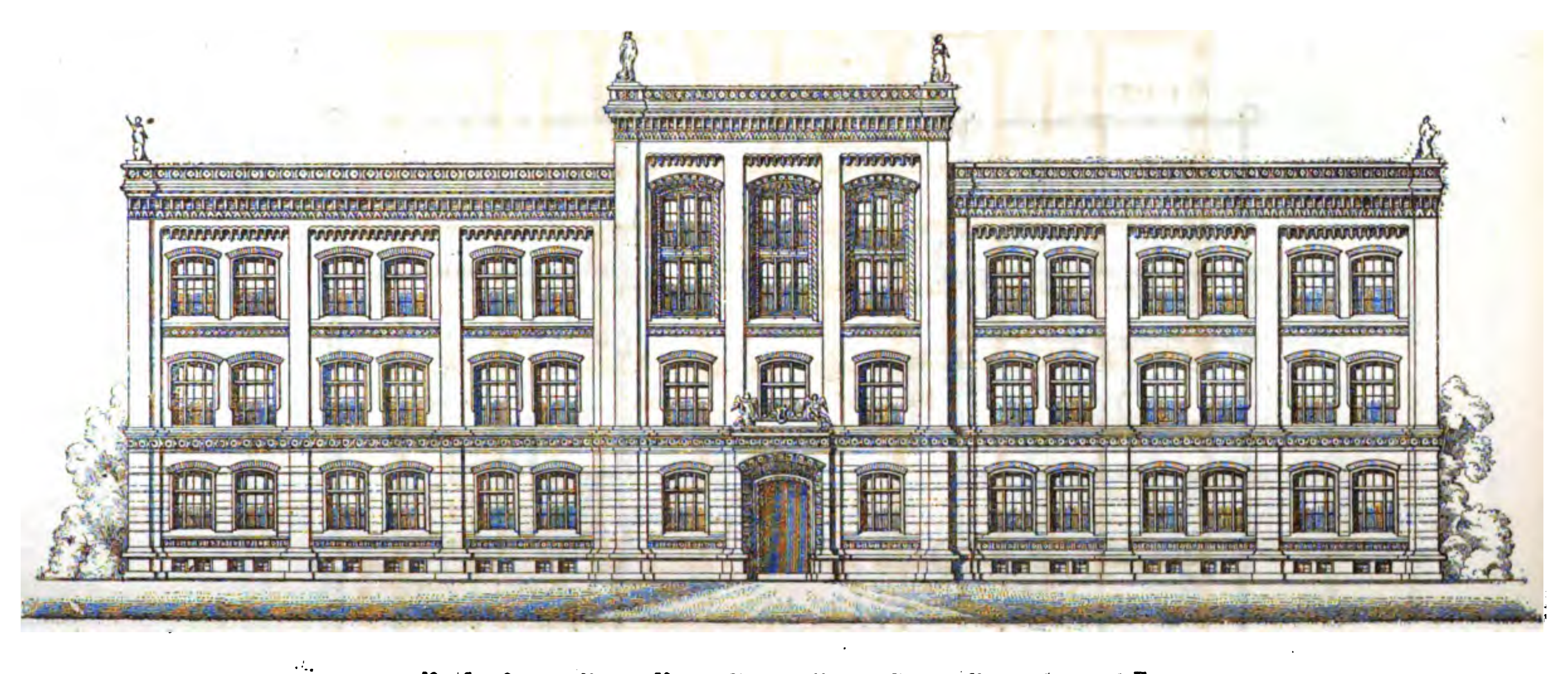
SECOND FLOOR.

A. Class rooms, 27×33 feet.
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l. Library, 14 ft. 8 in.×21 ft. 6 in.
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THIRD FLOOR.

A. b. School-room, boys, 33 ft. 7×54.
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c. Teachers' closets.



BERLIN.—FREDERIC WILLIAM GYMNASIUM.



Plan of Ground Floor.

Plan of First Story



WALLACH SCHOOL, Washington, D. C.

F

ILLITERACY IN THE UNITED STATES.

By EDWIN LEIGH.

CONTENTS.

NOTWITHSTANDING the number and variety of schools, public and private, elementary and of higher grades, and the consequent general education of our people, there are now, as there have been, vast numbers who can not even read and write. The census tables of 1840, 1850, and 1860, bring to light facts on this subject which ought to arrest the earnest attention of every American citizen.

The first statistics upon this subject for the United States were gathered and published in the national census of 1840. It returns 549,850 white persons over twenty years of age unable to read and write. In 1850 this number had increased to 962,898; and in 1860 it had swelled to 1,126,575. To this number should be added 91,786 free colored illiterate adults, and 1,653,800 adult slaves, now free, and we have the alarming aggregate of 2,872,111, or nearly three millions of our adult population reported as wholly unable to read and write.

But, as much more than half our population are under twenty-one, and as there has been no corresponding increase of educational facilities, there must be, and is, a still larger number, more than three millions, of young persons who are growing up in ignorance to fill the ranks of illiteracy as the older ones pass off the stage. So that more than six millions of the American people constitute a *bookless* class, shut out from direct access to this main source of knowledge. Not counting the million and a half of these under ten years of age, who can not yet be said to be illiterate (though they are on the high road to it, unless something more efficient is promptly done to save them), we have one and a half millions of illiterate youth to add to the three millions of illiterate adults, or four and a half millions of youth and adults actually illiterate. They themselves can make no use of our Bibles, our printed constitutions and laws, our various instructive books, or our newspapers, the great agency of popular information, but must depend upon others. To their blind eyes the light from the printed page and the daily sheet is darkness. They have received no direct benefit from all our public and private schools, or from the large sums given or appropriated for school purposes. Those who *have* learned to read have been reached directly by these appropriations and benefactions. Can not something effectual be done for these millions who have been, and still remain, unprovided for and out of reach?

It may be said, "A large proportion of these are negroes, recently slaves." But they are *men*, ignorant men, women, and children; and they themselves, and we all of us with them, must suffer the evil consequences of this ignorance, if it can not be, if it is not, removed. But, besides them, there are more than a million and a half (1,700,000) illiterate white youth and adults, and another half million of children under ten, growing up to (must it be!) hopeless ignorance.

But some say, "They are mostly foreigners, from countries where, in the interests of despotism, the people are kept in ignorance." This is true of only a small portion of the emigrants from Europe, nearly all the European States from which most of them come, having efficient systems of public schools. Besides, our illiterate are, most of them, native-born. In 1860, according to the census, there were, of our illiterate adults, but 346,893 of foreign birth, while there were 871,418 native-born. The foreign-born illiterate are found chiefly in the States containing our great commercial cities (as Massachusetts, 45,000; New York, 96,000; Pennsylvania, 37,000); especially in the East. In the West and many western cities the immigrants, being chiefly Germans, can read and write their own language. In California the Chinese are not to be included in the number of those who can not read and write. A writer in one of our leading magazines has recently said that "the first Chinaman, unable to read his own language, has yet to make his appearance in California." The superintendent of public instruction of the State of New York in his special report in 1867, says, "Travelers and missionaries, and men connected with foreign embassies, are agreed in saying that about all the male population of China can read and write. But the women are neither sent to school nor educated at home." It is well known that, by law, all the offices of government, the greatest civil advantages, and the highest honors, are given only to those who excel in the schools, and in the national literary examinations. These are open to all, and it would seem, that all, or nearly all, the boys in the empire start in the race to obtain these prizes, and that they acquire some rudiments of an education before they give up the attempt. But all over *our* country we have vast numbers of native-born citizens who can not read,—over 1,800,000 adults and youths, and nearly 500,000 children growing up untaught. It is to be remembered, too, that the freedmen, now citizens, are also native-born.

But it has been said, "They are chiefly in those States where there are no common schools, in the South, 'poor whites' kept down by institutions and influences which have now been swept away." There are, indeed, thousands of illiterate "poor whites" in the South, as shown by the census. In 1860 there were in South Carolina, 15,000 adult native whites who could not read; in Georgia, 43,000; in Alabama, 37,000; in Mississippi, 15,000. And in the next tier of States north it was worse; in North Carolina, 68,000; in Virginia, 72,000; in Tennessee, 67,000; in Kentucky, 63,000; in Missouri, 50,000. But still farther north, where the influences of slavery were not directly felt, and where systems of education, public and private, have been long in operation, there are still many thousands of this unfortunate class; in Pennsylvania, 36,000; in New York, 20,000; in Ohio, 41,000; in Indiana, 54,000; in Illinois, 38,000; in Iowa, 13,000; in California, 11,000; and even in the oldest section of the country where common schools have been in operation from its earliest settlement, there are one or two thousand in each State, too many to be accounted for by the incapacity of certain classes to be taught. Such a fact forces the inquiry as to the sufficiency and efficiency of the means, facilities, and methods of instruction employed.

Thus, it appears, that this immense evil, our weakness and our disgrace, extends

among our native population as well as among those of foreign birth; in the North as well as in the South, both in the East and in the West; in the old States and in the new, from Maine to Georgia, as well as from Maine to California. It is a wide-spread, national calamity.

It has been also a *growing* evil; it has grown with the growth of the population. Indeed, from 1840 to 1850 it grew faster than the population. Not only did the gross numbers increase from 550,000 to nearly a million, but the per cent. of illiterate increased from 9 per cent. in 1840 to 11 per cent. in 1850. And, although in 1860 it was reduced again to 9 per cent., where it was in 1840, so that, apparently, taking the whole twenty years together, illiteracy has not grown faster than the population, still it has held its own; the numbers have increased from 550,000 adult white illiterate, to 1,127,000; the per cent. remains the same. It is probable that the return to 9 per cent. in 1860 is due to real progress by earnest Sunday-school or similar efforts to teach the illiterate to read, or by the improving condition of some of our States, and is not due, as some have feared, to preconcerted and combined plans to reduce the numbers returned from some States to a minimum, and thus wipe off the stigma of ignorance exposed by previous census returns, and that the country is not taking such fearful backward strides in the direction of proportional, as well as absolute, illiteracy.

The facts above stated come down only to 1860. Now, in 1870, the absolute numbers, the great army of the illiterate, must have greatly increased. Whether the per cent. has diminished or increased we have yet to learn. The effect of the late war in aggravating and extending the sources of illiteracy will appear in the census of 1870 and 1880, and must be severely felt in its dire influence in this direction upon our social and political life. The opportunity and the stimulus given to the education of the freedman can not compensate, in one generation, for so much evil. The grand, heroic, and eminently successful efforts of the teachers of the freedman and their liberal supporters, have accomplished wonders. But what are these among so many? Taking all who are reported as taught to read, the number is hardly enough to keep up with the natural increase of the population. But even this is better than was done for the illiterate whites in the whole country from 1840 to 1850 and 1860. If the increasing illiteracy of the blacks has been arrested, that of the whites has not yet been checked. Such an evil demands all our wisdom to devise ways and means to arrest and remove it, and all our zeal and energies to put them in execution.

So far the facts have been given simply as they stand in the census. But it is well known to those who have investigated the subject that these are far below the truth. Hardly any who can read and write will report themselves, or be reported, as unable to do so, while many who can not read would not like to be so set down in the census. This is natural, and must too often be the fact. Horace Mann judged himself within bounds, when he added to the figures of the census on this point, "only thirty per cent. for its *undoubted* under-estimates," and he raised the number 550,000 for 1840 to 700,000. In corroboration of this he quotes from the message of Governor Campbell, of Virginia, in 1839, statements derived from the most reliable sources, the court records of five city and borough courts, and ninety-three county courts (out of 125 counties in the State), to the effect that "almost one quarter part of the men applying for marriage licenses were unable to write their names." The census report for 1840 gave 58,787 illiterate white adults in Virginia; Governor Campbell's proportion would raise the number to 82,489, or 40 per cent. more. From such facts as this, and from careful comparisons of the census reports for the several States, and for the several years

1840, 1850, and 1860, there can be no doubt that the figures of the census may be relied on as much below the painful truth.

But there is a further view to be taken of this question. There are large numbers of persons who can read a little, but who read so imperfectly, and with such hesitation and difficulty, that they *do not* read at all. They are practically, if not absolutely, illiterate. There are many words that on account of our irregular and difficult spelling they can not understand, and many more that they make out slowly and with great difficulty. The attempt to read, is to them, so profitless, so dull, and so laborious, that they give it up, and make little or no use of books and newspapers.

Altogether, this questionof illiteracy in our country is a most serious one. The more closely we look at it, the more serious it appears. If the reports of the census are ever to be any thing more than useless columns of figures, to be neglected and cast aside as rubbish; if the great facts so laboriously accumulated and extensively published, are ever to become living and operative, it would seem that such statistics and such facts as these ought to arrest the most earnest attention of the nation, and to lead to the most determined and energetic efforts to remove so great and so dangerous an evil.

Twenty-eight years ago, when the fact, then just revealed by the census of 1840, that more than half a million, or nine per cent. of our adult white population could not read and write, was first published to the country, it produced a profound sensation. Those of us who then read it in the journals of the day, with any interest in the intelligence and welfare of our country, will remember the impression it made on our own minds, and the comments of the public press. We, who had cherished our educational advantages as a precious inheritance from our fathers, and had been accustomed to regard this as a favored land of common schools, academies, and colleges; a land of Bibles, tracts, and Sunday-schools; a

Table I.—White persons over twenty years of age who can not read and write.

1840.	White.	1840.	White.
Ala.	22,592	Mo.	19,457
Ark.	6,567	N. H.	942
Conn.	526	N. J.	6,385
Del.	4,832	N. Y.	44,452
Fla.	1,303	N. C.	56,609
Ga.	30,717	Ohio	35,394
Ill.	27,502	Penn.	33,940
Ind.	38,100	R. I.	1,614
Iowa	1,118	S. C.	20,615
Ky.	40,018	Tenn.	58,531
La.	4,861	Vt.	2,270
Maine	8,241	Va.	58,732
Md.	11,817	Wis.	1,701
Mass.	4,448	D. C.	1,033
Mich.	2,173		
Miss.	8,360	Total	549,850

Table I. is taken from the "Compendium of the Sixth Census" (1840), p. 99. It presents but a single fact with regard to each State (all that this census gives directly), "the number of white persons over twenty years of age who can not read and write;" there are no distinctions of nativity, color, or sex. It needs no special explanation.

It is arranged on the page so as to be conveniently compared with the Tables and Views which follow.

In Table IV. the numbers of illiterate whites *at* twenty years of age, "aged twenty and under twenty-one," are given for 1840, as well as for 1850 and 1860.

In Table V. the numbers of illiterate whites "aged twenty and over" (that is, combining those *at* twenty with those over twenty), are given for the year 1840. Tables I. and V. for 1840 correspond with Tables II. and III. for 1850 and 1860, but could not be incorporated with them without needlessly extending them over more space than could be given conveniently in these pages.

In View I. the relative numbers of illiterate adults in the several States in 1840, as recorded (in Table I.), are brought out to view, so as to be seen and better appreciated.

land of books and newspapers in the hands of an enlightened and free people, were startled by this unexpected announcement. More than half a million of our free citizens were utterly illiterate; in South Carolina, in Alabama, in Missouri, about 20,000 each; in Georgia, in Illinois, in Pennsylvania, 30,000; in Ohio, 35,000; in Indiana, in Kentucky, 40,000; in New York, 45,000; and nearly 60,000 in North Carolina, in Tennessee, and in Virginia; in all, more than a twelfth part of our adult white population, and then there were all the slaves. It was a painful, a mortifying, and a dangerous state of things; *how* dangerous we have since learned by terrible experience in our late destructive war, which would never have come upon us had we been a nation of readers.

In no State was this revelation more fitly and earnestly considered than in Virginia. Without looking at the motes in a brother's eye; without attempting to explain away, or palliate, so great an evil; without seeking a wretched comfort in the almost equal numbers and larger percentage of illiteracy in some other States, or the still greater ignorance in the mother country; she set herself earnestly to consider her own condition and seek a remedy. An educational convention was called to meet in Richmond, December 9, 1841, and nothing that was said or published at the time is more worthy to be remembered than these words of James M. Garnet in his address before that convention. After stating that, "long ago a few individuals had earnestly asked for such a convention," he adds:

"But these efforts, few and far between, fell still-born from the press, and, if my memory fails me not, obtained no friendly response from any quarter whatever. This, I verily believe, would still be the case, had it not been for the startling fact, disclosed by our late census, that there are nearly sixty thousand of our white population, over twenty years of age, who can neither read nor write. The publication of such a fact throughout the United States—a fact so replete with reproach, degradation, and disgrace to Virginia—has effectually shamed and alarmed us all." "The excitement which has resulted in producing the present convention, has given rise to many suggestions in our public journals, which evince how sincerely and deeply their authors feel the political as well as the moral evils that are the necessary consequences of the totally unlettered state in which so large a portion of our people have been found."

Soon after this, a public school system was established in Virginia, as was done about the same time in North Carolina. But, notwithstanding all that was done in these and other States, the evil of illiteracy seems not to have been remedied, or even materially arrested, though it must have been in a measure checked in some districts.

The alarming increase in the numbers and in the per cent. of the unlettered class in 1850 produced little impression on the public mind, and led to no corresponding or adequate efforts. And when, in 1860 this dark cloud was spreading wider over the face of the country, if not deepening in gloom, hardly any public notice was taken of its threatening aspect. The quick feeling and prompt action of (at least a few States in) 1840 were gone. Why was there such apathy and inaction when there was so much more to do, and so much more need of it?

The causes and remedies of this, and of our illiteracy itself, have been the subjects of long-continued and anxious attention, and will be considered in connection with the several VIEWS which follow. These have been prepared in the hope of arresting public attention to these facts, and of leading to some effective course of action. To this end they are respectfully laid before the American People.

EDWIN LEIGH.

cording to his own knowledge and judgment. The statistics of the unfortunate, or excepted, classes of white persons—the idiotic, the insane, the blind, and the deaf—are given in the last four columns, on account of their relation to this question of the per cent. of illiterate, especially in those States where very few are

ILLITERATE ADULTS. WHOLE NUMBER OF ADULTS. PER CENT. OF ILLITERATE. / WHITE PERSONS NOT EASILY TAUGHT. WHOLE WHITE POPULATION. PER CENT.

1850. 1860.	FREE PERSONS. Native. White.	Native. Col'd.	Native. Total.	Foreign. White.	Foreign. C'd.	Foreign. Total.	Native and Foreign. White.	Native and Foreign. Colored.	Native and Foreign. Total.	Slaves	TOTAL.	Idiotic.	Insane.	Blind.	Deaf.
Miss.	14,039 / 120,357 / 11.67	126 / 482	14,165 / 120,839 / 11.72	83 / 2,865	2 / 7	85 / 2,872 / 2.96	14,122 / 123,222 / 11.47	128 / 489 / 26.18	14,250 / 123,711 / 11.52	135,835 / 135,835	150,085 / 259,546 / 58	136 / 296 / .05	105 / 296 / .04	112 / 296 / .04	79 / 296 / .03
	15,793 / 151,312 / 10.44	115 / 391	15,908 / 151,703 / 10.49	526 / 5,134	0 / 1	526 / 5,135 / 10.24	16,319 / 156,446 / 10.43	115 / 392 / 29.34	16,434 / 156,838 / 10.48	203,851 / 203,851	220,285 / 360,689 / 61	192 / 354 / .05	236 / 354 / .07	147 / 354 / .04	152 / 354 / .04
Mo.	36,306 / 211,126 / 17.20	514 / 1,589	36,820 / 212,715 / 17.31	1,959 / 45,942	4 / 13	1,963 / 45,955 / 4.27	38,265 / 257,068 / 14.89	518 / 1,602 / 32.33	38,783 / 258,670 / 15.00	34,039 / 34,039	72,822 / 292,709 / 25	325 / 592 / .05	249 / 592 / .04	191 / 592 / .03	263 / 592 / .04
	53,021 / 388,008 / 13.67	911 / 2,151	53,932 / 390,159 / 13.83	9,876 / 96,315	4 / 10	9,880 / 96,325 / 10.26	62,897 / 484,323 / 12.99	915 / 2,161 / 42.34	63,812 / 486,484 / 13.12	44,366 / 44,366	108,178 / 530,850 / 20	457 / 1,063 / .04	750 / 1,063 / .07	380 / 1,063 / .04	450 / 1,063 / .04
N. H.	930 / 171,678 / .54	53 / 317	983 / 171,995 / .57	2,147 / 8,554	1 / 5	2,148 / 8,559 / 25.10	3,077 / 180,232 / 1.71	54 / 322 / 16.77	3,131 / 180,554 / 1.73	0 / 0	3,131 / 180,554 / 2	350 / 317 / .11	378 / 317 / .12	132 / 317 / .04	162 / 317 / .05
	1,100 / 179,045 / .61	35 / 284	1,135 / 179,329 / .63	3,763 / 12,560	0 / 3	3,763 / 12,563 / 29.95	4,863 / 191,605 / 2.54	35 / 287 / 12.19	4,898 / 191,892 / 2.55	0 / 0	4,898 / 191,892 / 3	336 / 326 / .10	505 / 326 / .15	141 / 326 / .04	163 / 326 / .05
N. J.	8,795 / 198,778 / 4.42	4,578 / 11,969	13,373 / 210,747 / 6.34	6,121 / 35,882	33 / 86	6,154 / 35,968 / 17.11	14,916 / 234,660 / 6.36	4,611 / 12,055 / 38.25	19,527 / 246,715 / 7.92	222 / 222	19,749 / 246,937 / 8	406 / 466 / .09	370 / 466 / .08	178 / 466 / .04	184 / 466 / .04
	9,560 / 263,597 / 3.63	3,950 / 13,084	13,510 / 276,681 / 4.88	10,586 / 73,621	16 / 53	10,603 / 73,674 / 14.39	20,146 / 337,218 / 5.97	3,966 / 13,137 / 30.19	24,112 / 350,355 / 6.88	18 / 18	24,130 / 350,373 / 7	343 / 647 / .05	573 / 647 / .09	187 / 647 / .03	207 / 647 / .03
N. Y.	24,510 / 1,219,078 / 2.01	7,646 / 27,744	32,156 / 1,246,822 / 2.58	71,303 / 393,134	116 / 423	71,419 / 393,557 / 18.15	95,813 / 1,612,212 / 5.94	7,762 / 28,167 / 27.56	103,575 / 1,640,379 / 6.31	0 / 0	103,575 / 1,640,379 / 6	1,644 / 3,048 / .05	2,487 / 3,048 / .08	1,137 / 3,048 / .04	1,256 / 3,048 / .04
	21,293 / 1,468,144 / 1.45	6,024 / 27,523	27,317 / 1,495,667 / 1.83	99,856 / 598,553	138 / 631	99,994 / 599,184 / 16.69	121,149 / 2,066,697 / 5.86	6,162 / 28,154 / 21.89	127,311 / 2,094,851 / 6.08	0 / 0	127,311 / 2,094,851 / 6	2,288 / 3,832 / .06	4,255 / 3,832 / .11	1,697 / 3,832 / .04	1,557 / 3,832 / .04
N. C.	76,825 / 250,383 / 30.68	7,204 / 12,041	84,029 / 262,424 / 32.03	352 / 1,539	5 / 9	357 / 1,548 / 23.07	77,177 / 251,922 / 30.64	7,209 / 12,050 / 59.83	84,386 / 263,972 / 31.96	117,511 / 117,511	201,897 / 381,483 / 53	615 / 553 / .11	467 / 553 / .08	379 / 553 / .07	389 / 553 / .07
	71,298 / 293,588 / 24.29	7,185 / 13,338	78,483 / 306,926 / 25.58	102 / 1,974	3 / 5	105 / 1,979 / 5.30	71,400 / 295,562 / 24.15	7,188 / 13,343 / 53.87	78,588 / 308,905 / 25.43	135,420 / 135,420	214,008 / 444,325 / 48	708 / 630 / .11	576 / 630 / .09	372 / 630 / .06	354 / 630 / .06
Ohio	54,612 / 759,978 / 7.19	5,225 / 11,843	59,837 / 771,821 / 7.75	9,495 / 130,860	21 / 55	9,519 / 130,915 / 7.27	64,107 / 890,838 / 7.20	5,249 / 11,898 / 44.12	69,356 / 902,736 / 7.68	0 / 0	69,356 / 902,736 / 8	1,344 / 1,955 / .07	1,303 / 1,955 / .07	630 / 1,955 / .03	905 / 1,955 / .05
	43,842 / 896,486 / 4.89	6,461 / 17,052	50,303 / 913,538 / 5.51	17,581 / 196,875	29 / 77	17,610 / 196,952 / 8.94	61,423 / 1,093,361 / 5.62	6,490 / 17,129 / 37.89	67,913 / 1,110,490 / 6.12	0 / 0	67,913 / 1,110,490 / 6	1,748 / 2,303 / .08	2,275 / 2,303 / .10	880 / 2,303 / .04	945 / 2,303 / .04
Ore.	102 / 6,013 / 1.70	3 / 55	105 / 6,068 / 1.73	65 / 575	2 / 38	67 / 613 / 10.93	167 / 6,588 / 2.54	5 / 93 / 5.38	172 / 6,681 / 2.57	0 / 0	172 / 6,681 / 3	4 / 13 / .03	5 / 13 / .04	0 / 13 / .00	0 / 13 / .00
	1,252 / 22,390 / 5.59	12 / 71	1,264 / 22,461 / 5.63	328 / 3,070	0 / 3	328 / 3,073 / 10.68	1,580 / 25,460 / 6.21	12 / 74 / 16.22	1,592 / 25,534 / 6.24	0 / 0	1,592 / 25,534 / 6	15 / 52 / .03	23 / 52 / .04	9 / 52 / .02	15 / 52 / .03
Penn.	44,064 / 913,423 / 4.82	9,721 / 28,150	53,785 / 941,573 / 5.71	26,151 / 181,863	65 / 187	26,216 / 182,050 / 14.41	70,215 / 1,095,286 / 6.41	9,786 / 28,337 / 34.53	80,001 / 1,123,623 / 7.12	0 / 0	80,001 / 1,123,623 / 7	1,432 / 2,258 / .06	1,865 / 2,258 / .08	941 / 2,258 / .04	1,130 / 2,258 / .05
	37,272 / 1,142,316 / 3.26	9,725 / 29,825	46,997 / 1,172,141 / 4.01	38,200 / 258,098	67 / 205	38,267 / 258,303 / 14.82	75,472 / 1,400,414 / 5.39	9,792 / 30,030 / 32.61	85,264 / 1,430,444 / 5.96	0 / 0	85,264 / 1,430,444 / 6	1,807 / 2,849 / .06	2,711 / 2,849 / .10	1,135 / 2,849 / .04	1,336 / 2,849 / .05
R. I.	1,032 / 67,305 / 1.53	273 / 2,190	1,305 / 69,495 / 1.88	2,465 / 14,300	5 / 41	2,470 / 14,341 / 17.23	3,497 / 81,605 / 4.29	278 / 2,231 / 12.46	3,775 / 83,836 / 4.50	0 / 0	3,775 / 83,836 / 5	110 / 144 / .08	210 / 144 / .15	61 / 144 / .04	62 / 144 / .04
	968 / 75,887 / 1.30	285 / 2,296	1,253 / 78,183 / 1.60	5,117 / 22,393	5 / 43	5,122 / 22,436 / 22.84	6,105 / 98,280 / 6.21	270 / 2,339 / 11.54	6,375 / 100,619 / 6.34	0 / 0	6,375 / 100,619 / 6	96 / 171 / .06	282 / 171 / .16	81 / 171 / .05	65 / 171 / .08
S. C.	16,368 / 120,136 / 13.62	892 / 3,990	17,260 / 124,126 / 13.91	82 / 5,105	27 / 119	109 / 5,224 / 2.09	16,450 / 125,241 / 13.18	919 / 4,109 / 22.37	17,369 / 129,350 / 13.43	178,231 / 178,231	195,600 / 307,581 / 63	249 / 275 / .09	224 / 275 / .08	150 / 275 / .05	134 / 275 / .05
	15,073 / 131,131 / 11.50	1,477 / 4,502	16,550 / 135,633 / 12.20	435 / 5,060	1 / 3	436 / 5,902 / 7.28	15,508 / 137,120 / 11.31	1,478 / 4,505 / 32.81	16,986 / 141,625 / 11.99	177,853 / 177,853	194,839 / 319,478 / 61	270 / 291 / .09	287 / 291 / .10	161 / 291 / .06	142 / 291 / .05

unable to read. They will also be, on other accounts, interesting and instructive. It will be remembered, however, that in many of the States, a large proportion of the blind, and deaf, and of the insane, are able to read. Perhaps the next Census Report will give us the statistics of the illiteracy of these classes.

Tenn.	81,084/312,827 25.92	1,139/2,903	82,223/315,730 26.04	528/3,382	4/9	532/3,391 15.69	81,612/316,209 25.81	1,143/2,912 39.24	82,755/319,121 25.93	95,203/95,203	177,958/414,324 43	756/757 .10	380/757 .05	383/757 .05	334/757 .04
	71,114/354,747 20.05	1,769/3,303	72,883/358,050 20.36	2,935/12,731	3/6	2,938/12,736 23.07	74,049/367,478 20.15	1,772/3,308 53.58	75,821/370,786 20.44	111,751/111,751	187,572/482,537 39	727/827 .09	609/827 .07	432/827 .05	361/827 .04
Tex.	8,489/57,593 14.74	50/157	8,539/57,750 14.78	2,613/10,572	11/36	2,624/10,608 24.74	11,102/68,165 16.29	61/193 31.60	11,163/68,358 16.33	24,240/24,240	35,403/92,598 38	93/154 .06	37/154 .02	61/154 .04	49/154 .03
	12,397/162,034 7.65	60/150	12,457/162,184 7.68	6,990/26,041	5/13	6,995/26,054 26.84	19,387/188,075 10.30	65/163 39.87	19,452/188,238 10.33	75,938/75,938	95,390/264,176 36	164/421 .04	112/421 .03	119/421 .03	157/421 .04
Vt.	590/147,201 .40	51/394	641/147,595 .43	5,8 1/20,212	2/17	5,853/20,229 28.94	6,441/167,413 3.85	53/411 12.90	6,494/167,824 3.87	0/0	6,494/167,824 4	297/313 .09	560/313 .18	139/313 .04	147/313 .05
	922/154,836 .60	47/369	969/155,205 .62	8,285/19,631	2/15	8,287/19,646 42.18	9,207/174,467 5.28	49/384 12.76	9,256/174,851 5.29	0/0	9,256/174,851 5	262/314 .08	692/314 .22	165/314 .05	144/314 .05
Va.	79,552/399,656 19.91	12,056/25,519	91,608/425,175 21.54	1,183/13,772	9/19	1,192/13,791 8.64	80,735/413,428 19.53	12,065/25,538 47.25	92,800/438,966 21.13	209,557/209,557	302,357/648,523 47	891/895 .10	864/895 .10	497/895 .06	540/895 .06
	74,254/468,823 15.84	12,967/27,100	87,221/495,923 17.59	3,300/21,032	1/3	3,301/21,035 15.69	77,554/489,855 15.83	12,968/27,103 47.85	90,522/516,958 17.51	216,562/216,562	307,084/733,520 42	1,000/1,047 .10	1,088/1,047 .10	520/1,047 .05	676/1,047 .06
Wis.	1,534/82,299 1.86	96/354	1,630/82,653 1.97	5,150/66,282	1/4	5,151/66,286 7.77	6,684/148,581 4.50	97/358 27.09	6,781/148,939 4.55	0/0	6,781/148,939 5	92/305 .03	54/305 .02	63/305 .02	69/305 .02
	2,679/198,876 1.35	99/572	2,778/199,478 1.39	14,478/166,141	3/16	14,481/166,157 8.72	17,157/365,017 4.70	102/588 17.35	17,259/365,605 4.72	0/0	17,259/365,605 5	257/774 .03	283/774 .04	220/774 .03	312/774 .04
							TERRIT	ORIES.							
Dak.	63/373 16.89	0/0	63/373 16.89	18/1,064	0/0	18/1,064 1.69	81/1,437 5.64	0/0 0.00	81/1,437 5.64	0/0	81/1,437 6	1/3 .03	0/3 .00	0/3 .00	0/3 .00
Neb.	366/11,545 3.17	13/31	379/11,576 3.28	294/3,809	1/2	295/3,811 7.74	660/15,354 4.30	14/33 42.42	674/15,387 4.38	7/7	681/15,394 4	3/29 .01	5/29 .02	3/29 .01	11/29 .04
Nev.	35/4,781 .73	7/37	42/4,818 .87	118/1,236	0/1	118/1,237 9.54	153/6,017 2.54	7/38 18.42	160/6,055 2.64	0/0	160/6,055 3	0/7 .00	0/7 .00	0/7 .00	0/7 .00
N. Mx.	25,760/28,662 89.87	4/20	25,764/28,682 89.83	696/1,291	0/0	696/1,291 53.91	26,456/29,953 88.32	4/20 20.00	26,460/29,973 88.28	0/0	26,460/29,973 88	44/62 .07	11/62 .02	98/62 .16	34/62 .05
	33,353/36,883 90.43	28/43	33,381/36,926 90.40	1,223/4,032	0/0	1,223/4,032 30.33	34,576/40,915 84.50	28/43 65.12	34,604/40,958 84.49	0/0	34,604/40,958 84	40/83 .05	28/83 .03	147/83 .18	35/83 .04
Utah	126/3,881 3.25	1/10	127/3,891 3.26	35/1,226	0/0	35/1,226 2.85	161/5,107 3.15	1/10 10.00	162/5,117 3.17	11/11	173/5,128 3	1/11 .01	5/11 .04	2/11 .02	0/11 .00
	169/9,239 1.83	0/15	169/9,254 1.83	169/7,652	0/0	169/7,652 2.21	338/16,891 2.00	0/15 0.00	338/16,906 2.00	15/15	353/16,921 2	5/40 .01	15/40 .04	17/40 .04	7/40 .02
Wash.	219/5,698 3.84	1/26	220/5,724 3.84	246/1,885	0/2	246/1,887 13.03	463/7,583 6.13	1/28 3.57	466/7,611 6.12	0/0	466/7,611 6	0/11 .00	3/11 .03	2/11 .02	3/11 .03
D. C.	1,193/16,594 7.19	3,355/5,274	4,548/21,868 20.80	336/2,947	2/3	338/2,950 11.46	1,529/19,541 7.83	3,357/5,277 62.62	4,886/24,818 19.68	1,666/1,666	6,552/26,484 25	10/38 .03	13/38 .03	15/38 .04	17/38 .04
	1,560/24,884 6.27	3,514/5,840	5,074/30,724 16.52	2,112/7,479	5/9	2,117/7,488 28.27	3,672/32,363 11.35	3,519/5,849 70.16	7,191/38,212 18.82	1,494/1,494	8,685/39,706 22	20/61 .03	177/61 .29	29/61 .05	40/61 .07
Total	808,024/8,077,342 10.00	93,867/217,040	901,891/8,294,382 10.87	203,995/1,344,295	758/2,480	204,753/1,346,775 15.20	1,012,019/9,421,637 10.74	94,625/219,520 43.11	1,106,644/9,641,157 11.48	1,391,257/1,391,257	2,497,901/11,032,414 23	14,257/19,553 .07	14,972/19,553 .08	7,978/19,553 .04	9,136/19,553 .05
	819,541/10,833,192 7.57	95,265/244,492	914,806/11,077,684 8.26	362,377/2,477,491	596/2,614	362,973/2,480,105 14.64	1,181,918/13,310,683 8.88	95,861/247,106 38.79	1,277,779/13,557,789 9.42	1,734,551/1,734,551	3,012,330/15,292,340 20	16,952/26,957 .06	23,260/26,957 .09	10,729/26,957 .04	11,856/26,957 .04

See the several VIEWS on slavery and percentage. In them the facts recorded in this table are brought out to the light by the aid of the "Birds'-eye notation," that they may thereby be better studied and grasped, and make a deeper impression.

The computations for Table III., furnished the numbers at twenty years of age in 1840, 1850, and 1860, thus giving the whole number who became of age (twenty-one years) in 1841, 1851, and 1861, and the number of them who were unable to read and write. These numbers are set down in Table IV., and in connection with them, the per cent. for the three decades is compared. Table V. gives the statistics of white adults and illiterate for 1840.

TABLE IV. Persons aged 20 and under 21.

ILLITERATE. WHOLE NUMBER. PER CENT. OF ILLITERATE. — NATIVE AND FOREIGN.

(Each cell: illiterate / whole number, white; followed by per cent.)

1840. 1850. 1860.	White.			White.			White.			White.			White.		Territ's.	White.	
	1,281 / 7,026	18		1,655 / 11,258	15		606 / 7,535	8		308 / 7,707	4		1,074 / 5,529	19	Dak.	4 / 73	6
Ala.	1,769 / 8,881	20	Ill.	2,111 / 18,485	11	Md.	1,004 / 9,652	10	N. J.	668 / 10,510	6	S. C.	766 / 5,829	13	Neb.	39 / 916	4
	1,998 / 11,417	17		3,037 / 39,830	8		717 / 11,205	6		870 / 14,563	6		716 / 6,333	11	Nev.	10 / 407	3
	405 / 1,776	23		2,128 / 14,190	15		214 / 18,547	1		2,283 / 56,440	4		3,145 / 12,690	25		....	
Ark.	961 / 3,503	27	Ind.	3,710 / 20,590	18	Mass.	1,307 / 25,770	5	N. Y.	4,520 / 76,030	6	Tenn.	4,090 / 15,850	26	New Mex.	1,371 / 1,552	88
	1,344 / 7,199	19		3,104 / 28,930	11		2,033 / 29,915	7		5,184 / 88,420	6		3,690 / 18,305	20		1,818 / 2,150	84
	....			76 / 1,231	6		122 / 5,109	2		2,861 / 10,088	28		....			....	
Cal.	392 / 5,712	7	Iowa	419 / 3,965	11	Mich.	381 / 8,463	4	N. C.	3,611 / 11,790	31	Tex.	577 / 3,544	16	Utah	8 / 265	3
	1,057 / 13,570	8		965 / 14,320	7		844 / 16,920	5		3,272 / 13,547	24		978 / 9,440	10		15 / 757	2
	22 / 6,554	.33		....			....			1,918 / 32,830	6		95 / 5,819	2		....	
Conn.	205 / 8,659	2	Kan.	....		Minn.	43 / 212	20	Ohio	3,077 / 42,770	7	Vt.	252 / 6,544	4	Wash.	....	
	354 / 10,540	3		185 / 3,007	6		240 / 4,086	6		2,781 / 49,490	6		338 / 6,402	5		28 / 464	6
	260 / 1,408	18		2,164 / 12,468	17		511 / 4,256	12		....			2,980 / 15,937	19		53 / 730	7
Del.	217 / 1,563	14	Ky.	3,489 / 16,530	21	Miss.	717 / 6,258	11	Ore.	10 / 891	3	Va.	3,730 / 19,100	20	D. C.	72 / 921	8
	318 / 2,028	16		3,398 / 19,800	17		793 / 7,605	10		81 / 1,302	6		3,498 / 22,100	16		166 / 1,467	11
	81 / 814	10		276 / 4,238	4		1,160 / 7,405	16		1,760 / 37,750	5		119 / 1,114	11		53 / 730	7
Fla.	200 / 1,048	19	La.	1,136 / 6,813	17	Mo.	1,984 / 13,330	15	Penn.	3,287 / 51,280	6	Wis.	323 / 7,181	5	Total Ter's	1,451 / 2,738	53
	273 / 1,694	16		870 / 8,433	10		3,237 / 24,920	13		3,316 / 61,520	5		709 / 15,060	5		2,080 / 6,284	33
	1,643 / 8,181	20		151 / 10,402	1		38 / 5,771	1		76 / 2,550	3		29,413 / 316,623	9		29,466 / 317,353	9
Ga.	2,168 / 10,890	20	Maine	269 / 12,380	2	N. H.	120 / 7,044	2	R. I.	157 / 3,676	4	Total States	47,670 / 444,163	11	Total U.S.	49,121 / 446,901	11
	2,252 / 12,[illegible]	18		862 / 13,653	8		180 / 7,078	8		253 / 4,073	6		53,262 / 599,242	9		55,842 / 605,476	9

TAB. V. Aged 20 and over.

ILLITERATE. TOTAL. PER CT. — NATIVE AND FOREIGN.

1840	White.			White.	
Ala.	23,873 / 130,900	18.24	Mo.	20,617 / 131,669	15.66
Ark.	6,972 / 30,555	22.82	N. H.	980 / 149,911	.65
Conn.	548 / 163,843	.33	N. J.	6,693 / 166,964	4.01
Del.	5,092 / 27,629	18.43	N. Y.	46,735 / 1,155,522	4.04
Fla.	1,384 / 13,944	9.93	N. C.	59,470 / 209,685	28.36
Ga.	32,360 / 160,957	20.11	Ohio	37,312 / 638,740	5.84
Ill.	29,157 / 198,418	14.70	Penn.	35,709 / 765,917	4.66
Ind.	40,229 / 268,049	15.01	R. I.	1,690 / 56,885	2.97
Iowa	1,194 / 19,456	6.14	S. C.	21,689 / 111,663	19.42
Ky.	42,182 / 242,964	17.36	Tenn.	61,676 / 248,928	24.78
La.	5,137 / 79,000	6.50	Vt.	2,365 / 144,136	1.64
Maine	3,392 / 234,177	1.45	Va.	61,712 / 330,069	18.70
Md.	12,423 / 154,442	8.04	Wis.	1,820 / 16,973	10.72
Mass.	4,662 / 403,761	1.15	D. C.	1,066 / 15,015	7.28
Mich.	2,295 / 96,189	2.38	Total	579,316 / 6,440,164	8.97
Miss.	8,871 / 73,836	12.01			

See VIEWS 1, 2, 3, where the numbers of thousands of illiterate *at* 20 are exhibited, as well as could be done in those charts, by *circular* dots. See, also, the VIEWS showing the *per cent.* of white illiterate in 1840, 1850, and 1860.

over) to compare with the number of illiterate of those ages as given on p. 145 "Compendium" (1850); or to compute the number of illiterate over nineteen (20 and over) to compare with the number of adults of those ages as given on p. 151.

It was judged best, as well as found practical and convenient, to compute the numbers both of illiterate and adults *at* twenty years of age (20 and under 21), as this would furnish either of the numbers needed for comparison, and would also give the numbers of persons annually coming to be of age (21) without the ability to read, and swelling the vast numbers of totally illiterate adults in our country. Also, as the census tables everywhere group the population by decades ("20 and under 30," &c.), it was thought best to compare the adults "twenty and over" with the illiterate "twenty and over." This has accordingly been done in this table.

In making these computations, I have had the invaluable assistance of Henry M. Parkhurst, the astronomer and mathematician, whose skill and accuracy enable me to speak with confidence of their correctness. I also know them to be reliable from my own personal proving. They are as reliable as the data furnished by the census would allow them to be. Those data, I think, for all practical purposes on this subject of illiteracy, can be depended upon, with the single exception of the estimated per cent. (60) of foreigners who are adults. (See "Compendium of Seventh Census," pp. 150, 151, 152.) But there were no means of ascertaining the exact percentage, and besides, this per cent. (60) was used in computing the numbers of adult foreigners for 1850 taken from p. 151 of that "Compendium;" I therefore used it in computing the numbers of foreign adults for 1860. The per cent. must be about 80. The effect of this will be shown in detail in connection with the VIEWS of percentage, particularly Nos. 13 and 15. As some persons may wish to know exactly how each of the numbers (especially in Tables III. and IV.) was taken or computed from the pages of the census referred to, a particular statement of the modes of computation is given on another page.

Table III. may be compared with Table II., which gives the numbers "over 20" (21 and over), while this gives the numbers over 19 (20 and over). It may also be compared with Table IV., which corresponds with column 7, native and foreign white, and in which the numbers *at* 20 are given for 1840, 1850, and 1860, and the per cent. for all these years; and with Table V., which corresponds with the same column, and gives the statistics of native and foreign white for 1840; also with Table VI. (see View 8), which gives the statistics of adult slaves and total illiteracy for 1840, and corresponds with columns 10 and 11 of Table III.

TABLE IV.—This table is prepared for the double purpose of showing, as exactly as the data of the Census Reports enable us to give them, how many illiterate and adults are annually becoming of age (21), (facts of great interest in several connections); and of comparing the per cent. of the three years 1840, 1850, 1860. Its sources and relation to column 7, Table III., are referred to in the three preceding paragraphs.

The arrangement will be readily understood, it being on the same plan as that in Table III., the figures for the several years being placed in their order opposite the name of each State.

TABLE V.—This table and its relations to the others, are explained in the preceding paragraphs and in the margin. Taken with Table VI., it completes Table III., by giving the statistics of 1840, for which there was no room in that table.

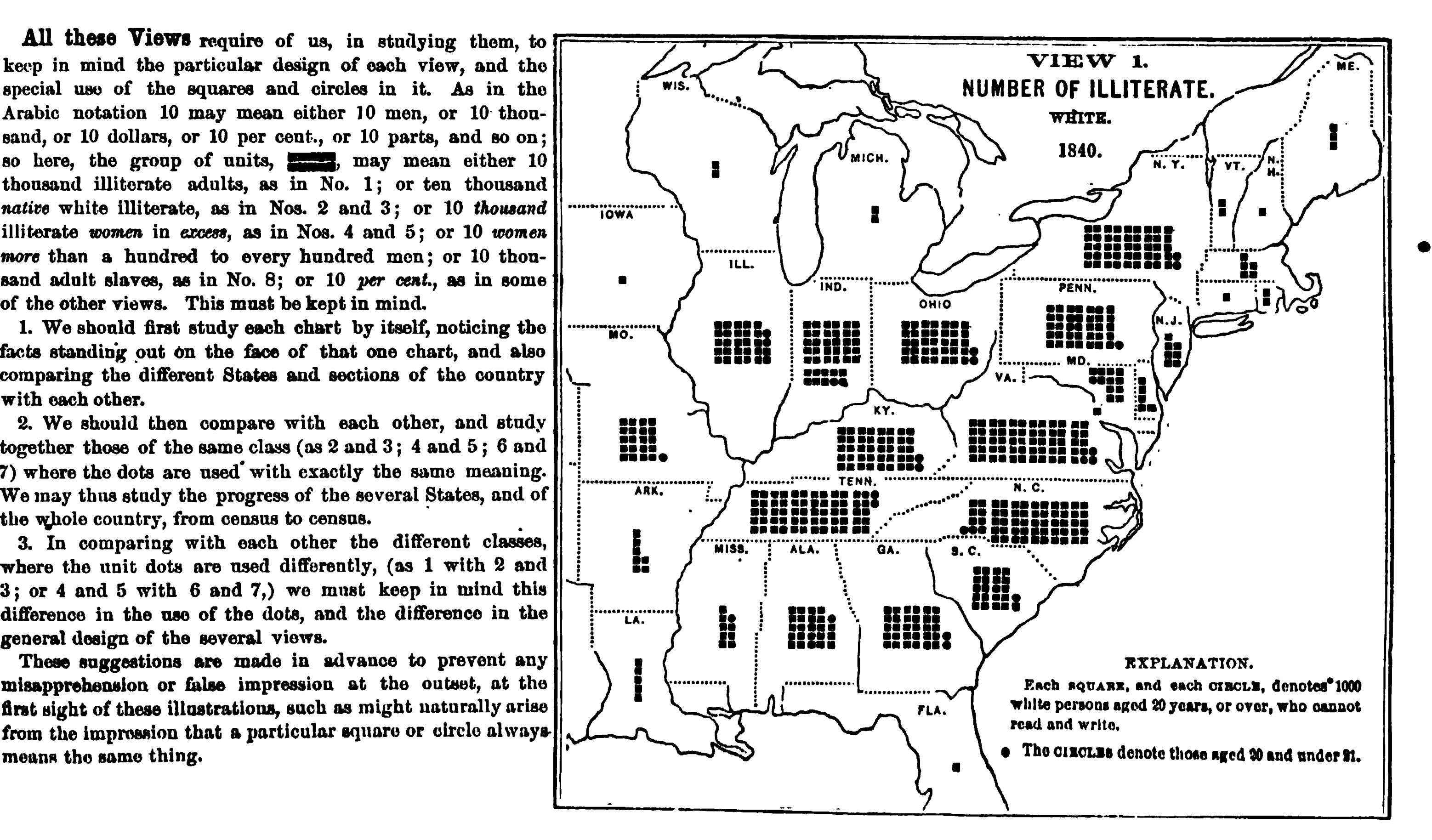
All these Views require of us, in studying them, to keep in mind the particular design of each view, and the special use of the squares and circles in it. As in the Arabic notation 10 may mean either 10 men, or 10 thousand, or 10 dollars, or 10 per cent., or 10 parts, and so on; so here, the group of units, ■■■■■, may mean either 10 thousand illiterate adults, as in No. 1; or ten thousand *native* white illiterate, as in Nos. 2 and 3; or 10 *thousand* illiterate *women* in *excess*, as in Nos. 4 and 5; or 10 *women more* than a hundred to every hundred men; or 10 thousand adult slaves, as in No. 8; or 10 *per cent.*, as in some of the other views. This must be kept in mind.

1. We should first study each chart by itself, noticing the facts standing out on the face of that one chart, and also comparing the different States and sections of the country with each other.

2. We should then compare with each other, and study together those of the same class (as 2 and 3; 4 and 5; 6 and 7) where the dots are used with exactly the same meaning. We may thus study the progress of the several States, and of the whole country, from census to census.

3. In comparing with each other the different classes, where the unit dots are used differently, (as 1 with 2 and 3; or 4 and 5 with 6 and 7,) we must keep in mind this difference in the use of the dots, and the difference in the general design of the several views.

These suggestions are made in advance to prevent any misapprehension or false impression at the outset, at the first sight of these illustrations, such as might naturally arise from the impression that a particular square or circle always means the same thing.



THE BIRD'S-EYE VIEWS.

In this and the following Views the "Bird's-eye Notation" for numbers is employed. It was first published in St. Louis, in 1862, in a pamphlet entitled "Bird's-Eye Views of Slavery in Missouri, by E. Leigh, M. D."* It was devised for the purpose of giving *expression* to numbers—for bringing them out to view in their actual *proportions* and *relations* to each other, as they are seen in nature; in their *geographical distribution*, as shown in maps and charts; and in their *succession in time*, as shown in historical tables and charts. Our Arabic figures are a kind of short-hand notation for numbers; while they record them, they hide them; they cover them up as in treasure-houses, where they are carefully preserved, but are not exposed to view so as to be seen in their actual proportions.

This notation brings them to the light; it uncovers and reveals them. It gives, in the strictest sense of the words, "pictures of numbers." Such views as these could, with proper arrangements, be actually taken from nature by the art of the photographer. While the short-hand Arabic figures serve admirably the purposes of the historian, the mathematician, and the accountant, for quick, safe, and condensed record and arithmetical calculation, the bird's-eye notation serves for a more full, distinct, and clear expression and illustration. The Arabic figures were therefore used in the tables. This representative notation is used in the Views.

It may, perhaps, be well enough explained in the words of the original pamphlet in 1862, so changed as to adapt them to View I. before us.

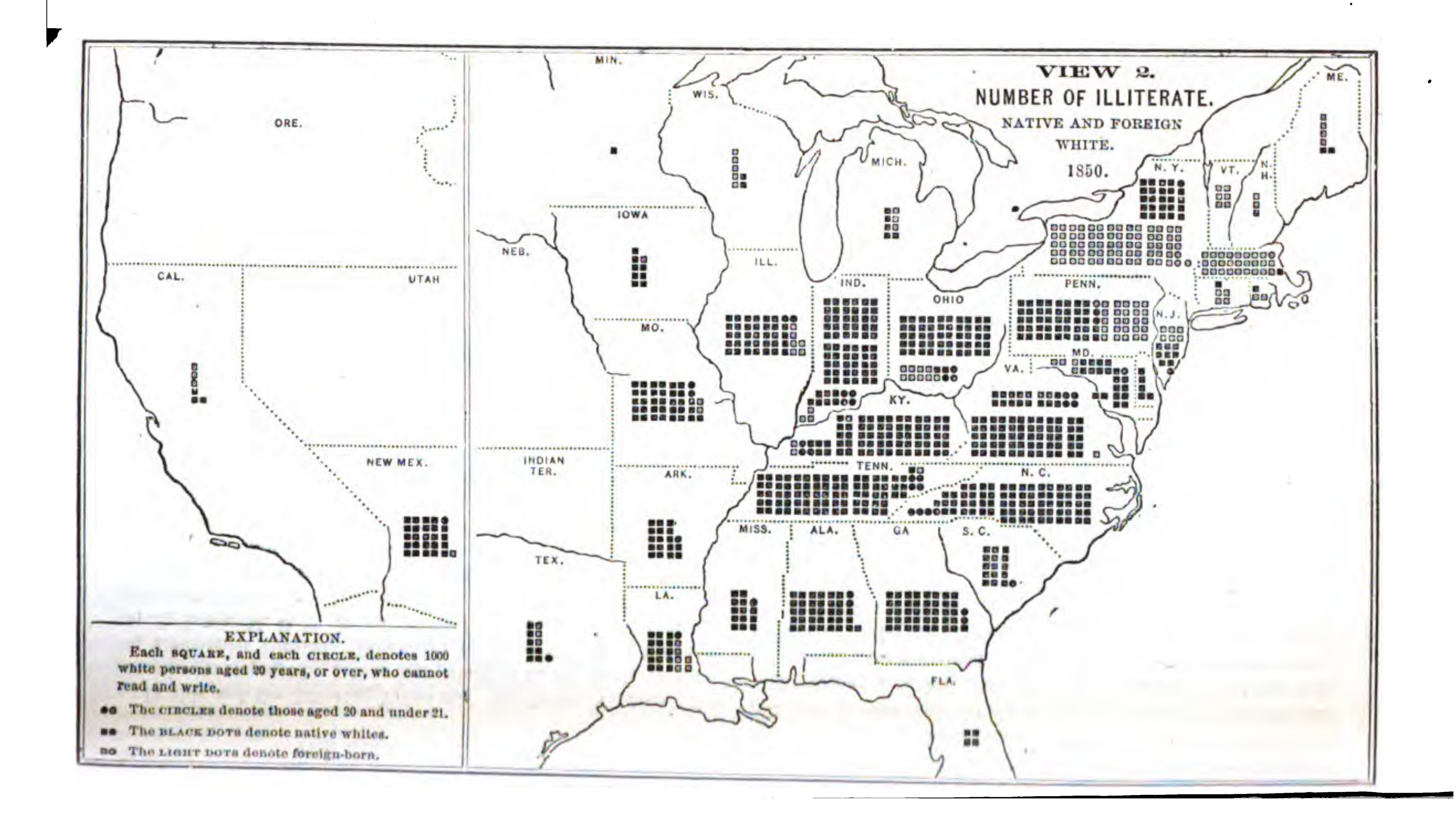
* Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1862, by Edwin Leigh, in the Clerk's Office of the U. S. District Court for the Eastern District of Missouri.

Explanation.—"If, when the census of 1840 was taken, the illiterate whites in each State in the Union had been gathered together near the center of the States and collected in regiments of 1,000 persons each, and these regiments arranged in regular order, they would have presented to the eye of a person passing over in a balloon, or to the eye of a bird flying over at a proper height in the air, very much such an appearance as that exhibited in View I. For, each one of the dots in this map or view represents a regiment, or collection of 1,000 persons. Thus, the forty-seven thousand illiterate white adults in the State of New York are represented by forty-seven dots; the thirty-six thousand in Pennsylvania by thirty-six dots, and so in all the States." No further explanation is needed, save what is given at the bottom of each View. Every one who examines the Views will quickly perceive their plan and meaning, and, on studying and comparing them, will see their use.

View 1.—This map shows the geographical distribution of white illiteracy as the census of 1840 first revealed it. We see, at the first glance, that it was very uniformly distributed over the country, with the exception of the New England States, which had so long enjoyed the advantages of common school education, and the extreme North West and South West, which were then but thinly inhabited. It represents by thousands, or by regiments, the numbers recorded in Tables IV. and V. See also Table I.

The common impression that white illiteracy is to be found especially among the "poor whites" of the cotton or plantation States, is at once seen to be an error. In the six Northern slave States—Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri,—which are rather farming than plantation States, there were much larger numbers who could not read.

The very general idea, also, that the free North is comparatively


VIEW 2.
NUMBER OF ILLITERATE.
NATIVE AND FOREIGN
WHITE.
1850.
ME.
N. H.
VT.
N. Y.
PENN.
N. J.
MD.
VA.
OHIO
MICH.
WIS.
MIN.
IOWA
ILL.
IND.
KY.
TENN.
N. C.
S. C.
GA
ALA.
MISS.
FLA.
LA.
ARK.
MO.
NEB.
INDIAN TER.
TEX.
ORE.
CAL.
UTAH
NEW MEX.
EXPLANATION.
Each SQUARE, and each CIRCLE, denotes 1000 white persons aged 20 years, or over, who cannot read and write.
The CIRCLES denote those aged 20 and under 21.
The BLACK DOTS denote native whites.
The LIGHT DOTS denote foreign-born.

free from this calamity is seen to be a mistake, there being twice as many white illiterate in the Northern tier of States—New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois—as there were in the plantation slave States, and almost as many as there were in the six great farming slave States.

And we were evidently by no means indebted to our foreign-born population for any very large part of this evil, for it is seen to have existed at that time chiefly in those States into which the immigrant had then hardly begun to penetrate; and, besides, the great tide of unlettered immigrants had then hardly begun to flow toward our shores.

The widespread and comparatively uniform diffusion of the evil, and its existence chiefly among our own native-born citizens, are the great facts which confront us here at the outset.

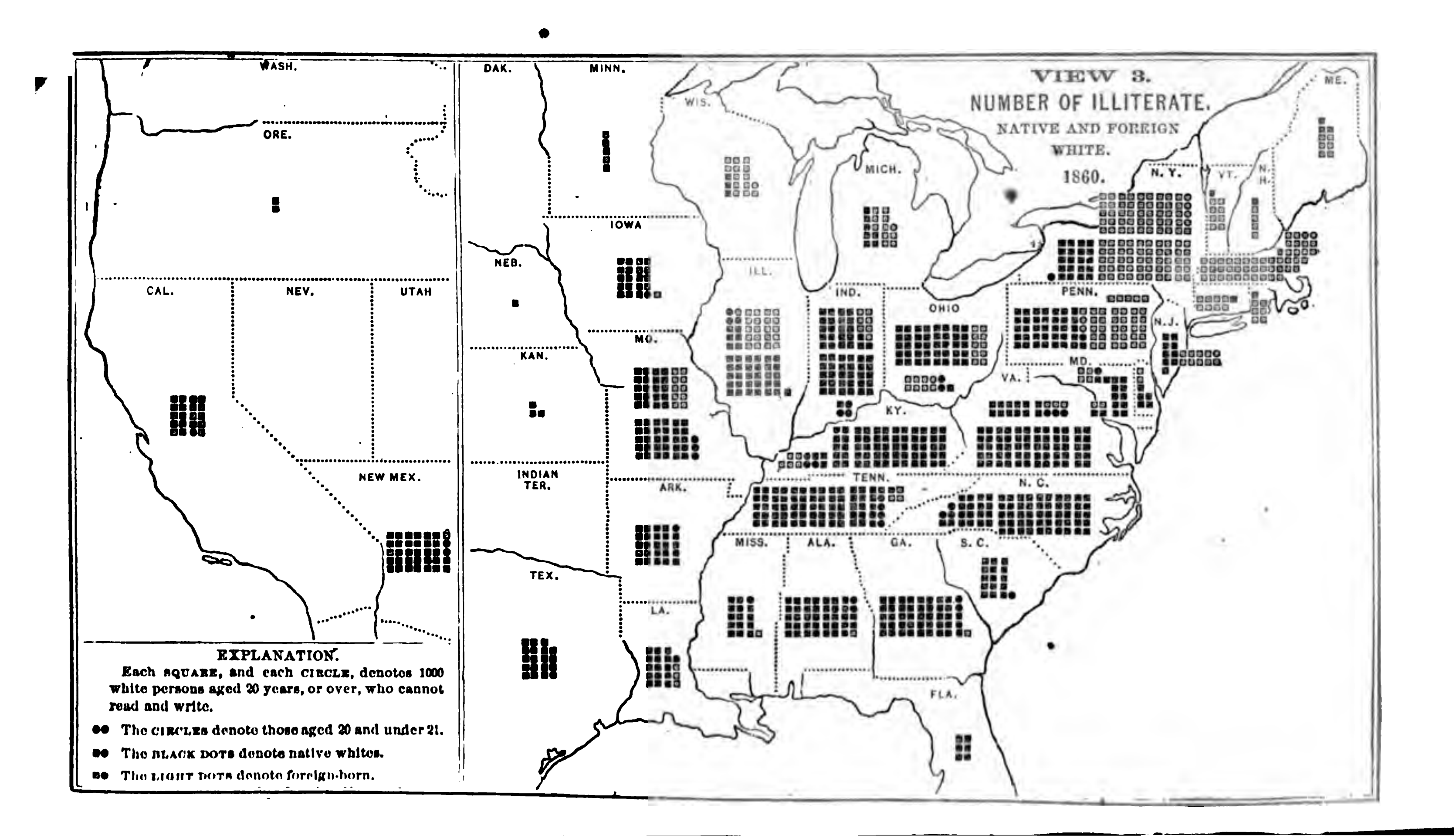
VIEW 2.—This map holds up before our eyes the same great painful facts—ignorance widespread and spreading—not limited to unfavored regions, but uniformly diffused; a national, and not a sectional calamity; an evil of native growth rather than of foreign origin. Still the bookless white population, though standing by tens of thousands in the plantation States, are more multitudinous in the farming slave States and in the Northern States. And now we see, directly and definitely, that it is mainly among the people born and bred in our own country.

The great *increase* of this calamity is conspicuous here. Not only along the Canadian border and in the railroad-building States around the great immigrant-receiving seaports, such as Boston and New York, and in the States where our other large cities are found, and where untaught immigrants have begun to crowd, but all over the country we find our American-born citizens growing up in masses untaught. Delaware, indeed, remains the same, and in South Carolina there are six thousand less; but in all the other States there are more than there were in 1840. In a few States there are a few thousand more, but in most of them there are ten, twenty, thirty thousand more of our own native-born white illiterate, besides the twenty and fifty thousand foreign-born added to Massachusetts and New York; in the whole country 1,012,019, where there were 579,316 in 1840, *four hundred thousand more*—a whole *army* of recruits—a tremendous majority for a Presidential vote. Thus, in this most important matter of the increasing numbers of illiterate white adults, 1840-50 were ten years of retrograde rather than of progress. For the exact figures, here represented in round thousands, see Tables III. and IV.; compare also Table II. View 3 is also derived from the same tables.

VIEW 3.—If we turn now to the next map for 1860, we see the same uniform distribution, only it has now become more uniform, as the new States of the West have become more thickly settled, and the North is filling up with emigrants from foreign countries.

The evil is still increasing since 1850; there is a *very large increase* in the numbers who can not read. In some of the plantation States there are a few thousands more; but there are many more thousands in the growing States of the far West, now rapidly filling up with the rude pioneers of civilization preparing the way for more favored and more civilized grandchildren; and still larger numbers in the Northern and Eastern States coming in from foreign sources. In the whole country there are now 1,181,918, where there were 1,012,019 in 1850, a hundred and seventy thousand more, seriously threatening our welfare and safety. In the *twenty* years, from 1840 to 1860, the number had *more than doubled*, there being 1,181,918, where there were 579,316, six hundred thousand more.

But the view is not all dark; the *increase is less* than it was in the previous decade, 1840-50—very much less. Though not abated,


VIEW 3.
NUMBER OF ILLITERATE.
NATIVE AND FOREIGN
WHITE.
1860.
WASH.
ORE.
CAL.
NEV.
UTAH
NEW MEX.
DAK.
MINN.
NEB.
IOWA
KAN.
MO.
INDIAN TER.
ARK.
TEX.
LA.
WIS.
MICH.
ILL.
IND.
OHIO
KY.
TENN.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
FLA.
S. C.
N. C.
VA.
MD.
PENN.
N. J.
N. Y.
VT.
N. H.
ME.
EXPLANATION.
Each SQUARE, and each CIRCLE, denotes 1000 white persons aged 20 years, or over, who cannot read and write.
The CIRCLES denote those aged 20 and under 21.
The BLACK DOTS denote native whites.
The LIGHT DOTS denote foreign-born.

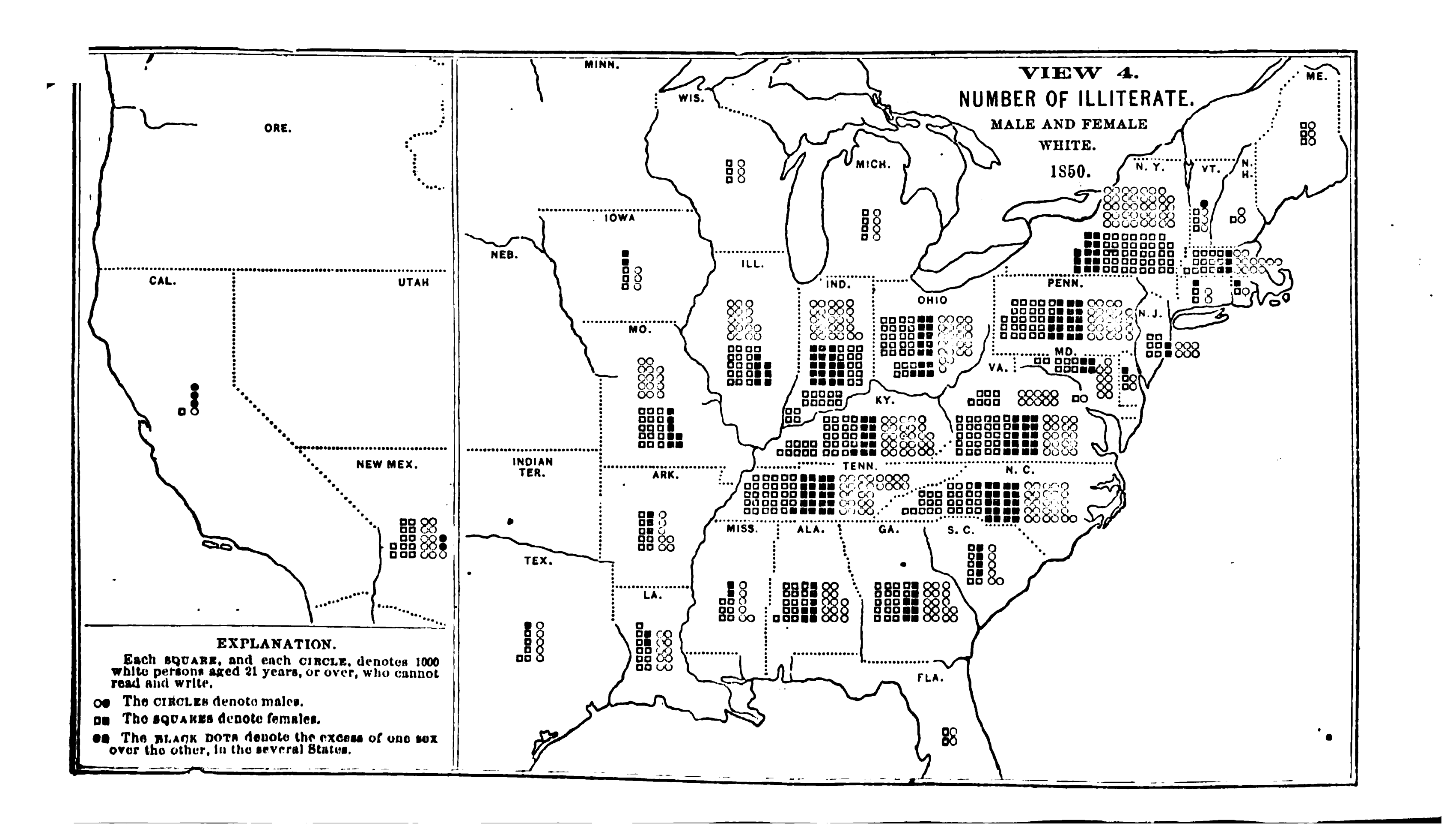
the evil is materially checked, notwithstanding the great foreign influx. South Carolina has gained not quite a thousand; Louisiana, Virginia, and Maryland, from three to five thousand; North Carolina and Tennessee, six and eight thousand; and Ohio and Indiana, now becoming old States, are feeling the good effects of their schools and educational influences, and are recovering from the evils attending new settlements. These States have fewer illiterate than in 1850, while all the rest have more. Perhaps in all these States the schools planted, stimulated, extended, or improved on account of the alarm caused by the census of 1840, are now beginning to bring forth their good fruits. Children beginning to learn after 1840 were still under age in 1850, but now in 1860 many of them are adults. This partly explains the fact that the improvement did not appear in 1850, but began to appear in 1860.

But the numbers of *native illiterate* are more important as showing the influence and progress of our own institutions. In this point of view the prospect is more encouraging, though still dark and threatening. But for her foreign illiterate, New York, instead of having twenty-five thousand more, would have had three thousand less, and Pennsylvania seven thousand less; and Kentucky would have had a thousand less, instead of having a thousand more, illiterate. Ohio diminished the number of her *native* illiterate by eleven thousand, Indiana by fourteen thousand, Virginia by five thousand, and Tennessee by ten thousand, and in most of the States there was but little or no increase of native illiteracy; it was chiefly foreign. In the whole country there were about eleven thousand more native-born unable to read than there were in 1850—a great improvement upon the amazing increase in the previous decade, 1840-50. While we take all courage from these facts to make more vigorous and successful use of the schools which have so much checked the growth of this evil, we must not be deluded by this partial check, but rather be incited and encouraged to use other more effective and appropriate means to abate it, and reduce it to its minimum at a comparatively early day. It must not be permitted to remain fastened upon our body politic to the end of this century, as it will be, if suitable and sufficient measures are not taken, and that right soon. But of this, more in another and proper place, after we have considered, in connection with the per cent. of illiteracy, the causes which have produced, perpetuated, and aggravated it, and the comparative insufficiency of the school influences hitherto employed to abate it.

RELIABILITY OF THE CENSUS.—A comparison of VIEWS 1, 2, 3, shows that we may rely upon the accuracy of the census reports for all the practical purposes of these statistics.

We might depend upon the law of general averages, which can be trusted in the case of such large numbers over so large a field. Any particular cases of dishonesty or carelessness in local enumerators, such as we know to have existed in some districts of our large cities in 1860, or any combination of politicians to conceal unwelcome facts in their own districts or States, such as has been charged—though, perhaps, without much foundation,—would be but a drop in the ocean. Such variations, however large, would be too trivial in comparison to affect materially such immense numbers. But aside from and above these general considerations, we have good evidence in the Views before us of the substantial reliability of the Census Reports.

Look at Maps 1, 2, 3. See how the statistics of the successive periods, 1840, 1850, 1860, compare and harmonize. Consider the comparative numbers in each particular State for these three years—in each group of related States—in each section of the country.


VIEW 4.
NUMBER OF ILLITERATE.
MALE AND FEMALE
WHITE.
1850.
ME.
N. H.
VT.
N. Y.
N. J.
PENN.
MD.
VA.
OHIO
MICH.
IND.
ILL.
WIS.
MINN.
IOWA
NEB.
MO.
KY.
TENN.
N. C.
S. C.
GA.
ALA.
MISS.
ARK.
LA.
TEX.
INDIAN TER.
FLA.
ORE.
CAL.
UTAH
NEW MEX.
EXPLANATION.
Each SQUARE, and each CIRCLE, denotes 1000 white persons aged 21 years, or over, who cannot read and write.
The CIRCLES denote males.
The SQUARES denote females.
The BLACK DOTS denote the excess of one sex over the other, in the several States.

The relative numbers, the onward movement is the same. Such variations as occur are in harmony in the same sections and classes of States, and are in accordance with the probable operation of causes which we do not have to go far to find.

With the same things in view, compare Maps 4 and 5, or 6 and 7, with regard to comparative male and female illiteracy; or 8, A, B, C, in the case of the slaves; or 10, 11, 12, with regard to the percentage or density of the aggregate illiteracy of all classes in the country. All these comparisons agree in showing that there is that harmony and consistency in the Census Reports on the subject of illiteracy which can result only from their being substantially true, and it is confidently anticipated that the remaining Views yet to be prepared, and the census of 1870, when it is given to the public, will, on comparison, lead to the same conclusion.

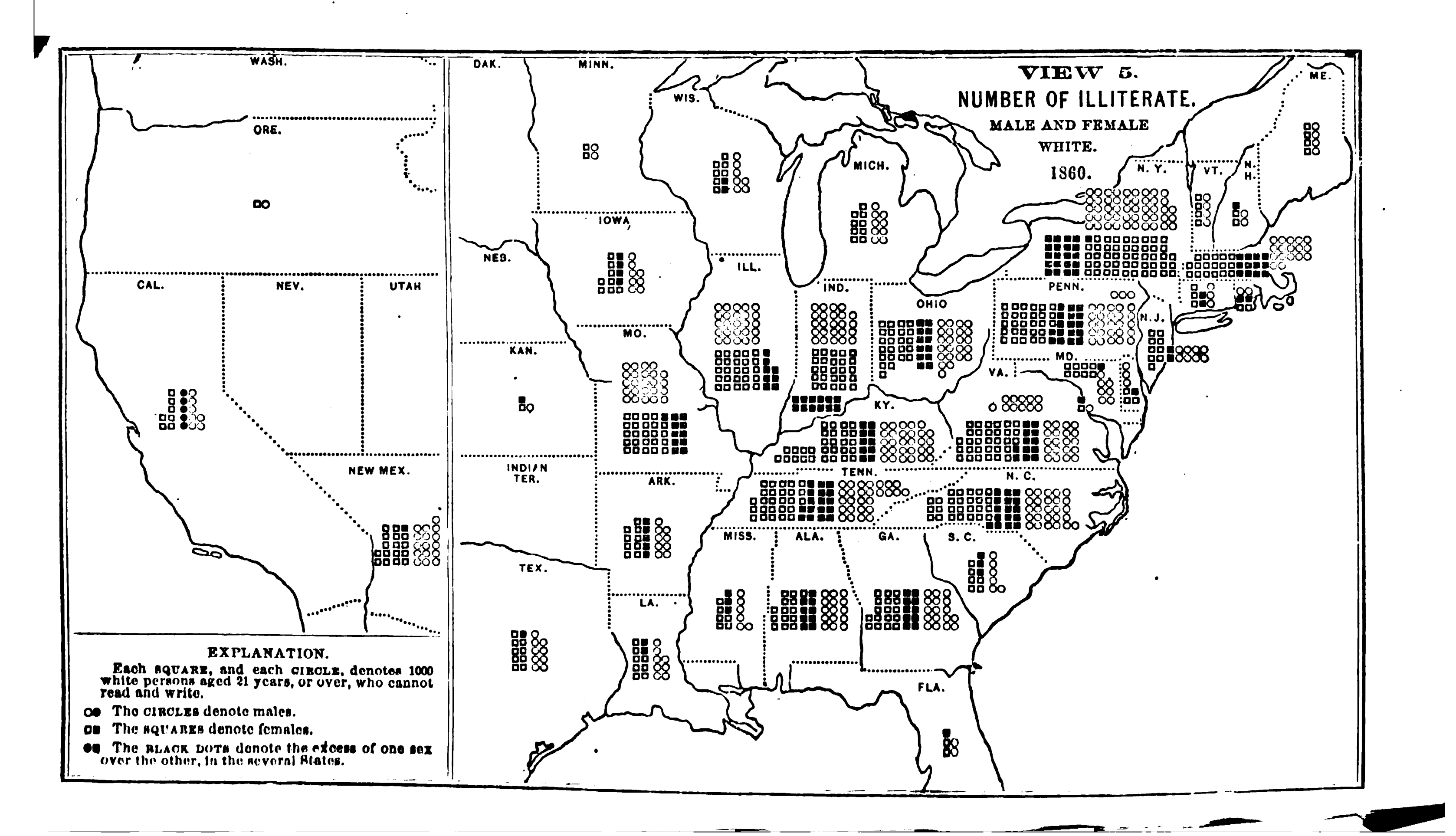
The only real and important variation from the truth is that already referred to—that the numbers must be under stated—*largely under stated.* Very many who could not read were, doubtless, unwilling to be so reported. Many who could read but a few words would, doubtless, report themselves as able to read. Here the errors would be all on one side, and the law of averages would not come in. We may safely take Horace Mann's judgment, and add "30 per cent. to the figures of the census on this point for its *undoubted under estimates.*"

We must also bear in mind in this connection the large numbers who could read but little, so little and with so great difficulty as not to be actual readers. On looking all round this subject, it is apparent that we are in no danger of over-estimating or over-stating the numbers of the illiterate, or the immensity of the evil, or its threatening character. The danger all lies the other way; and our safety and our progress require of us to look it full in the face.

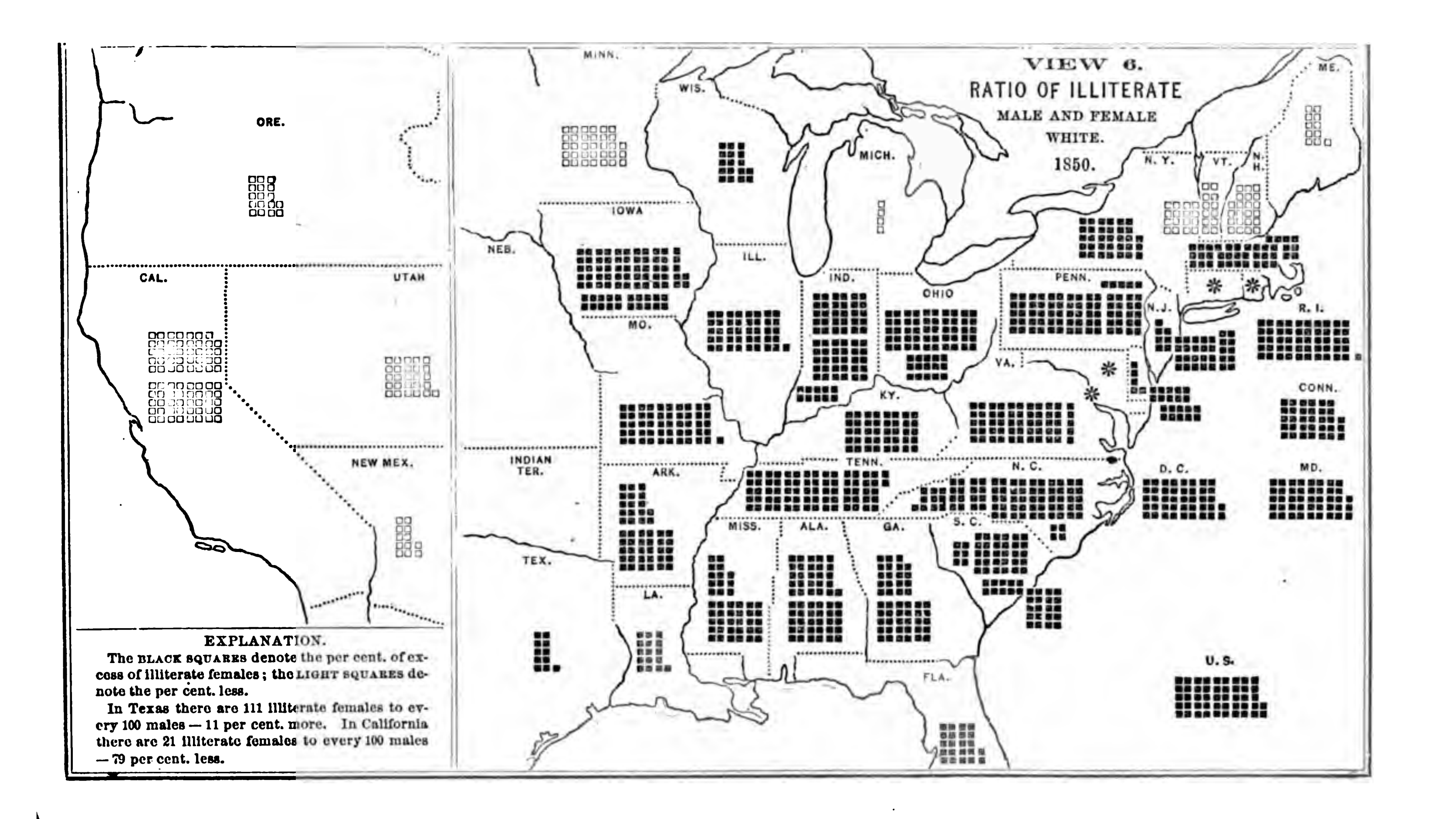
THE GREATNESS OF THE NUMBERS.—This notation, as it is used in these maps, is not designed or fitted to express the vastness of the numbers of our illiterate. That would require maps a thousand times as large. For that purpose, not one little dot, but a thousand dots, should be used to represent a thousand men; and one of these Views would fill volumes, instead of covering but a single page.

We may help our minds a little in approximating to some notion of the *comparative largeness* of these hosts of illiterate, by comparing them with the majorities at some of our popular elections, or with the numbers who enlisted in our armies, or whose lives were sacrificed in the late war. This each one can do for himself. But to form a just conception of the *actual greatness* of such large numbers is too much for the human mind. We can conceive of a few scores or hundreds, but when we come to myriads or millions, the mind is lost—it is overwhelmed.

It may help us a little to look at the *circles* in VIEWS 1, 2, 3. They are so few and so small as almost to escape notice. The use of them (see Explanations) serves to give, at once, the numbers of thousands over 19 (as in Table III.), at 20 (as in Table IV.), and over 20 (as in Table II.) So much they are designed to do, and they do. But these few little circles give no conception of the large numbers who were just attaining their majority, and assuming the powers and responsibilities of adult men and women without having the ability to read and write. In VIEW 3 the one little circle in Arkansas tells us that of the fifteen thousand illiterate native whites in that State one thousand were just becoming of age. It serves this purpose. But it expresses nothing of the *largeness* of that number. And yet that number, 1,344, is a number so large that it would require more than all the squares and circles in VIEW 3 to express it, if each dot stood for one young man or woman. So there are three



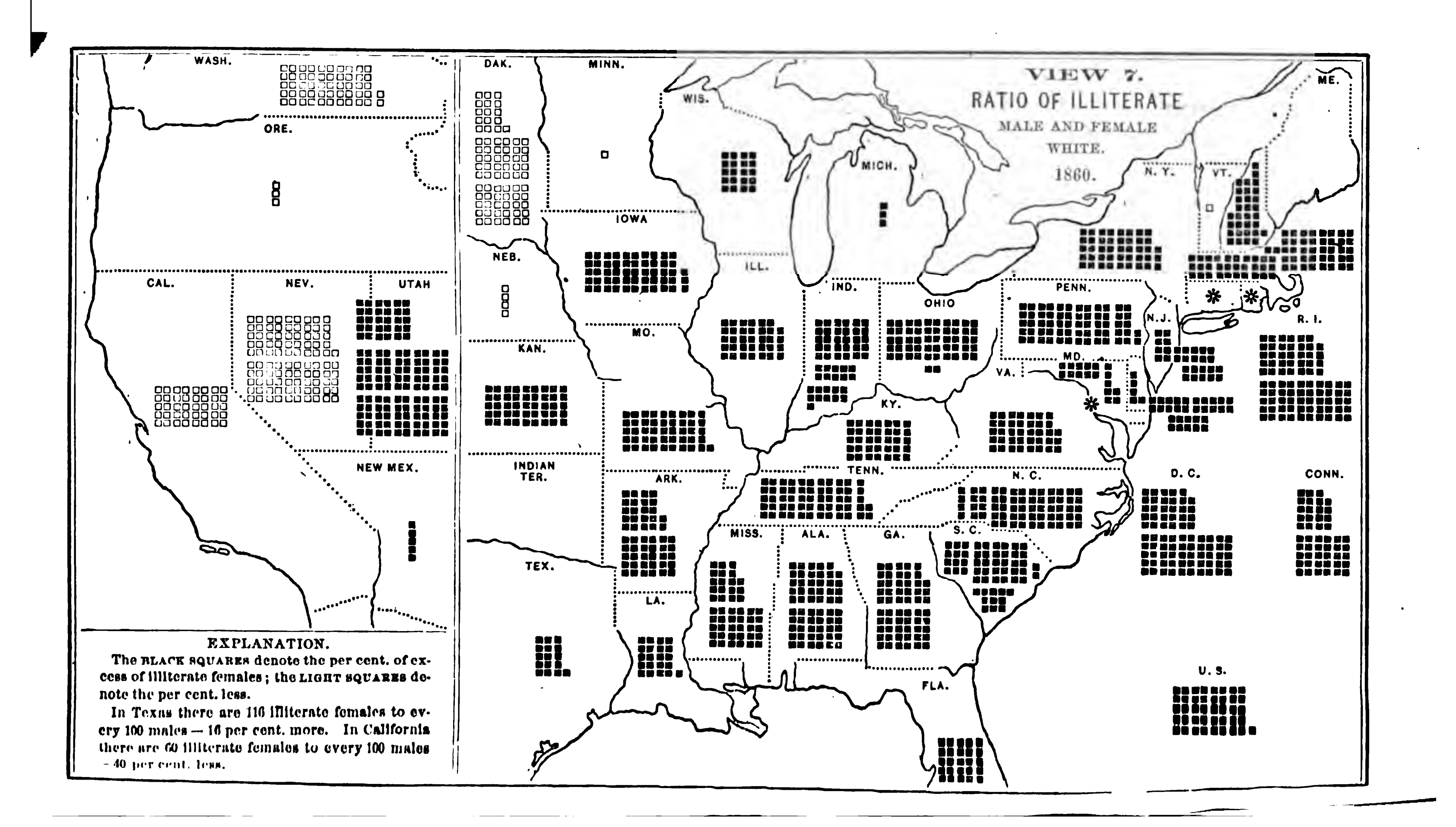
VIEW 5.
NUMBER OF ILLITERATE.
MALE AND FEMALE
WHITE.
1860.
WASH.
ORE.
CAL.
NEV.
UTAH
NEW MEX.
DAK.
MINN.
NEB.
KAN.
INDIAN TER.
TEX.
IOWA
MO.
ARK.
LA.
WIS.
ILL.
MICH.
IND.
OHIO
KY.
TENN.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
FLA.
S. C.
N. C.
VA.
MD.
PENN.
N. J.
N. Y.
VT.
N. H.
ME.
EXPLANATION.
Each SQUARE, and each CIRCLE, denotes 1000 white persons aged 21 years, or over, who cannot read and write.
The CIRCLES denote males.
The SQUARES denote females.
The BLACK DOTS denote the excess of one sex over the other, in the several States.



EXPLANATION.

The BLACK SQUARES denote the per cent. of excess of illiterate females; the LIGHT SQUARES denote the per cent. less.

In Texas there are 111 illiterate females to every 100 males — 11 per cent. more. In California there are 21 illiterate females to every 100 males — 79 per cent. less.



EXPLANATION.

The BLACK SQUARES denote the per cent. of excess of illiterate females; the LIGHT SQUARES denote the per cent. less.

In Texas there are 116 illiterate females to every 100 males — 16 per cent. more. In California there are 60 illiterate females to every 100 males — 40 per cent. less.

circles in Missouri, as there are in several of the other States. They almost escape notice. And yet the 3,237 illiterate young white men and women of that State between 20 and 21 years of age would require more than all the dots in VIEW 9 to express the whole of so large a number.

This may serve to impress upon our minds the fact that these numbers are too great for our comprehension, and that no attempt is here made to express their greatness. These Views undertake to show only the *geographical distribution* of the evil in the different sections of the country; its *historical progress* or growth from census to census; and the *relative proportions* of male and female and of native and foreign born, while the fact that it is great beyond comprehension and beyond endurance is dimly shadowed forth.

This is all, but this is enough—too much for our national pride; too much for our confidence in the safety of our free institutions; too much for our hope of rapid progress toward a higher civilization; but perhaps enough to show us how sick we are, to alarm us in view of our danger, and to cause us to apply, promptly and energetically, the appropriate remedies.

VIEWS 4, 5, 6, 7.—There is no point of view from which this subject presents so serious and threatening an aspect as from that of the large excess of female illiteracy. These four maps are prepared to bring these facts to light. In Views 4 and 5 equal numbers of male and female illiterate in each State are represented by *light* circles and squares, and then the *black* squares stand for so many thousands of illiterate females in excess of the illiterate males. In Views 6 and 7 the exact per cent. of excess in each State is so expressed that the different States may be compared with each other, and the actual degree and progress of this excess can be easily studied. The numbers are taken from Table II.

From VIEWS 6 and 7 it is apparent that (with the exception of the States along the Canadian border, where perhaps the French Canadian immigrants have more illiterate males than females, and of the newest States of the far West) the females who can not read are largely in excess; and very uniformly so, when we consider the different States, the different sections of the country, on the two different census years, 1850 and 1860.

It should be noted, by looking at Views 4 and 5, that in the States above referred to where female illiterate are not in excess, the actual numbers are very small, especially in the Western Territories—in most cases but a few scores or hundreds; and not enough to appear as thousands on these maps. In these cases the percentage has less comparative value.

In the case of Utah, though the great preponderance of ignorant women there will arrest attention and be deemed significant, the comparison between the years 1850 and 1860 does not appear on the maps. Taking Utah and Nevada together for 1860, to compare them with the same extent of territory in 1850, the total numbers are 236 men and 230 women unable to read, or 97 women to 100 men. This will make the relative numbers more nearly what they were in Utah in 1850, and exactly the same as in Oregon in 1860—3 per cent. *less* of females than of males.

To learn the lessons taught by these maps, we must turn to the States where the numbers are large, and look especially at Views 6 and 7. There are some important differences between the different States and sections which will be noticed; but the great facts are, the *general uniformity* throughout the country, and the *large excess* of females. The average is from 140 to 150 illiterate females to every 100 males, and we see how many and which States have this ratio, and how many exceed it.

VIEW 8.–A.

NUMBER OF ILLITERATE.

SLAVES.

1840.

EXPLANATION.

● Each CIRCLE denotes 1000 slaves aged 20 or over.

All the other States. Mich. Pa. N. J. N. Y. Conn. Mass. Cal. Ill. Ind. Ohio Va. Del. Mo. Ky. Md. N. C. D. C. Ark. Tenn. S. C. Tex. La. Miss. Ala. Ga. Fla.

TABLE VI. Persons Aged 20 and over.

ILLITERATE. WHOLE NUMBER. PER CENT.

1840.	Native and Foreign. White. Illiterate	White. Whole number	White. Per cent.	Slaves. Illiterate	Slaves. Whole number	Total. Illiterate	Total. Whole number	Total. Per cent.
Ala.	23,873	130,900	18.24	105,974	105,974	129,847	236,874	55
Ark.	6,972	30,555	22.82	8,004	8,004	14,976	38,559	39
Conn.	548	163,843	.33	17	17	565	*163,860	0
Del.	5,092	27,629	18.43	889	889	5,981	28,518	21
Fla.	1,384	13,944	9.93	11,684	11,684	13,068	25,628	51
Ga.	32,360	160,957	20.11	119,142	119,142	151,502	280,099	54
Ill.	29,157	198,413	14.70	136	136	29,293	198,549	15
Ind	40,229	268,049	15.01	1	1	40,230	268,050	15
Iowa	1,194	19,456	6.14	8	8	1,202	19,464	6
Ky.	42,182	242,984	17.36	71,287	71,287	113,469	314,271	36
La.	5,137	79,000	6.50	87,166	87,166	92,303	166,166	55
Maine	3,392	234,177	1.45	0	0	3,392	234,177	1
Md.	12,423	154,442	8.04	38,286	38,286	50,709	192,728	26
Mass.	4,662	402,761	1.15	0	0	4,662	403,761	1
Mich.	2,295	96,189	2.38	0	0	2,295	96,189	2
Miss.	8,871	73,838	12.01	84,695	84,695	93,566	158,533	59
Mo.	20,617	131,669	15.66	21,039	21,039	41,656	152,708	27
N. H.	980	149,911	.65	0	0	980	149,911	1
N. J.	6,693	166,964	4.01	669	669	7,362	167,633	4
N. Y.	46,735	1,155,522	4.04	1	1	46,736	1,155,523	4
N. C.	59,470	209,685	28.36	100,879	100,879	160,349	310,564	52
Ohio	37,312	638,740	5.84	2	2	37,314	638,742	6
Penn.	35,700	765,917	4.66	23	23	35,723	765,940	5
R. I.	1,690	56,835	2.97	5	5	1,695	56,840	3
S. C.	21,689	111,663	19.42	150,751	150,751	172,440	262,414	66
Tenn.	61,676	248,928	24.78	70,396	70,396	132,072	319,324	41
Vt.	2,365	144,136	1.64	0	0	2,365	144,136	2
Va.	61,712	330,069	18.70	197,899	197,899	259,611	527,968	49
Wis.	1,820	16,973	10.72	5	5	1,825	16,978	11
D. C.	1,086	15,015	7.23	2,204	2,204	3,290	17,219	19
Total	579,316	6,440,164	8.97	1,071,162	1,071,162	1,650,478	7,511,326	22

It will be seen that this table corresponds with columns 7, 10, and 11 of Table III., giving the statistics of those columns for 1840; and that the general arrangement for 1840 here, is the same as that for 1850 and 1860 there. The EXPLANATION of that table will therefore serve for this. As the free-colored illiterate were not given in the Census of 1840, they are not included in the Total column here.

Comparing the two years 1850 and 1860, we see that in the Northern and Eastern States the proportion of ignorant females has increased by the following percentages:—in Maine by 11 per cent.; in New Hampshire by 53; Vermont, 27; New York, 10; Massachusetts, 34; Rhode Island, 33; Connecticut, 16; Delaware, 10; and in the District of Columbia, 37; also in Minnesota 32, and in Wisconsin 3. In the Gulf States also it has increased—in Florida by 3 per cent.; Georgia, 9; Alabama, 3; Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas, by 5 per cent. in each. While in the more central States it has diminished—in New Jersey by 19 per cent.; Pennsylvania, 13; Ohio, 13; Indiana, 19; Illinois, 7; Iowa, 24; Missouri, 5; Kentucky, 5; Tennessee, 15; South Carolina, 11; North Carolina, 18; Virginia, 17; and Maryland, 26. In the whole country it has diminished by 6 per cent.—an encouraging fact, so far as it goes. But the great fact remains; *a very large majority of our illiterate white population are women.*

These facts ought to be strong arguments. Women are not only the mothers, and wives, and sisters of voters (if they do not vote themselves), and of soldiers and farmers, artisans and laborers, whose value as producers and worth as citizens depends so largely on their knowledge, intelligence, and means of improvement; but they themselves have special charge of our food, our dress, our home life and comforts, our well-being in health and sickness; and knowledge, intelligence, and enlightened discretion are even more needed for their special work and offices, than in the special work and sphere of the other sex. But more than all, and above all, they are the natural and actual teachers, not only in schools, but in the family, as mistresses of servants, as neighbors, friends, sisters, who can and will instruct all who need, and, highest of all, as mothers of their own children.

Let our mothers and sisters, and female friends be taught; let them read books and newspapers, and love to read them; let them love knowledge, and seek it and use it; and illiteracy will disappear from the land. Let them *know* the work *can be done*, let them have the *facilities* for it, and they *will do it.* In the place of growing ignorance, we shall have rapid advance in ability and efficiency, in intelligence, in refinement, in every thing belonging to a higher, purer, better civilization.

VIEW 8, A, B, C.—These charts show the progress of slavery from 1840 to 1860—its growth and its extension South and West. They more particularly express the numbers of thousands—of regiments—of adult slaves. (See Tables III. and VI.) Nearly all of these were illiterate. One can not but feel, on looking at this dark mass, its rapid, steady growth, and its irresistible and unresisted onward march as a mass of ignorance, degraded and degrading; that our country has escaped barely in time from evils and dangers of incalculable proportions.

If there has been so much public indifference and practical neglect in the case of white illiteracy, we have happily been deeply interested in that of the freedmen, and have taken earnest and active measures to instruct them. The sudden elevation of these untaught millions to the condition of American freemen and citizens aroused at once such a sense of duty and responsibility, and such a desire to teach and elevate them, as to call forth most liberal patronage from the Government through the Freedmen's Bureau; the most generous donations of the free-hearted and open-handed, through the Freedmen's Aid Societies—too large to be long continued; and the most noble and heroic self-devotion of teachers who hastened to the South to teach them. The convictions and the feeling of the country are well embodied in the late proclamation of the President of the

VIEW S.—B.

NUMBER OF ILLITERATE.

SLAVES

AND FREE-COLORED.

1840, 1850.

EXPLANATION.

Each CIRCLE denotes 1,000 illiterate adults.
● ○ denote slaves; ○ denote free-colored.

● These circles show the number in 1840.
○○ These, show the increase in 1850.

All the other States | Mich. | Pa. | N. J. | N. Y. | Conn. | Mass. | Cal. | Ill. | Ind. | Ohio | Va. | Del. | Mo. | Ky. | Md. | N. C. | D. C. | Ark. | Tenn. | S. C. | La. | Miss. | Ala. | Ga. | Tex. | Fla.

VIEW S.—C.

NUMBER OF ILLITERATE.

SLAVES

AND FREE-COLORED.

1840, 1850,
1860.

EXPLANATION.

Each CIRCLE denotes 1,000 illiterate adults.
● ○ ● denote slaves; ○ ○ denote free-colored.

● These circles show the number in 1840.
○○ These, show the increase in 1850.
●○ These, show the increase in 1860.

All the other States | Mich. | Pa. | N. J. | N. Y. | Conn. | Mass. | Cal. | Ill. | Ind. | Ohio | Va. | Del. | Mo. | Ky. | Md. | N. C. | D. C. | Ark. | Tenn. | S. C. | La. | Miss. | Ala. | Ga. | Tex. | Fla.

United States. There should be the same convictions and the same feeling with regard to the corresponding millions of illiterate white men and women, who are equally needy, equally worthy of our thought and generous sympathies, and constitute a much larger host of bookless citizens, if we include, not only those who can not read at all, but also those who read so poorly that books and newspapers are of no use to them.

Some facts connected with these extraordinary efforts to educate the freedman, so well-directed, so energetic, and so successful, deserve to be specially noticed and pondered well, as showing the magnitude of the work we have to do, and the absolute necessity of some other and better facilities and methods than we have hitherto employed.

Let it be premised that there must be now in the United States over five millions of free-colored people; the estimated number for 1870 is 5,407,000. (See "Preliminary Report of the Eighth Census," p. 7; and "Compendium of the Seventh Census," p. 87.) The annual increase must be set down as over 100,000, and of those who were lately slaves nearly that number. But there must have been less increase during the war, and still less from more adverse circumstances since. Let us, then, take the number for 1860, ten years ago, though that is much below the actual number. The whole number of slaves was four millions; their *annual increase*, 80,000. The whole number of adult slaves was 1,734,000; *their annual increase*, 35,000. Let us now compare with this, the numbers who have been taught to read, and judge from the past what a work we have yet to do in the future. The following facts are taken from the Reports of Mr. Alvord, Superintendent of Freedmen's Schools:—

In July, 1867, the whole number enrolled in the day and night-schools was 111,442; in 1869 it was 114,522. About one-sixth of these (some 20,000) were over 16 years of age. If *all* of those were different persons, in the day and in the night-schools, and if entirely new classes were formed in each successive year; and if none of them knew how to read before; and if every one enrolled learned to read well enough to make use of books and newspapers, and if none of them were under 20 years of age, there were not more than 20,000 adult freedmen per year taught to read—only about *half* the *annual* increase.

But many of those enrolled in the day and in the night schools must have been the same persons; and many of them attended from year to year; some of them had some ability to read before; and, doubtless, not a few beginners failed to become good readers, and then a very considerable number of those over 16 must have been under 20; so that no small deduction must be made from the 20,000 a year for the number of adults actually taught to read. Were there more than 10,000 annually taught to read in these schools? Were there so many?

There were also from 30 to 35 thousand persons estimated as attending day and night schools not regularly reported. If the same proportion of these were adults, then one-third must be added to the above numbers for the adult freedmen taught in all the schools. The Sunday-schools numbered about 100,000 persons. How many of these were adults, whether most of them were the same persons attending from year to year; how many of them belonged to the day or night schools, regularly or irregularly reported; and how much was done, and how effectively, in the Sunday-schools, to teach them to read, does not appear—can not be determined.

But setting the number taught at the highest possible figure, it is but a fraction of the annual increase. The work is manifestly so great—so inconceivably great—that the large expenditures, and

VIEW 9.

NUMBER OF ILLITERATE

OF ALL CLASSES.

1860.

EXPLANATION.

Each SQUARE, and each CIRCLE, denotes 1000 persons aged 20, or over, who cannot read and write.

- ■ The BLACK SQUARES denote native whites.
- ■ The DARK SQUARES denote foreign-born.
- ● The BLACK CIRCLES denote slaves.
- ○ The LIGHT CIRCLES denote free-colored.

Mich. N. Y. Vt. N. H. Maine Mass. Ore. Minn. Wis. Ill. Ind. Ohio Pa. N. J. Conn. R. I. Cal. Neb. Iowa Del. Kan. Mo. Ky. Va. D. C. Md. N. Mex. Ark. Tenn. N. C. S. C. Tex. La. Miss. Ala. Ga. Fla.

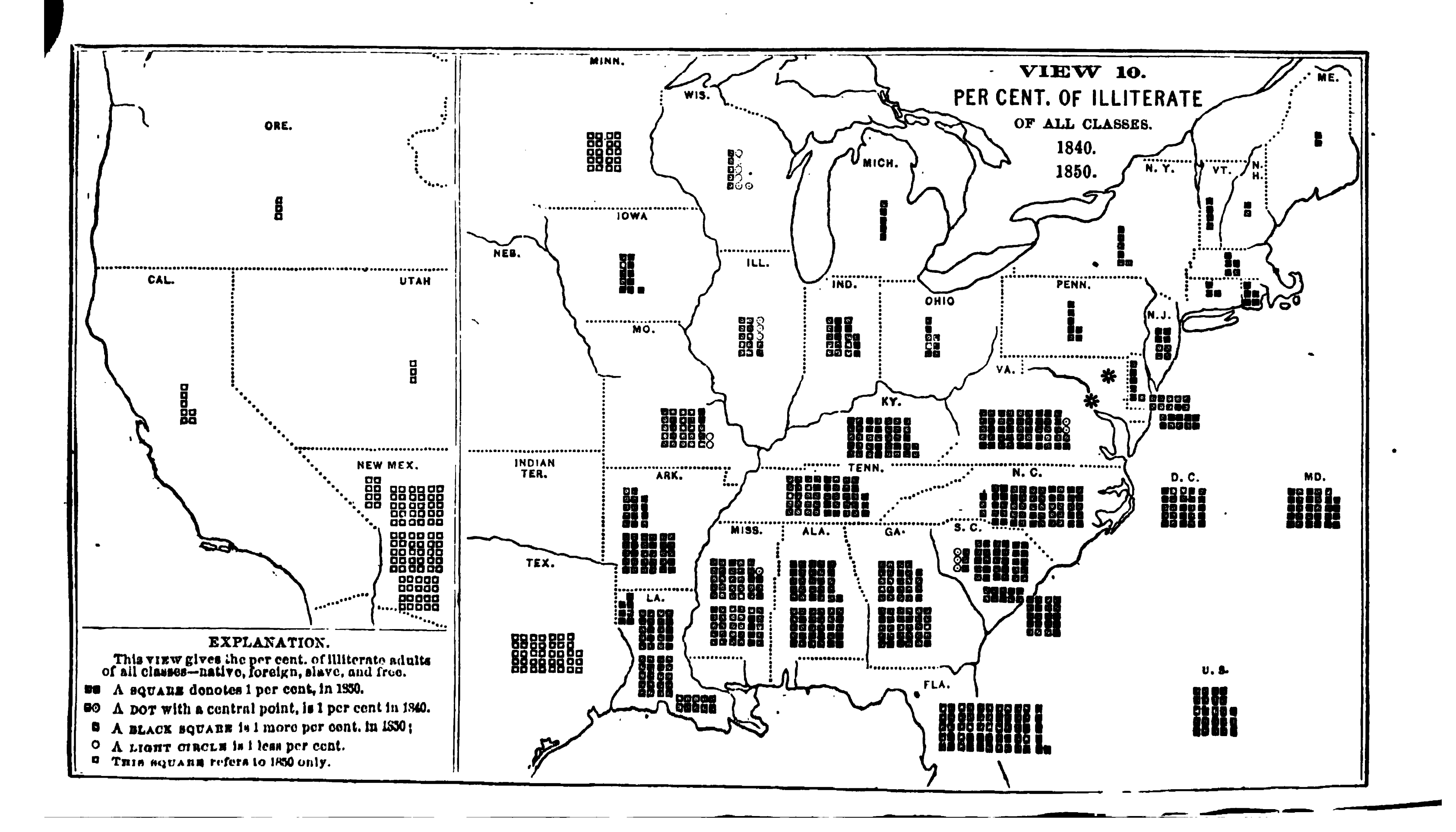
vigorous and successful efforts of the freedmen's schools and their liberal supporters have failed to keep up with the annual increase —have fallen very far behind. They have not arrested the steady, onward march of this mass of ignorance, but have done only what they could to check its progress. It has still gone on, so that to-day there are more adult freedmen unable to read than there were three years ago, many thousands more.

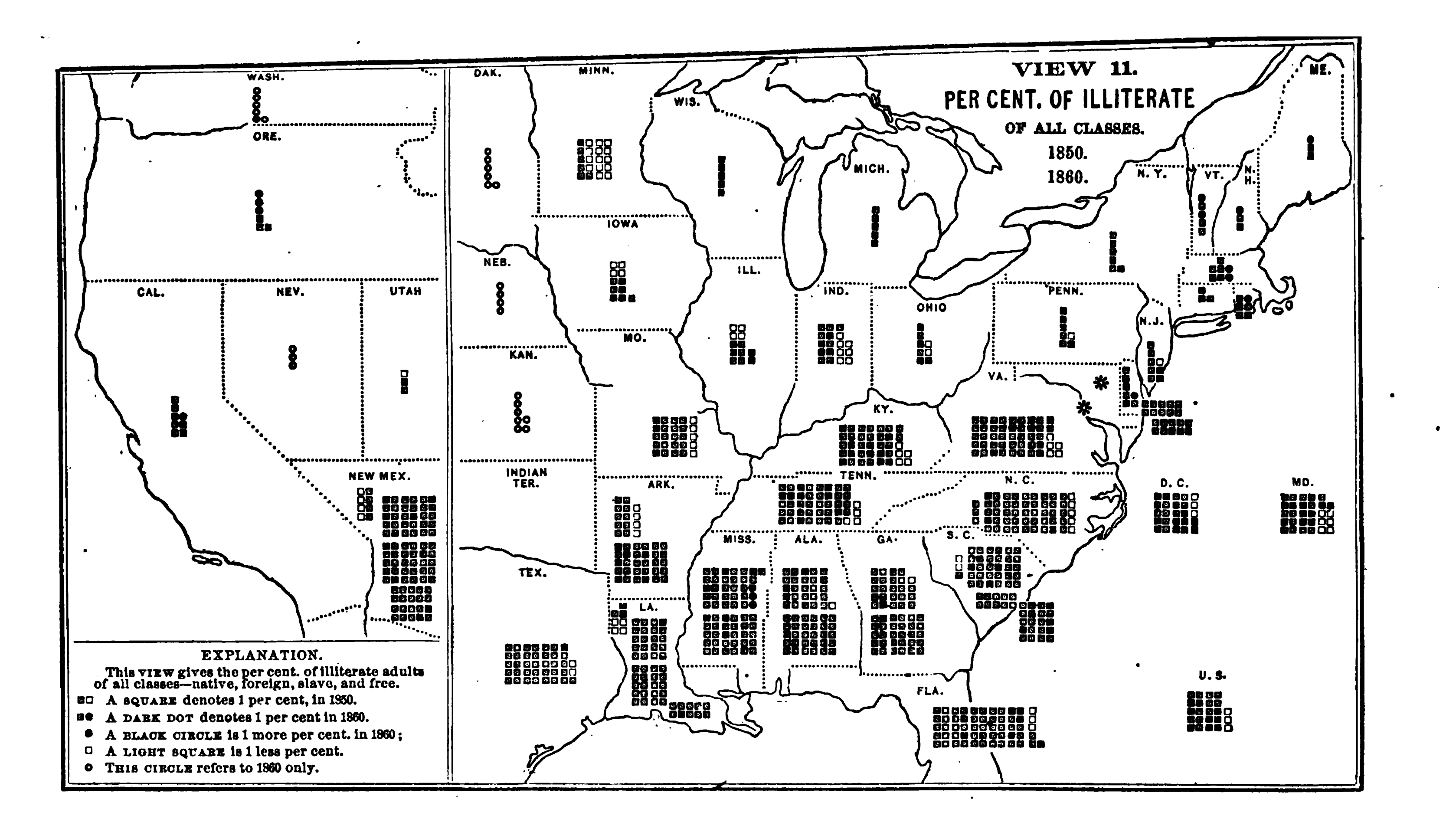
There is another view to be taken of this matter. Of the hundred thousand and more per year, regularly reported as enrolled, there were some in alphabet classes, some in easy reading, and some in advanced reading. The pupils in easy reading numbered from 30 to 55 thousand, and those in advanced reading from 20 to 44 thousand, in the several reports of the freedmen's schools from 1867 to 1870. Taking the highest number for advanced readers, 44,000, and making the proper allowance for part of them (was it five-sixths or more) being under 20, part of them belonging to night-schools as well as to day-schools, part of them being the same persons in successive years, some of them having known how to read before, and we begin to see and feel *how far* this grand and noble, and successful movement has proved inadequate to reach the heart of the evil to be removed, or even to diminish materially its rapid and steady growth.

And yet this evil must be checked, must be removed. The freedmen must learn to read. We are not even educating the children—hardly enough, perhaps not enough of *them*, to equal *their* annual increase. But, if we *were* doing this, if we were teaching *all* the children, as Prussia does for her children, and New England partially for hers, this would not be enough. As Mr. Alvord, Superintendent of Freedmen's Schools, said in 1867, "How can we *wait* for this in the rapid march of events?" Those now adults must be taught. The youth, the middle-aged must be taught; must become readers, and be aided in this way to rise and discharge better their new duties as citizens and free men, if we and they would prosper. And more of the children must be taught; they must be better, more rapidly, more successfully taught. This must be done. It *can be* done. Who of us will join and say, it *shall be done*.

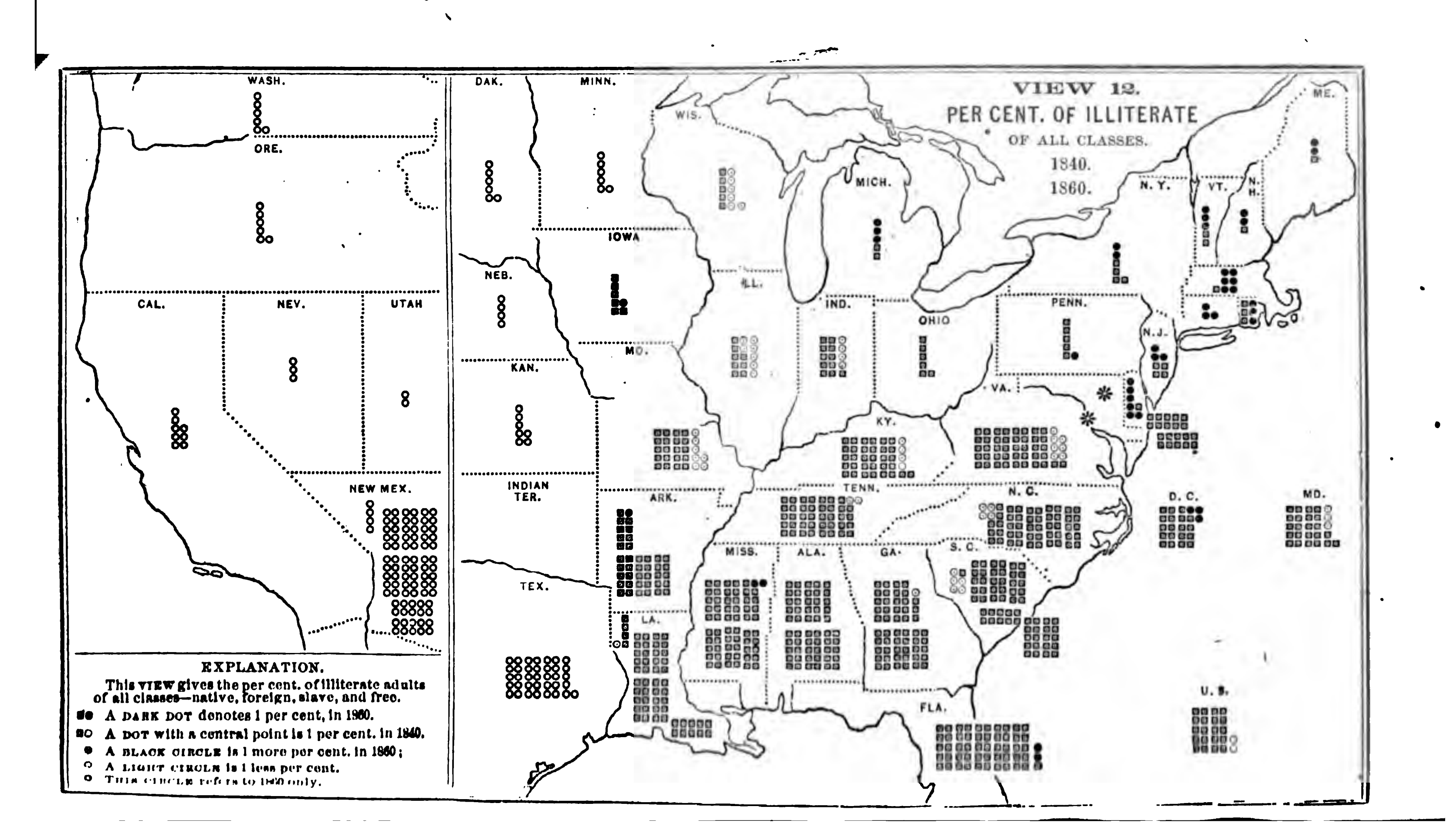
VIEW 9.—This chart is a combination of VIEWS 3 and 8 C. It gives the aggregate number of thousands of illiterate of all classes —native and foreign, male and female, black and white, slave and free. The figures from which it is derived will be found in Table III., Column 11, Total. By comparing it with VIEW 8 C, and with VIEW 3, or by comparing those two Views, it will be apparent how large a proportion of our illiterate population are white and native-born. And it must be borne in mind that *all* of the illiterate slaves are here represented; while the white illiterate who reported themselves able to read, or were able to read but little and so imperfectly as not to be actual readers, are not here included.

After what has been said on the preceding pages, this View must be left to each one's own study and reflections. It is apparent that we have an immense work to do, and that no State or section is free from a painfully large share of it at home, while many of the States North and South, East and West, are in pressing need of help, and must have it from some source. And especially when we consider that each of these dots stands for a whole thousand—a regiment of the ignorant—and that it would require a thousand times as many units to express the entire host; that all the dots in this chart will not suffice to fully express the number that Kansas alone has to teach, if she would not suffer from their continued ignorance;—we see that there is occasion and need enough for this exhibit of our real condition, and that there is work enough for us all, as individuals, as communities, as States, and as a Nation.


VIEW 10.
PER CENT. OF ILLITERATE
OF ALL CLASSES.
1840.
1850.
ME.
N. H.
VT.
N. Y.
MICH.
WIS.
MINN.
ORE.
IOWA
NEB.
ILL.
IND.
OHIO
PENN.
N. J.
VA.
KY.
MO.
CAL.
UTAH
INDIAN TER.
ARK.
TENN.
N. C.
D. C.
MD.
NEW MEX.
TEX.
LA.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
S. C.
FLA.
U. S.
EXPLANATION.
This VIEW gives the per cent. of illiterate adults of all classes—native, foreign, slave, and free.
A SQUARE denotes 1 per cent, in 1850.
A DOT with a central point, is 1 per cent in 1840.
A BLACK SQUARE is 1 more per cent. in 1850;
A LIGHT CIRCLE is 1 less per cent.
THIS SQUARE refers to 1850 only.



VIEW 11.
PER CENT. OF ILLITERATE
OF ALL CLASSES.
1850.
1860.
WASH.
ORE.
CAL.
NEV.
UTAH
NEW MEX.
DAK.
MINN.
WIS.
MICH.
IOWA
NEB.
KAN.
INDIAN TER.
TEX.
MO.
ILL.
IND.
OHIO
PENN.
N. Y.
VT.
N. H.
ME.
N. J.
VA.
KY.
TENN.
N. C.
S. C.
ARK.
LA.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
FLA.
D. C.
MD.
U. S.
EXPLANATION.
This VIEW gives the per cent. of illiterate adults of all classes—native, foreign, slave, and free.
A SQUARE denotes 1 per cent, in 1850.
A DARK DOT denotes 1 per cent in 1860.
A BLACK CIRCLE is 1 more per cent. in 1860;
A LIGHT SQUARE is 1 less per cent.
THIS CIRCLE refers to 1860 only.


VIEW 12.
PER CENT. OF ILLITERATE
OF ALL CLASSES.
1840.
1860.
WASH.
ORE.
CAL.
NEV.
UTAH
NEW MEX.
DAK.
MINN.
IOWA
NEB.
MO.
KAN.
INDIAN TER.
TEX.
WIS.
MICH.
ILL.
IND.
OHIO
PENN.
N. Y.
VT.
N. H.
ME.
N. J.
VA.
KY.
TENN.
N. C.
ARK.
MISS.
ALA.
GA.
S. C.
LA.
FLA.
D. C.
MD.
U. S.
EXPLANATION.
This VIEW gives the per cent. of illiterate adults of all classes—native, foreign, slave, and free.
A DARK DOT denotes 1 per cent, in 1860.
A DOT with a central point is 1 per cent. in 1840.
A BLACK CIRCLE is 1 more per cent. in 1860;
A LIGHT CIRCLE is 1 less per cent.

VIEWS 10, 11, 12.—In these three maps the squares and circles are not used to stand each for a thousand persons, but here each denotes one per cent. They do not express the actual numbers of illiterate, but the density of illiteracy including all classes. The figures will be found in Tables III and VI.

The 80 or 90 dots in New Mexico show that nearly all the population are illiterate—all but 10 or 15 per cent. The 50 or 60 dots in most of the cotton or plantation States show that about half or more than half the population can not read. In a few other slave States it is about one-third, in some a quarter, and, in some of the Northwestern States, from a fourth to a tenth of the people. Quite a number of the Northern States, east and west, have from five to ten per cent.; while Maine, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Nevada, and Utah, are the only States having but three per cent., or less. Of course, this includes the illiterate of all classes—foreign and slave, as well as native white. It shows how great a work each State has to do, in proportion to the number of its inhabitants, but it does not show anything, definitely, of the causes operating to increase or perpetuate illiteracy among our own free people, born and educated in our own land.

VIEW 10 shows us that the per cent. of illiteracy increased from 1840 to 1850, not only in the whole country, but especially in New England (chiefly from foreign sources), and in some of the Western and Southern States. VIEW 11, on the contrary, shows how it was diminished in the next decade, not only in the whole country, but in most of the Southern and Western States, though still increasing in New England, in Mississippi, and on the Pacific slope. VIEW 12 shows that during the whole twenty years there was some improvement in respect to the per cent. of total illiteracy in the whole country, and where it was most marked, but a great increase in some Eastern, Northern, and Southwestern States, doubtless due to illiterate immigration from Canada and Europe, and slave migration towards the extreme south and southwest.

It is not so important or instructive to investigate minutely here the improvement in the percentage of some of the States, as it will be in connection with the VIEWS of native white illiteracy. It is here complicated so much with the relative increase of slaves and whites, as well as with the influence of foreigners, that it teaches but little.

It may, however, be noticed here that the improvement was not confined to particular States. It was very general throughout the South and West—almost everywhere except in New England. It is noticeable particularly in the Northern tier of slave States, and in some Western States. It must have been due to some common cause, or causes, operating over those vast areas, and large sections and groups of States. But this is not the place for details.

Another thing strikes us on looking at these three maps, and that is, the comparative harmony and uniformity of the results of the three Census Reports of 1840, 1850, and 1860. We have already noticed (page 19, View 3) the bearing of this upon the question of the reliability of the census statistics on this subject. It is very manifest here. Whether we look at these three maps with reference to the whole country, or look at larger or smaller sections, or groups of States, or at individual States, the conviction becomes irresistible that these corresponding and harmonious results of the three successive Census Reports are due to the fact that they are substantially correct; that there are no irregularities or inaccuracies in them that can in any way materially affect the general conclusions to which they lead, and the great lessons which they teach. It only remains for us to do the work to which they point us.

ILLITERACY IN EUROPEAN STATES.

We intended to have supplemented Dr. Leigh's comprehensive and exhaustive survey of the amount and diffusion of illiteracy in the several United States, by similar tables and views of the same political evil in the different European states. But the imperfect statistics returned under this head in the general and special official examination of the inhabitants in the several countries render this impossible, and the space and time now at command preclude the proper use in this document of such statistics as have been gathered from the published marriage registers, prison reports, and conscript examinations in Great Britain, France, Switzerland, and Germany. Although the danger of a large illiterate class in the adult population to the political institutions of the country is not as formidable in European states as in the United States, where eligibility to office and suffrage is so nearly universal, the enormous loss in individual well-being and industrial production is felt to be so serious that every government in Europe is now engaged in introducing or perfecting its system of public schools, and in making at least elementary instruction universal by enforcing on parents and guardians of children the obligation of regular school attendance on all persons between the ages of six and fourteen years of age, and on every organized community, of establishing and supporting a sufficient number of public schools, under teachers of tested qualifications, to impart this instruction. For details of these systems, and especially of the provisions adopted to secure the punctual and regular attendance of all children of the recognized school-age, and to open supplementary and higher professional schools for adults, reference is made to the special documents which the Commissioner has prepared on National Education and on Technical Schools in European states, the contents of which are hereto appended. The experience of European states remedies, as well as our own, in solving the problem of universal education, proves conclusively that the existence of a system of public schools on the statute-book, no matter how comprehensive in scope or efficient in the agencies and details of administration, cannot secure the regular, punctual, and profitable school attendance of children without the willing coöperation of parents; and that the strength of a school system is in the habits of the people—the growth of generations, and particularly of religious teachings and influences. It is to the precious inheritance of such habits that the limited extent of illiteracy in the native population of portions of Germany, Switzerland, Scotland, and New England is due.

USES MADE OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS OF CENSUS OF 1840.

The statistics of illiteracy, together with information respecting schools, academies, and colleges in the several States, were for the first time obtained for the whole country in the national census of 1840. The results, as soon as tabulated, were communicated in manuscript to the secretary of the board of school commissioners of Connecticut, (Henry Barnard,) who had presented the draught of a schedule for procuring this information to the President and the Secretary of State in 1838, and again in 1839, and urged the importance of such statistics to a proper understanding of one of the vital interests of the country, and especially to those who were laboring to improve the educational systems of the several States. On the basis of these returns, Mr. Barnard prepared, in 1841, an address on the *Magnitude of the educational interests of the United States, and the necessity of great and immediate improvement in State and city systems of public instruction.* These improvements related to the construction and furniture of school-houses; the regular and punctual attendance of children at some school, public or private; the establishment of a union, or graded system in every city and large village; the more extensive employment of females as teachers, especially in primary schools, and the more systematic professional training of teachers generally by means of normal schools and temporary classes or institutes; a large increase in the sums raised by taxation for school purposes; and the subjecting of all expenditures for public schools, and the action of teachers and local school committees to the supervision of a State board, or officer, who should give the widest possible publicity to all official information respecting the actual condition and desirable improvements in the public schools, to the end that they might be made the best and the cheapest schools for all classes of children—schools "good enough for the best and cheap enough for the poorest"—in which the rich and the poor should learn to respect each other for intrinsic qualities of talent, diligence, and good behavior, and all be fitted to perform worthily the duties of American citizenship.

The statistics of the census of 1840, especially those of illiteracy, were seized upon by Horace Mann, secretary of the board of education for Massachusetts, to give weight to his eloquent appeals in behalf of improved common schools. In an *Oration delivered before the authorities of the city of Boston, July* 4, 1842, this eloquent advocate of popular education and enlightenment presents the claims of these institutions on the patriotism of the country, founded on the statistics of the census of 1840, then just published, in language which should come home to the business and the bosom of every citizen, with increased pungency in view of the exposures of each succeeding census. We make copious extracts.

Inadequacy of existing schools to the support of a republican government.

Trusts, responsibilities, interests, vaster in amount, more sacred in character, than ever before in the providence of God were committed to any people, have been committed to us. The great experiment of republicanism, of the capacity of man for self-government, is to be tried anew, which wherever it has been tried, in Greece, in Rome, in Italy, has failed, through an incapacity in the people to enjoy liberty without abusing it. Another trial is to be made, whether mankind will enjoy more and suffer less, under the ambition and rapacity of an irresponsible parliament, or of irresponsible parties; under an hereditary sovereign who must, at least, prove his right to destroy, by showing his birth; or under mobs, which are like wild beasts, that prove their right to devour by showing their teeth. A vacant continent is here to be filled up with innumerable millions of human beings, who may be happy through our wisdom, but must be miserable through our folly. Religion, the ark of God, which, of old times, was closed that it might not be profaned, is here thrown open to all, whether Christian, Jew, or Pagan, and yet is to be guarded from desecration and sacrilege, lest we perish with a deeper perdition than ever befel any other people.

These are some of the interests committed to our keeping; these are some of the duties

we have to discharge. These duties, too, are to be discharged by a people who are liable to alienation from each other by all those natural jealousies which spring from sectional interests, from discordant local institutions, from differences in climate, language, and ancestry. We are exposed to the jealousies which bad men, or which good men, whose knowledge is disproportioned to their zeal, may engender among us. And, on many questions of equal delicacy and magnitude, are we not already armed and marshaled against each other, rather than allied and sworn for common protection?

In this exigency, I affirm that we need far more of wisdom and rectitude than we possess. Preparations for our present condition have been so long neglected that we now have a double duty to perform. We have not only to propitiate to our aid a host of good spirits, but we have to exorcise a host of evil ones. Every aspect of our affairs, public and private, demonstrates that we need, for their successful management, a vast accession to the common stock of intelligence and virtue. But intelligence and virtue are the product of cultivation and training. They do not spring up spontaneously. As yet, all Utopias belong to fiction and not to history; and these fictions have so little verisimilitude that ages have passed since the last one was written. We need, therefore, unexampled alacrity and energy in the application of all those influences and means which promise the surest and readiest returns of wisdom and probity, both public and private.

This is my subject on the present occasion; a demonstration that our existing means for the promotion of intelligence and virtue are wholly inadequate to the support of a republican government. If the facts I have to offer should abate something from our national vainglory and presumption, I hope they may add as much to national prudence and forethought.

The sovereignty of a great nation is surely one of the most precious of earthly trusts. The happiness or misery which a government dispenses has dimensions in two directions, depth, as well as superficial extent. It not only reaches widely around among contemporaries, but far downward among posterity. Hence, as the well-being of many generations, each of these generations consisting of many millions, depends upon the administration of a government, there is something sublime and awful in the mere contemplation of the interests committed to rulers; and we see the reasonableness of the requisition that they should rule in righteousness.

However simple our government may be in theory, it has proved in practice the most complex government on earth. It is now an historical fact, that more questions for legislative interposition, and for judicial exposition and construction, have arisen under it, during the period of its existence, ten to one, than have arisen, during the same length of time, under any other form of government in Christendom. We are a Union made up of twenty-six States, a nation composed of twenty-six nations; and even beyond the bounds of these, the federal head is responsible for the fate of several vast Territories, and of numerous Indian tribes. Among the component States there is the greatest variety of customs, institutions, and religions. We have the deeper, inbred differences of different ancestry and language; for our people are of the lineage of all nations. Our pursuits for gaining subsistence are various; and such is the diversity of soil and climate that they must always continue to be so. One portion is agricultural, another commercial, another manufacturing. In one section, the natural productions of the earth, in forests above the surface or in minerals beneath it, are inexhaustibly rich; while of the natural productions of another region it has been graphically said that they consist of granite and ice. This region is the New England El Dorado, whose granite and ice, however, are turned into gold by industry and enterprise. Across the very center of our territory a line is drawn, on one side of which all labor is voluntary; while, on the opposite side, the system of involuntary labor, or servitude prevails. This is a fearful element of repugnance, penetrating not only through all social, commercial and political relations, but into natural ethics and religion.

In addition to the multitude of questions for decision is the mode of deciding them. This, indeed, is the grand distinctive feature of our Government. The questions which arise for decision are submitted, not to one man, nor to a triumvirate, nor to a council of five hundred, but to millions. The number of votes given at the last presidential election was nearly two millions and a half. When the appointed day for making the decision arrives the question must be decided, whether the previous preparation which has been made for it be much, or little, or none at all. And, what is extraordinary, each voter helps to decide the question as much by not voting as by voting. If the question is so vast or complicated that any one has not time to make up his mind in relation to it; or if any one is too conscientious to act from conjecture, in a case of magnitude, and therefore stays from the polls; another, who has no scruples about acting ignorantly or from caprice or malevolence, votes; and, in the absence of the former, decides the question against the right.

Through the practice of extorting pledges from a candidate before the election; through the doctrine or right of instruction, as it is called, while one continues in office; and emphatically, by the besom of destruction with which a man, who dares to act in accordance with the dictates of his own judgment and conscience against the will or whim of his constituents, is swept into political annihilation, the theoretical independence of the Representative, Senator, President, is, to a great extent, abrogated. Instead of holding their offices for two, six, and four years, respectively, they are minute-men; and many of them examine each mail to see what their oaths mean, until the arrival of the next.

Even this representation is faint and inadequate. The most conscientious men, in one State or place, are liable to be catechised out of office, or superseded for performing their duty in it, by one party; while in another State or place, others are subjected to the same fate, for belonging conscientiously to the opposite party. It actually happened, a few years since, that that great statesman and jurist, Edward Livingston, lost his election to Congress in New Orleans, because he had honestly espoused one side of an important question; and at the same election, John Sergeant, of Philadelphia, lost his because he had honestly espoused the other side; and so both were excluded from the councils of the nation. Under similar circumstances, it often happens that the places of such men are filled by some mere negation of a man, or by some political harlequin who is ready to enter on the stage, in any dress that pit or gallery may call for. Now I would ask any sober and reflecting man, whether he would not prefer to have his own and his country's interests represented on the floor of Congress by individuals such as those above-named, though widely differing from him on a particular point, rather than to have them represented by a base party-chameleon, who always reflects the political complexion of the district he resides in; or, outdoing the chameleon himself, changes to the complexion of the district he means to go to.

But it is not the legislative branch only of our Government into which the power of the people directly enters. As jurors, they decide almost all questions of fact in the judicial department. As witnesses, they are the medium for furnishing the facts themselves to which the court applies its law; and here the witness may be said to govern the court: for, accordingly as he testifies to one thing or its opposite, one legal principle or its opposite arises in the judge's mind, and is applied to the case. And again, in the absence of a standing army, the people are the only reliance of the executive power for enforcing either an act of the legislature or a decree of the court, which meets resistance.

If, then, every government, even the simplest, requires talent and probity for its successful administration, and if it demands these qualities in a higher and higher degree, in proportion to its complexity and its newness, then does our Government require this talent and probity, to an extent indefinitely beyond that of any other which ever existed. And if, in all governments, wisdom and goodness in the ruler are indispensable to the dignity and happiness of the subject, then, in a Government like our own, where all are rulers, all must be wise and good, or we must suffer the alternative of debasement and misery. It is not enough that a bare majority should be intelligent and upright, while a large minority is ignorant and corrupt. Even in such a state, we should be a house divided against itself, which, we are taught, cannot stand. Hence knowledge and virtue must penetrate society through and through. We need general intelligence and integrity as we need our daily bread. A famine in the latter would not be more fatal to natural health and life than a dearth in the former to political health and life.

Two dangers, then, equally fatal, impend over us: the danger of ignorance which does not know its duty, and the danger of vice which, knowing, contemns it. To insure prosperity, the mass of the people must be both well informed and upright; but it is obvious that one portion of them may be honest but ignorant, while the residue are educated but fraudful.

When, therefore, we say that our Government must be administered by adequate knowledge, and according to the unchangeable principles of rectitude, we mean, that it must be administered by men who have acquired this knowledge, and whose conduct is guided by these principles. The knowledge and virtue we need are not abstractions, idealities, bodiless conceptions; they must be incarnated in human form, embodied in the living head and heart; they must glow with such fervid vitality as to burst forth spontaneously into action. Instead of our talking so much of these qualities, they must be such a matter of course as not to be talked of.

If asked the broad question, whether man *is* capable of self-government, I must answer it conditionally. If by man, in the inquiry, is meant the Feejee Islanders; or the convicts at Botany Bay; or the people of Mexico and of some of the South American republics, (so called;) or those as a class, in our own country, who can neither read nor write; or those who can read and write, and who possess talents and an education by force of which they get treasury, or post office, or bank appointments, and then abscond with all the money they can steal—I answer unhesitatingly that *man*, or rather *such men*, are not fit for self-government. Fatuity and guilt are no more certain to ruin an individual, or a family over which they preside, than they are to destroy a government into whose rule they enter. Politics have been beautifully defined to be *the art of making a people happy*. Such men have no such art; but, with power in their hands, they would draw down personal and dispense universal misery.

But if, on the other hand, the inquiry be, whether mankind are not endowed with those germs of intelligence and those susceptibilities of goodness by which, under a perfectly practicable system of cultivation and training, they are able to avoid the evils of despotism and anarchy; and also, of those frequent changes in national policy which are but one remove from anarchy; and to hold steadfastly on their way in an endless career of improvement—then, in the full rapture of that joy and triumph which spring from a belief in the goodness of God and the progressive happiness of man, I answer, *they are able.*

But men are not *born* in the full possession of such an ability. They do not necessarily develop any such ability as they grow up from infancy to manhood. Competency to fill so high a sphere can be acquired only by the cultivation of natural endowments, and the subjugation of inordinate propensities.

And here a fundamental question arises—the most important question ever put in relation to this people—whether, when our government was changed from the hereditary right to rule to the hereditary right to vote, any corresponding measures were taken to prevent irresponsible voters from abusing their power, as irresponsible rulers had abused theirs. Government is a stewardship, always held by a comparatively small portion of those whose happiness is dependent upon its acts. Even with us, in States where the right of suffrage is most extensive, far less than a quarter part of the existing population sway the fortunes of all the rest, to say nothing of their power over the welfare of posterity. This precious deposit in the hands of the foreign steward had been abused; we reclaimed it from his possession, and divided it among thousands; but what guarantee did we obtain from the new depositaries that our treasure should not be squandered or embezzled as wantonly or wrongfully as before?

When the Declaration of Independence was carried into effect, and the Constitution of the United States was adopted, the civil and political relations of the generation then living and of all succeeding ones were changed. Men were no longer the same men, but were clothed with new rights and responsibilities. Up to that period, so far as government was concerned, they might have been ignorant; indeed, it has generally been held that where a man's only duty is obedience, it is better that he should be ignorant; for why should a beast of burden be endowed with the sensibilities of a man? Up to that period, so far as government was concerned, a man might have been unprincipled and flagitious. He had no access to the statute-book to alter or repeal its provisions, so as to screen his own violations of the moral law from punishment, or to legalize the impoverishment and ruin of his fellow-beings. But with the new institutions there came new relations, and an immense accession of powers. New trusts of inappreciable value and magnitude were devolved upon the old agents and upon their successors, irrevocably.

A republican government is the visible manifestation of the people's invisible soul. Through the ballot-box, the latent will burst out into authoritative action. In a republican government the ballot-box is the urn of fate; yet no god shakes the bowl or presides over the lot. If the ballot-box is open to wisdom and patriotism and humanity, it is equally oped to ignorance and treachery, to pride and envy, to contempt for the poor or hostility toward the rich. It is the loosest filter ever devised to strain out impurities. It gives equal ingress to whatever comes. No masses of selfishness or fraud, no foul aggregations of cupidity or profligacy are so ponderous or bulky as to meet obstruction in its capacious gorge. The criteria of a right to vote respect citizenship, age, residence, tax, and, in a few cases, property; but no inquiry can be put whether the applicant is a Cato or a Catiline. To secure fidelity in the discharge of their duties, an oath is imposed upon the most unimportant officers—constables, clerks, surveyors of roads, of lumber, leather, fish; while the just exercise of this highest function of the citizen, by which law-makers, law-expounders, and executive officers are alike created, is secured by no civil sanction. In all business transactions, especially where any doubt or distrust attaches to character, we reduce our stipulations to writing; but in conferring the right to vote, we take no promise beforehand that it shall be honestly exercised, nor do we reserve to ourselves any right of subsequent redress should the privilege be abused.

In some States the law provides that the *name* of every voter shall be indorsed upon the ballot he gives. Suppose, in some of our angry political contests, the *motives* of every voter were written upon his ballot, so that they should all be as legible to man, on the paper, as they are visible to God, in the heart—what a history would they reveal!

On one of those oft-recurring days, when the fate of the State or the Union is to be decided at the polls—when, over all the land, the votes are falling thick as hail, and we seem to hear them rattle like the clangor of arms—is it not enough to make the lover of his country turn pale, to reflect upon the motives under which they may be given, and the consequences to which they may lead? By the votes of a few wicked men, or even of one wicked man, honorable men may be hurled from office, and miscreants elevated to their places; useful offices abolished, and sinecures created; the public wealth, which had supported industry, squandered upon mercenaries; enterprise crippled, the hammer falling from every hand, the wheel stopping in every mill, the sail dropping to the mast on every sea—and thus capital which had been honestly and laboriously accumulated, turned into dross; in fine, the whole policy of the government may be reversed and the social condition of millions changed, to gratify one man's grudge, or prejudice, or revenge. In a word, if the votes, which fall so copiously into the ballot-box, on our days of election, emanate from wise counsels and a loyalty to truth, they will descend, like benedictions from heaven, to bless the land and fill it with song and gladness, such as have never been known upon earth since the days of paradise; but if, on the other hand, these votes come from ignorance and crime, the fire and brimstone that were rained on Sodom and Gomorrah would be more tolerable.

With the change in the organic structure of our government, there should have been corresponding changes in all public measures and institutions. For every dollar given by the wealthy, or by the State, to colleges, to cultivate the higher branches of knowledge, a hundred should have been given for primary education. For every acre of land bestowed upon an academy, a province should have been granted to common schools. Select schools for select children should have been discarded, and universal education joined hands with universal suffrage. It was no time for "Old Mortality" to be furbishing up the grave-stones of the dead, when house, and household, and posterity were all in peril from the living. Instead of the old order of nobility, with its baubles and puerilities, a new order should have been created—an order of teachers, wise, benevolent, filled with Christian enthusiasm, and rewarded and honored by all; an order looking *forward* to a noble line of benefactors whom they might help to rear, rather than *backward* to ancestors from whom they had basely degenerated. In these schools, the first great principle of a republican government, that of native, inborn equality, should have been practically inculcated, by their being open to all, good enough for all, and attended by all. Here, too, the second great principle of a republican government should have been taught, that all men, though natively equal, become inherently unequal the moment that one grows wiser or better than his fellow. The doctrine of "higher" and "lower" classes in society should have been retained, but with a change in its application. Those who had done the most good to mankind should have been honored as the "highest;" while those who had done no good to the race, either by the labors of the hand or by the labors of the mind, who had lived, without requital, upon the earnings of others, and left the world no better, or made it worse, than they found it, should have been thrust down in the scale of social consideration, to "low" and "lower," through all the degrees of comparison. Whatever of leisure or knowledge was possessed by the more wealthy or educated, should have been freely expended to enlighten the laboring classes. Lectures, libraries, lyceums, mechanics' institutes, should everywhere have been fostered; scientific tracts gratuitously distributed; and a drowning child should not have been snatched from a watery grave with more promptness and alacrity than an ignorant or an abandoned one should have been sought out, and brought under elevating and reforming influences. The noblest public edifices, the most splendid galleries of art, theaters, gardens, monuments, should all have been deemed a reproach to any people, while there was a child among them without ample and improved means of education. The nature and functions of our Government, the laws of political economy, the *duties* as well as the *rights* of citizens, should have been made familiar as household words. The right to vote should have been held up as the most sacred of human rights, as involving all civil and religious rights, and therefore to be *constrained*, (*coactum*, as the Romans would have more vigorously expressed it,) by all civil and religious obligations. The great truth should everywhere have been inculcated, by example as well as by precept, that for the dependent to vote from malice, or envy, or wantonness, involves substantially the moral guilt of treason; and for the superior to compel the dependent, through fear or bribery, to vote against his judgment, involves the baseness as well as the guilt of subornation of treason. Had this been done, our days of election would never have been, as they now so often are, days of turbulence and bacchanalian riot, of insulting triumph or revengeful defeat; but they would have been days of thoughtfulness and of solemnity, such as befit a day whose setting sun will witness the ruin or the rescue of so much of human welfare.

The last census of the United States shows the round number of five hundred and fifty thousand persons, over the age of twenty years, unable to read and write. From no inconsiderable attention devoted to this and kindred topics, I am convinced that the above number, great as it is, is far below the truth. I will state one or two of the reasons, among many, which have led me to this conclusion.

There is no part of our country where a man would not prefer to be accounted able to read and write, rather than to be written down according to the preference of Dogberry. To be supposed the possessor of power and accomplishments is a desire common to all men, whether savage, civilized, or in the intermediate state. The deputy marshals or assistants who took the census traveled from house to house, making the shortest practicable stay at each. They received compensation, *by the head*, not by the day, for the work done. Considering the time to which they were limited, more was required of them than could be thoroughly and accurately performed. The most credible sources of information would be the heads of families; but as these might not always be at home, they were allowed to receive statements from persons over sixteen years of age. It must often have happened that the import of the questions propounded by them was not fully understood. Their informants were subjected to no test, their bare word being accredited. The very question would imply disparagement, and would often be regarded as an insult, by those who saw no reason for putting it. A new source of error would exist in any want of fidelity in the agent; and who can suppose, among so many, that all were faithful? It is well known, too, that no inconsiderable number of persons gave false information when inquired of by the deputies, either through a wanton or mischievous disposition, or through a fear that the census was only a preliminary step to some tax or other requisition, to be made upon them by the government.

Let me fortify this reasoning with facts. In the annual message of Governor Campbell,

of Virginia, to the legislature of that State, dated January 9, 1839, the year immediately preceding that in which the census was taken, I find the following statement:

'"The importance of an efficient system of education, embracing in its comprehensive and benevolent design the whole people, cannot be too frequently recurred to.

"The statements furnished by the clerks of five city and borough courts, and ninety-three of the county courts, in reply to inquiries addressed to them, ascertain, that of those who applied for marriage licenses, a large number were unable to write their names. The years selected for this inquiry were those of 1817, 1827, and 1837. The statements show that the applicants for marriage licenses in 1817 amounted to four thousand six hundred and eighty-two; of whom eleven hundred and twenty-seven were unable to write; five thousand and forty-eight in 1827, of whom the number unable to write was eleven hundred and sixty-six; and in 1837, the applicants were four thousand six hundred and fourteen, and of these the number of one thousand and forty-seven were unable to write their names. From which it appears there still exists a deplorable extent of ignorance, and that, in truth, it is hardly less than it was twenty years ago, when the school fund was created. The statements, it will be remembered, are partial, not embracing quite all the counties, and are moreover confined to one sex. The education of females, it is to be feared, is in a condition of much greater neglect.

"There are now in the State two hundred thousand children between the ages of five and fifteen. Forty thousand of them are reported to be poor children; and of them only one-half to be attending schools. It may be safely assumed that of those possessing property, adequate to the expenses of a plain education, a large number are growing up in ignorance, for want of schools within convenient distances. Of those at school many derive little or no instruction, owing to the incapacity of the teachers, as well as to their culpable negligence and inattention. Thus the number likely to remain uneducated and to grow up without just perceptions of their duties, religious, social, and political, is really of appalling magnitude, and such as to appeal with affecting earnestness to a parental legislature."

Here let the audience mark particulars. Written application was to be made for a marriage license. The rudimental or elementary education which a person obtains, usually precedes marriage. After this climacteric, people rarely go to school to learn reading and writing. The information, here given, was obtained from five city and borough, as well as from ninety-three county courts, (the whole number of counties in the State being one hundred and twenty-three,) not, therefore, in the dark interior only, but in the blaze of city illumination. The fact was communicated by the governor of a proud State to the legislature of the same. Each case was subjected to an infallible test, for no man who could make any scrawl in the similitude of his name would prefer to make his mark, and leave it on record The requisition was made upon the officers of the courts, and the evidence was of a documentary or judicial character, the highest known to the law. And what was the result? Almost one-quarter part of the men applying for marriage licenses were unable to write their names! It would be preposterous to suppose that their intended wives had gazed, from any nearer point than their husbands, at the splendors of science. Indeed, Governor Campbell clearly intimates an opinion that the women were far more ignorant than the men.

I ought to add that an inquiry made in another part of the same State, by one of its public officers, showed that *one-third* of all those who had applied for a marriage license had made their marks.

Now Virginia has a *free* white population over twenty years of age of 329,959. One-fourth part of this number is 82,489, which, according to the evidence presented by Governor Campbell, is the lowest possible limit at which the minimum of adults unable to read and write can be stated. But the census number is 58,787 only, making a difference of 23,702, or more than forty per cent. North Carolina, with a free white population over twenty years of age of only 209,635, has the appalling number, even according to the census, of 56,609 unable to read and write; or a great deal more than one-quarter part of the whole free population, over twenty years of age, *below zero*, in the educational scale. If to this number we should add forty per cent. as facts require us to do in the case of Virginia, we should find almost two-fifths of the whole adult population of that State in the same Cimmerian night.

I had proposed to pursue this computation in regard to Kentucky, Tennessee, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, &c., but the task is useless and sickening. It must suffice to state, in general terms, that the number, according to the census, of persons, over the age of twenty, unable to read and write, is, in Virginia, 58,787, in North Carolina 56,609, Kentucky 40,010, Tennessee 58,531, South Carolina 20,615, (with a free white population over twenty years of age of only 111,663, and with 327,038 slaves,) Georgia 30,717, and Alabama 22,592; and that, by the Constitution of the United States, these ignorant multitudes have the right of voting for representatives in Congress, not only for themselves, but for their slaves, five slaves being counted as equal to three whites. Now, if to the 550,000 free white population, over the age of twenty years, unable to read and write, as shown by the census, we should add only *thirty per cent.*, for its undoubted underestimates, it would increase the total to more than 700,000.

I might derive another and a convincing argument from the statistics of education given

by the census in regard to our own State, to prove their inaccuracy. The same general motives which would lead to an understatement in regard to the number of persons unable to read and write, would lead to an overstatement in regard to the number of those attending school. In Massachusetts, the whole number of scholars of all ages, in all our public schools, is annually returned by the school committees, men highly competent to do their duty, familiar with the subject, and possessing the most ample and exact means of information. By those returns it appears that the whole number of scholars who were in all our public schools, any part of the time during our school year 1840–'41, (the year in which the census was taken,) was but 155,041, and the average attendance was, in winter, 116,308, and in summer, 96,892; while the number given in the census is 158,351.

But without seeking any closer approximation to so unwelcome a truth, let us suppose that we have but 700,000 free white persons in the United States, over the age of twenty years, unable to read and write; and further, that only one-quarter part of these are voters; that is, we will deduct one-half for females, and allow one-half of the male moiety to be persons either between twenty and twenty-one, or unnaturalized, (which, considering the States where the great mass of this ignorance belongs, is a most liberal allowance, because the number of ignorant immigrants is much less at the South than at the North,) and we should then have 175,000 voters unable to read and write.

Now at the last presidential election, when every voter not absolutely in his winding-sheet was carried to the polls, when the harvest-field was so thoroughly swept that neither stubble nor tares were left for the gleaner, at that election the majority for the successful candidate was 146,081, about 30,000 *less* than the estimated number of legal voters in the United States unable to read and write. At this election, it is also to be remembered, a larger majority of the *electoral* votes was given to the successful candidate than was ever given to any other President of the United States, with the single exception of Mr. Monroe in 1820, against whom there was but one vote. General Harrison's *popular* majority, also, was undoubtedly the largest by which any President of the United States has ever been elected, with the exception above mentioned of Mr. Monroe and perhaps that of General Washington, at his second election. And yet this majority, large as it was, was about 30,000 less than the estimated number of our legal voters unable to read and write.

No, fellow-citizens, we have not for years past, and we shall not have at least for many years to come, an election of a President, or a Congress, or a governor of a State, chosen under written constitutions, and to legislate and act under written constitutions, whose choice will not be dependent upon, and determinable by, *legal* voters unable to read and write, voters who do not know, and cannot know, whether they vote for King Log or King Stork. The illustrious and noble band who framed the Constitution of the Union, Washington, Adams, Franklin, Jefferson, Madison, who adjusted all the principles which it contains, by the line and the plummet, and weighed the words which describe them in scales so nice as to tremble beneath the dust of the balance, expended the energies of their mighty minds to perfect an instrument which, before half a century should pass away, was doomed to be administered, controlled, expounded, by men unable to read and write. The power of Congress over all the great social and economical interests of this vast country; the orbits in which the States are to move around the central body in the system; the functions of the Executive, who holds in his hands the Army and the Navy, manages all diplomatic relations with foreign powers, and can involve the country at any time in the horrors of war; and that grand poising power, the supreme judiciary, appointed to be the presiding intelligence over the system, to harmonize its motions and to hold its attracting and divergent tendencies in equilibrium; all this splendid structure, the vastest and the nicest ever devised by mortals, is under the control of men who are incapable of reading one word of the language which describes its framework, and defines its objects and its guards, incapable of reading one word of contemporaneous exposition of antecedent history, or of subsequent developments, and therefore ready to make it include anything or exclude anything, as their blind passions may dictate. Phaeton was less a fool when he mounted the chariot to drive the horses of the sun, than ourselves, if we expect to reach the zenith of prosperity and happiness under such guidance!

I have spoken of those only who might as well have lived before Cadmus invented letters, as in the middle of this nineteenth century. But it is to be remembered there is no unoccupied space, no broad line of demarcation between the totally ignorant and the competently learned. Between meridian and midnight, a dim and long twilight intervenes.

If the seven hundred thousand—who, in one particular, surpass the most learned of ancient or modern times, because to them all written languages are alike—if these are the most numerous class, probably the next most numerous consists of those who know next to nothing, and in reaching the summit of the highest intelligence, we should ascend by very easy gradations. Very many people learn to write their name for business purposes, whose attainments, at that point, become stationary; and it is one thing to be just able to read a verse in the Bible, and quite another to understand the forty thousand words in common use among intelligent men; there being more than a geometrical increase in the ideas which these words may be made to convey. Nay, if a few of the words used by an intelligent man are lost to the hearer through his ignorance of their meaning, the whole drift and object of the speaking or writing are lost. The custom so prevalent at the West and South, of *stump-speaking*, as it is significantly but uncouthly called, had its origin in the

voters' incapacity to read. How otherwise can a candidate for office communicate with ignorant voters? Should he publish his views and send them abroad, he must send an interpreter with them; but at a *barbecue*, amid the sympathy of numbers, the excitement of visible objects, the feast, the flow, the roar, the most abstruse points of the Constitution, the profoundest questions of national policy can all be expounded, and men and measures decided upon to universal satisfaction!

A clear corollary is deducible from this demonstration. If the majority of a self-governing people are sober-minded, enlightened, studious of right, capable of comparing and balancing opposite interpretations of a fundamental law, or opposite views of a particular system of policy, then all appeals addressed to them in messages, speeches, pamphlets, and from the thousand-tongued newspaper press, will be calm, dispassionate, adapted at once to elucidate the subject under consideration and to instruct and elevate the mind of the arbiters. But, on the other hand, if the people are ignorant, fickle, averse to or incapable of patient inquiry, prone to hasty decisions from plausible appearances, or reckless from prejudice or passion, then the demagogues who address will adapt themselves to the dupes who hear, just as certainly as the hunter adapts his lure to the animal he would ensnare: and flattery, imposture, falsehood, the vindication and eulogy of fellow-partisans, however wicked, and the defamation of opponents, however virtuous, will be the instruments by which a warfare, destructive in the end alike to victors and vanquished, will be waged. Let the spirit and tone of our congressional and legislative speech-makers, and the language of the political press throughout the country, decide the question, which of the above-described classes they consider themselves as addressing.

Some have thought that in a republic the good and wise must necessarily maintain an ascendency over the vicious and ignorant. But whence any such moral necessity? The distinctive characteristic of a republic is the greater freedom and power of its members. A republic is a political contrivance by which the whole popular voice is collected and uttered as one articulate and authoritative sound. If then the people are unrighteous, that utterance will be unrighteous. If the people, or a majority of them, withdraw their eyes from wisdom and equity, those everlasting lights in the firmament of truth; if they abandon themselves to party strife, where the triumph of a faction rather than the prevalence of the right is made the object of contest, it becomes as certain as are the laws of omnipotence, that such a community will express and obey the baser will.

Suppose a people to be honest but unenlightened, either by study or experience; and suppose a series of questions to be submitted to them for decision, more grave and important than were ever before evolved in the history of the race; suppose, further, that many of the leading men among them, and the principal organs which hold communication with them, instead of striving to enlighten and instruct, only inflame and exasperate one portion of them against another portion, and in this state of mind they proceed to the arbitrament, would it not be better, like the old Roman soothsayers, to determine the question by the flight of birds, or to learn the oracles of fate by inspecting the entrails of an animal!

To these indisputable facts respecting the general ignorance of this country, it cannot be answered that, stationed at different points all over its surface, with narrow intervening distances, there are a few men who have been bred in collegiate halls, educated in all the lore of civil polity, and trained to the labors of professional life, who will be eyes to the blind and understandings to the foolish, and will lead the ignorant in the paths of wisdom. In the first place, suppose that irreconcilable differences should arise among these men; can an ignorant and stupid people decide between them, with any certainty of not deciding in favor of the erroneous? And again, the history of the world shows an ever-present desire in mankind to acquire power and privilege, and to retain them when acquired. Knowledge is power; and the race has suffered as much from the usurpers of knowledge as from Alexanders or Napoleons. If learning could be monopolized by a few individuals among us, another priesthood, Egyptian or Druidical, would speedily arise, bowing the souls of men beneath the burden of their terrible superstitions; or, if learning were more widely spread, but still confined to a privileged order, the multitude, unable to comprehend the source of the advantages it conferred, and stimulated by envy and fear, would speedily extinguish whatever there might be of light, just as the owl and the bat and the mole, if they were promoted to the government of the solar system, would extinguish the sun, because its beams arrested their hunt for insects and vermin. No! The whole people must be instructed in the knowledge of their duties; they must be elevated to a contemplation and comprehension of those great truths on which alone a government like ours can be successfully conducted; and any hope of arresting degeneracy, or suppressing the insurgent passions of the multitude by the influence of here and there an individual, though he were as wise as Solon or Solomon, would prove as fallacious as an attempt to stop the influx of malaria by sprinkling a little chloride of lime along the creeks and shallows of the shore, if the whole ocean, in all its depths, were corrupted.

It is the sublimest truth which the history of the race has yet brought to light, that God has so woven the fortunes of all men into one inseparable bond of unity and fellowship, that it can be well with no class, or oligarchy, or denomination of men, who, in their own self-seeking, forget the welfare of their fellow-beings.* Nature has so bound us together by the ties of brotherhood, by the endearments of sympathy and benevolence, that the doing

of good to others opens deep and perennial well-springs of joy in the human soul; but if we will select the coarse gratifications of selfishness, if we will forget our own kindred blood in whosesoever veins it may flow, then the Eternal Laws denounce, and will execute upon us, tribulation and anguish, and a fearful looking-for of an earthly as well as of a heavenly judgment.

In the first place, there is the property of the affluent, which lies outspread, diffused, scattered over land and sea, open alike to the stealthiness of the thief, the violence of the robber, and the torch of the incendiary. If any think they hold their estates by a surer tenure, by charters, franchises, or other muniments of property, let them know that all these, while the ballot-box, which controls legislation, and the jury-box and the witnesses' stand, which control the tribunals of justice, are open—all these are but as iron mail to protect them against lightning. Where is their security against breaches of trust and fraudulent bankruptcies, against stop-laws and supension-acts, or the bolder measures of legislative repudiation? If their ultimate hope is in the protection of the laws, what shall save them when fraud and perjury turn every legal remedy into a new instrument of aggression? And behind all these there is an omnipotent *corps de reserve* of physical force, which mocks at the slowness of legislation and judicature, whose decrees are irreversible deeds, whose terrific decisions flash forth in fire, or burst out in demolition.

But houses, lands, granaries, flocks, factories, warehouses, ships, banks, are only exterior possessions, the outworks of individual ownership. When these are carried, the assault will be made upon personal security, character, and life, and, lastly, upon all the endearments and sanctities that cluster around the domestic altar; and when these are lost, humanity has nothing more to lose.

The free population of the United States, in 1840, was 14,581,553. It is found that about one-fourth part of our population is between the ages of four and sixteen years. In Massachusetts it is so almost without a fraction. Although there may be slight variations from this ratio in other States, yet undoubtedly the number *four* is an integer, by far nearer than any other that could be taken, which, when compared with unity or one, would show the ratio between the whole population of the United States and the number of children within them between the ages of four and sixteen years.

Now, one-fourth part of the whole free population is 3,645,388, while the whole number of children, *of all ages*, in the primary and common schools of the Union is only 1,845,244, which would leave 1,800,144, or almost half the children *of an age to attend school*, and far more than half the whole number, *between four and sixteen years of age*, without any of the advantages which those schools might afford.

Nor would the result be materially altered, even should we add all the students of those institutions called academies and grammar schools, as contradistinguished from primary and common schools; for they amount, in all, only to 164,159. The difference between four and sixteen being twelve, if we divide the number of those who neither attend any academy, grammar, common, or primary school by twelve, it will give a quotient of 136,332 persons who belong to this uneducated class, and who are annually passing the line of majority, and coming upon the stage of life, to be the fathers and the mothers of the next generation, the depositaries of all we hold dear; in fine, to be the electors, *or the elected*, for all our magistracy. This class alone will annually furnish a number of voters far greater than the average popular majority by which our Presidents have been chosen. And even this statement, fearfully large as it is, does not include those foreigners who are coming, thousands every week, to mingle with our people, and very soon to take part in the choice of all our officers.

It was the observation of one of the most philosophical foreigners who have ever visited this country, (George Combe, esq.,) that probably a majority of all the voters in the United States were under thirty-five or thirty-six years of age. I think an examination of the last census would verify this remark. It would require then but fourteen years, or three and a half presidential terms, a period almost identical with that which has elapsed since the election of General Jackson, to bring forward a numerical majority of voters who have never possessed either the intellectual or the moral advantages of a school; and to whom the interior of a school-room would be as novel an object as the interior af an Egyptian pyramid, and the books and apparatus of the former as unintelligible as the hieroglyphics of the latter Indeed, why are not the political destinies of the country already in such hands? This class, from their profound ignorance, will necessarily be incapable of discerning principles, or of appreciating arguments—accessible through the passions alone; creating demagogues for leaders, and then destroying them, just as naturally as a barbarian makes an idol of a stock or a serpent, and then hews it down or kills it when it does not answer his ridiculous or selfish prayers. Nor will this class of men necessarily attach themselves to any one party; but they will be, like the shifting ballast of a vessel, always on the wrong side.

I have spoken only of that half of our rising population, our future rulers, who, from infancy to manhood, are rarely in any school of any kind. But in no house for education is there any charm or magic, of such transforming power, as to turn an ignorant child into a capable citizen. What *is* the house? what the course of study and the appliances? who the teacher, and how long the attendance? become here significant questions. In regard to the moiety who, at some period of their minority, may be found in the school-room, look at the

edifices where they assemble, which must have been first called *temples of science* by some bitter ironist; consider their meager outfit of books and apparatus; reflect upon the strong tendency, in all uneducated quarters, to keep a show-school instead of a useful one; and think for a moment of the character of a portion, at least, of the teachers, whose only evidence of competency is, that nothing has been made in vain, and that they have failed in everything before undertaken.

In looking at the last census of the United States, one might infer that, at least, something adequate to the exigencies of the times had been done in the higher departments of education. The census shows a list of one hundred and seventy-three universities or colleges, with more than sixteen thousand students. I rejoice in the existence of any institutions for the increase of knowledge among the people; but the honor of education is rather tarnished than brightened by giving a president and faculty, instead of a prudential committee man, to a district school, and then calling it a college. The census gives to Massachusetts but *four* colleges, with 769 students. What, then, are we to think of the *twelve* colleges set down to Maryland, (with less than three-sevenths of our free white population, and with almost 12,000 over the age of twenty unable to read and write,) with 813 students; of the *thirteen* colleges set down to Virginia, with 1,097 students; of the *ten* in Kentucky, with 1,419 students; and of the *eighteen* in Ohio, with 1,717 students? Some of these colleges or universities at the West and South I know are well conducted, and embrace a competent range of studies; but whoever has visited many of the institutions bearing these high-sounding names, inquired into their course of studies, marked the ages of the students, and seen the juvenile alumni, well knows that the amount of instruction there given bears no greater proportion to what a liberal college course of studies should be than the narrow circuit of a mill-horse to the vast circumference of the hippodrome.

And what are we doing, as a people, to supply these great deficiencies? What intellectual lights are we kindling to repel the night of ignorance, whose coming on will bring not only darkness but chaos?

There is not a single State in this whole Union which is doing anything at all proportionate to the exigency of the case. The most that can be said is, that there are three States out of the twenty-six which have adopted some commendable measures for the promotion of this great work. These are Massachusetts, New York, and Michigan; the first, by sustaining her board of education, by her normal schools, and her district school libraries; the second, by her district school libraries, her fund, and her county superintendents of schools; and the third, by her magnificent fund, and her State superintendency of education. Five years ago Ohio entered upon the work, but after about two years the measure was substantially abandoned. Four years ago a new system was established in Connecticut, which was most efficiently and beneficially administered under the auspices of one of the ablest and best of men, Henry Barnard; but it is with unspeakable regret I amcompelled to add that within the last month all her measures for improvement have been swept from the statute-book. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Kentucky may be mentioned as exhibiting signs of life on this subject, although it is a life which far more nearly resembles the imitative and feeble movements of infancy than the independent and conscious energy of manhood.

In but few of the other States can even a well-digested system for the organization of schools be found in the statute book; and in most of them the meager provisions upon the subject seem to have been inserted only as a sort of ornamental legislation, and are disregarded or obsolete. And what is most painful and humiliating to reflect upon, in all the principal slave States, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and so forth, the highest homage which is paid to the beneficent power of education is the terrible homage of making it a severely punishable offense to educate a slave!

Now, even within the narrow horizon of the politician, what is the result of this neglect of childhood, and the consequent ignorance of men? When an election is coming on, whether State or national, then the rival parties begin to play their game for the ignorant, and to purchase the salable. Mass meetings are held. Hired speakers itinerate through the country. A thousand tireless presses are plied day and night. Newspapers and pamphlets are scattered thick as snow flakes in a wintry storm. Reading-rooms and committee-rooms are opened, and men abandon business and family to fill them. The census is taken anew, and every man is labeled or ear-marked. As the contest approaches, fraud, intimidation, bribes, are rife. Immense sums are spent to carry the lame, to hunt up the skulking, to force the indifferent to the polls. Taxes are contributed to qualify voters, and men are transported at party expense from one State to another. Couriers are dispatched from county to county, or from State to State, to revive the desponding with false news of success. And after all this, even if a party chances to succeed in its choice of men, what security has it for the fulfillment of any of its plans? Death may intervene. A "unit" cabinet may explode and be scattered into many fragments. A party cemented together by no principle of moral cohesion, and founded upon no well-settled convictions of the intellect, may be broken in pieces like the image of Nebuchadnezzar. Ten thousand retainers of the camp, who followed it only through hope of plundering the dead, will scent other spoils in another camp when that hope is extinguished; and thus all the toil that was endured, and the expenditures and sacrifices that were made, will be lost.

For the last ten years, such have been the disastrous fluctuations of our national and

State policy, on the single subject of the currency, that all the prodigality of nature, pouring her hundreds of millions of products annually into our hands, has not been able to save thousands and thousands of our people from poverty; and in many cases, economy, industry, and virtue could not rescue their possessor from want. And why? I answer, as one reason, because this question has been decided, again and again, by voters who could not read and write—by voters to whom the simplest proposition in political economy or in national finance is as unintelligible as a book of Hebrew or Greek. Should such men vote right, *at any one time*, it would be for a wrong reason; and, the favorable chances being exhausted, they may be relied upon to vote wrong ever afterward. Hence, under one administration, we have had a bank; under another a sub-treasury; and the third may be commended to the benefit of its own bankrupt law.

During all this time, the course of our Government, on this and other great questions of policy, has been vacillating—enacting and repealing, advancing and receding, baffling all the plans of the wisest, instead of imitating in some good degree, as it should do, the steadiness and force of the Divine administration.

And who are they who have suffered most under these changes which so nearly resemble anarchy? Whose property has been dissipated? Whose enterprises have been baffled? Are they not mostly those who have been, not merely neglectful, but disdainful, of the common schools? Who have given whatever wealth they had to give to public libraries, to colleges, and the higher seminaries of learning? Who have separated their children from the mass and gathered them into class and clan, and sectarian schools of their own? Who have opposed legislative grants and municipal taxation; and who, for their whole lives, have never countenanced, patronized, or even visited the common school, from which their own rulers were so soon to emerge? What a remarkable fact it is, in the history of this Commonwealth, that among all the splendid donations—amounting, in the whole, to many millions of dollars—which have been made to colleges and academies, and to theological institutions for the purpose of upholding the doctrines of some particular sect, only one man, embracing the *whole* of the rising generation in his philanthropic plan, and acting with a high and enlightened disregard of all local, partisan, and sectarian views, has given any considerable sum to promote the prosperity of common schools. (Hon. Edmund Dwight.)

Let us look at another aspect of this case. The number of convicts at present in confinement in the penitentiaries and State prisons of the Union is very nearly four thousand seven hundred and fifty, and the average duration of their imprisonment is about four years. The number under sentence *for crime* in common jails and houses of correction is not less than the preceding, and the average length of their imprisonment is estimated at six months. Suppose that these culprits live, on an average, but eight years after their enlargement, and we have the appalling number of *eighty-five thousand five hundred* convicted criminals, proved offenders against the laws of God and man, almost universally adults, at large, mingling in our society, and a very large portion of them competent to vote—there being but three States in all this Union where, by the constitution of the State, a conviction for felony or any infamous offense works a forfeiture of the elective franchise. YES! *voters, good and true*—for the wrong side—and to send you and me to perdition! And I do not believe there is one State in the Union whose elections for governor and other high officers have not sometimes been so nearly a drawn game that its quota of this felon host, its own battalion of sin, would not have been able to decide them by what a politician would call a very respectable majority.

From this glimpse, this mere bird's-eye view of our intellectual and moral condition, I do not hesitate to affirm that our republican edifice at this time, in present fact and truth, is not sustained by those columns of solid and ever-enduring adamant—intelligence and virtue. Its various parts are only just clinging together by that remarkable cohesion, that mutual bearing and support, which unsound portions of a structure may impart to each other, and which, as every mechanic well knows, will, for a time, hold the rotten materials of an edifice together, although not one of its timbers could support its own weight; and unless, therefore, a new substructure can be placed beneath every buttress and angle of this boasted Temple of Liberty, it will soon totter and fall, and bury all indwellers in its ruins.

And what, I again ask, are we doing to impart soundness and permanency to that which we profess so much to value and admire?

Is it not most extensively true that when we appeal to the different classes and occupations of men we meet with indifference if not with repulse? We solicit the farmer to visit the school, but he is too much engaged with the care of his stock to look after his children. We apply to the tradesman, but his account of profit and loss must be adjusted before he can attend to the source of all profit and loss—in the mind. We call upon the physician, but he has too many patients in the arms of death to allow him one hour for arresting the spread of a contagion by which, if neglected, hundreds of others must perish. We apply to the lawyer and the judge, but they are redressing the wrongs and avenging the violated laws of society; they are so engaged in uncoiling the folds of a parent serpent which has wound himself around the state, that they cannot stop to crush a hundred of its young ere they issue from the nest to wind their folds alike around the state, and the law, and its ministers. We apply to the clergyman; he bids us godspeed, but commends us for assistance to the first man we meet, for he and his flock are beleagured by seven evil spirits in the form of seven

heresies, each fatal to the souls of men. We sally forth from his doors, and the first man we meet is his clerical brother; but he, too, has seven fatal heresies to combat, and he solemnly assures us that the most dangerous leader of them all is the man we have just left. We apply to the wealthy and the benevolent, who are carrying on vast religious enterprises abroad; but they have just shipped their cargoes of gold to Africa, to Asia, and to the uttermost isles of the sea, and can spare nothing, never asking themselves the question, who, *in the next generation*, will support the enterprises they have begun, and retain the foothold they may acquire, if they suffer heathenism and the idolatry of worshiping base passions to spring up in their native land and around their own doors. We go to those great, antagonist, theological institutions, which have selected high social eminences all over the land, and entrenched themselves against each other, as warring generals fortify their camps upon the summit of confronting hills; we implore them to send out one wise and mighty man to guide this great people through a wilderness more difficult to traverse than that which stretched between Egypt and Canaan, but each hostile sect is engaged in propagating a creed which it *knows* to be true, against the fatal delusion of those various and opposite creeds, which each of the other sects also *knows* to be true! Oh! when will men learn that ever since the Savior bowed his head upon the cross and said, "It is finished," there has been *truth* enough in the world to make all men wise, and holy, and happy. All that is wanted—all that ever has been wanted—is, minds that will appreciate truth. The barbarian cannot appreciate it, whether born in New Zealand or in New England. The benighted and brutified child, whose thoughts are born of prejudice, whose actions of sensualism, whose moral sensibilities have been daily seared from his birth with the hot iron of vicious customs and maxims, cannot discern truth, cannot know it, will not embrace it, whether his father is called a savage or a Christian. If we say that the conceptions and desires of such minds are a transcript of Divine truth, what do we affirm the original to be? No! Two different elements are essential to the existence of truth in the soul of man—first, the essence or prototype of truth as it exists in the Divine Intelligence; and, secondly, a human soul sufficiently enlightened by knowledge to conceive it, sufficiently exercised in judgment to understand it, and sufficiently free from evil to love it. The latter are every whit as essential as the former. The human mind must be so enlarged that truth can enter it, and so free from selfishness, from pride, and intolerance that truth may be its constant and welcome resident. To give truth a passport to the souls of men, to insure it home and supremacy in the human heart, there must be some previous awakening and culture of the intellectual and moral nature. In this respect it is with spiritual as with scientific truth. The great astronomical truths which pertain to the solar system have existed ever since the creation—for generations past they have been known to the learned—and all the planets as they move are heralds and torch-bearers sent round by the hand of God, revolution after revolution, and age after age, to make perpetual proclamation through all their circuits, and to light up the heavens from side to side with ocular and refulgent demonstration of their existence; and yet, until their elements are all laboriously taught, until our minds are opened and made capacious for their reception, these glorious truths are a blank, and, for our vision and joy, might as well never have been. And so of all truth; there must be a mind enlarged, ennobled purified, to embrace truth in all its beauty, sublimity, and holiness, as well as beautiful, sublime, and holy truths to be embraced. Until this is so, truth will be a light shining in darkness, and the darkness comprehending it not. But when this shall come to pass. then the awakened soul will exclaim, with Jacob, "Surely the Lord was in this place, and I knew it not." Yet, alike in all lands and for centuries past, ninety-nine hundredths of all human efforts and expenditures have been devoted to force upon the successive generations of the young some special system which happened in the particular age to be in the ascendant, and which, in its turn, had been prejudicated by fallible men to be infallibly true, while scarcely anything has been done to kindle the love of truth in the human breast, and to train the intellect to strength and impartiality in all investigations after it.

Amid the distractions which now rend the country, let me ask you, as sober and reflecting men, what remedy do you propose for the present; what security for the future? Evils are not avoided by closing our eyes against them; and in which direction do you look for hope without confronting disappointment or despair? Will the great political and financial problems which now agitate the Union ever be rightly solved and permanently adjusted while they are submitted, year after year, to voters who cannot even read and write? Can any additional intelligence and integrity be expected in our rulers without additional intelligence and integrity in the constituency that elects them? Complain of President or Congress as much as we will, they are the very men whom we, the people, have chosen. If the country is an active volcano of ignorance and guilt, why should not Congress be a crater for the outgushing of its lava? Will Providence interfere to rescue us by a miracle, while we are voluntarily pursuing a course which would make a speedier interference and a more stupendous miracle necessary for our subsequent rescue? How much of time, of talent, and of wealth we are annually expending in legislatures, in political conventions, through newspapers, to gain adherents to one system of policy, or its opposite, to an old party or to a new one; but how little to rear a people with minds capable of understanding systems of policy when developed, and of discerning between the right and the wrong in the parties which beset and would inveigle them! What honors and emoluments

are showered upon successful politicians; what penury and obscurity are the portion of those who are molding the character of a rising generation of sovereigns! And here let not the truth be forgotten, that the weightiest obligation to foster and perfect the work of education lies upon those states which enjoy the most, and not upon those which suffer under the least; for to whomsoever much is given, of them shall much be required.

Let us suppose that we are now overtaken by some great crisis in our national affairs, such as we have already seen, or may soon see; let us suppose that, in the issue of some presidential contest, for instance, not only the public interests of the nation, but the private interests of thousands of individuals, should be adroitly implicated, and that preparations should be made, and a zeal excited, corresponding to the magnitude of the occasion. War impends. Commerce, manufactures, agriculture, are at stake or in conflict. The profits of capital and the wages of labor have been made to antagonize. North and South are confronted. Rich and poor, high and low, radical and conservative, bigot and latitudinarian, are marshaled for the onset. The expectants of office, suffering under a four, perhaps an eight years' famine, are rioting on anticipated spoils. The spume of other countries, and the refuse of our own, are coalescing, and some Cataline is springing to the head of every ruffian band. Excitement foams through all the veins of the body politic; in some it is fever, in others delirium, and, under these auspices or omens, the eventful day arrives.

It surely requires but little effort of the imagination to picture forth the leaders of all the party-colored bands into which our country is divided, as at the head of their respective companies, and gathering them to a mightier assembly than ever met in Grecian Areopagus or Roman Comitia. Among the vast and motley-souled hosts which such a day would summon together, I will direct your attention to but two grand divisions—divisions, however, of this republican army which would be first in the field, and most contentious for the victory—I mean the legionaries of crime and those of ignorance.

Behold, on this side, crowding to the polls, and even candidates for the highest offices in the gift of the people, are those whose hands are red with a brother's blood, slain in private quarrel! Close-pressing upon these, urges onward a haughty band glittering in wealth; but, for every flash that gleams from jewel and diamond, a father, a mother, and helpless children have been stolen and sold into ransomless bondage. Invading their ranks, struggles forward a troop of assassins, rioters, lynchers, incendiaries, who have hitherto escaped the retributions of law, and would now annihilate the law whose judgments they fear; behind these pours on, tumultuous, the chaotic rout of atheism; and yonder dashes forward a sea of remorseless life—thousands and ten thousands—all felons, convicts, condemned by the laws of God and man. In all the dread catalogue of mortal sins, there is not one but, in that host, there are hearts which have willed, and hands which have perpetrated it. The gallows has spared its victim, the prison has released its tenants; from dark cells, where malice had brooded, where incendiarism and lust had engendered their machinations, where revenge and robbery had held their nightly rehearsals, the leprous multitude is disgorged, and comes up to the ballot-box to foredoom the destinies of this nation. In gazing at this multitudinous throng who emerge from their hiding-places on the days of our elections, all flagrant with crime and infamy, would not every man exclaim, "I did not know, I could not have thought, that all the foul kennels and stews of earth, nay, nor all the gorged avenues of hell, could regurgitate upon the world these legions of iniquity."

But look again, on the other side, at that deep and dense array of ignorance, whose limits the eye cannot discover. Its van leans against us here; its rear is beyond the distant hills. They, too, in this hour of their country's peril, have come up to turn the folly of which they are unconscious into measures which they cannot understand, by votes which they cannot read. Nay, more, and worse, for from the ranks of crime emissaries and bandit leaders are sallying forth toward the ranks of ignorance, and hieing to and fro among them, shouting the gibberish war-cries of faction, and flaunting banners with lying symbols, such as cheat the eye of a mindless brain; and thus the hosts of crime are to lead on the hosts of ignorance in their assault upon liberty and law.

In all that company of felons and caitiffs who prowl over the land, is there one man who did not bring with him into life the divine germ of conscience, a sensibility to right and capacities which might have been nurtured and trained into the fear of God and the love of man? In all this company of ignorance, which in its insane surgery dissects eye, and brain, and heart, and maims every limb of the body politic to find the disease, which honestly, though blindly, it wishes to cure, in all this company is there one who did not bring with him into life noble faculties of thought, capabilities of judgment, and prudence, and skill, that might have been cultivated into a knowledge, an appreciation, and a wise and loving guardianship of all human interests and human rights. The wickedness and blindness of the subject are the judgments of heaven for the neglect of the sovereign; for to this end and to no other was superiority given to a few, and the souls of all men pre-adapted to pay spontaneous homage to strength and talent and exalted station, that through the benignant and attractive influence of their possessors the whole race might be won to wisdom and virtue.

Let those then whose wealth is lost or jeoparded by fraud or misgovernment, let those who quake with apprehension for the fate of all they hold dear, let those who behold and lament the desecration of all that is holy, let rulers whose counsels are perplexed, whose plans are

baffled, whose aws defied or evaded, let them all know that whatever ills they feel or fear are but the just retributions of a righteous heaven for neglected childhood.

Remember, then, the child whose voice first lisps, to-day, before that voice shall whisper sedition in secret or thunder treason at the head of an armed band. Remember the child whose hand to-day first lifts its tiny bauble before that hand shall scatter fire-brands, arrows, and death. Remember those sportive groups of youth in whose halcyon bosoms there sleeps an ocean, as yet scarcely ruffled by the passions, which soon shall heave it as with the tempest's strength. Remember, that whatever station in life you may fill, these mortals, these immortals, are your care. Devote, expend, consecrate yourselves to the holy work of their improvement. Pour out light and truth as God pours sunshine and rain. No longer seek knowledge as the luxury of a few, but dispense it among all as the bread of life. Learn only how the ignorant may learn, how the innocent may be preserved, the vicious reclaimed. Call down the astronomer from the skies; call up the geologist from his subterranean explorations; summon, if need be, the mightiest intellects from the council chamber of the nation; enter cloistered halls, where the scholiast muses over superfluous annotations; dissolve conclave and synod, where subtle polemics are vainly discussing their barren dogmas; collect whatever of talent, or erudition, or eloquence, or authority the broad land can supply, *and go forth* AND TEACH THIS PEOPLE. For, in the name of the living God, it must be proclaimed that licentiousness shall be the liberty; and violence and chicanery shall be the law; and superstition and craft shall be the religion; and the self-destructive indulgence of all sensual and unhallowed passions shall be the only happiness of that people who neglect the education of their children.

NOTE.

We refer to the report which is now in preparation in this office on the "Historical Development of Public Schools, and Education generally, in the United States," for an encouraging view of the work which has been done in this field since the first official statistics of schools, academies, and colleges were gathered and published in 1840 and 1841. Since that date the public school has assumed new and almost overshadowing importance in the educational agencies of the different States; the necessity of wise laws efficiently administered is universally recognized, both in the constitution and statutes of each State; a department charged with the administration of these laws exists in every State and in every large city; taxation for the support of public schools, not only of an elementary, but of the highest grade, is now enforced on every individual in proportion to his property, irrespective of the number of children he has to educate, and the aggregate for the whole country is one of the principal financial items of each State; a complete revolution in the construction and furniture of school-houses has been wrought, and upward of $100,000,000 have been invested in structures for the accommodation of public schools within the last twenty years; in place of weak, imperfect, rival district schools in cities and large villages, well-organized public systems of graded schools everywhere abound, in which the education imparted is at once cheap and good; the fundamental truth, that education is a science and teaching and school-management an art, is acknowledged by the establishment of normal schools or teachers' seminaries in every State and many of our large cities, and by the almost universal practice of holding institutes and classes for the professional improvement of teachers actually engaged in the schools; and as the pledge of still greater advancement, the public mind and the hearts of parents are constantly addressed by the daily press, and in every form of report and printed document, on the condition and improvement of schools. But with all these gratifying results, the report referred to will show the necessity of still more efficient legislation and of wiser administration, in order to do away with a still frightful amount of illiteracy, and make the education given more practically useful.

NATIONAL EDUCATION: Special Report on Systems of Public Instruction in Turkey, Italy, France, Prussia, Belgium, Denmark, Russia, Portugal, Saxony, Saxon Principalities, Wurtemburg, and the Free Cities of Germany, submitted March 15, 1870.

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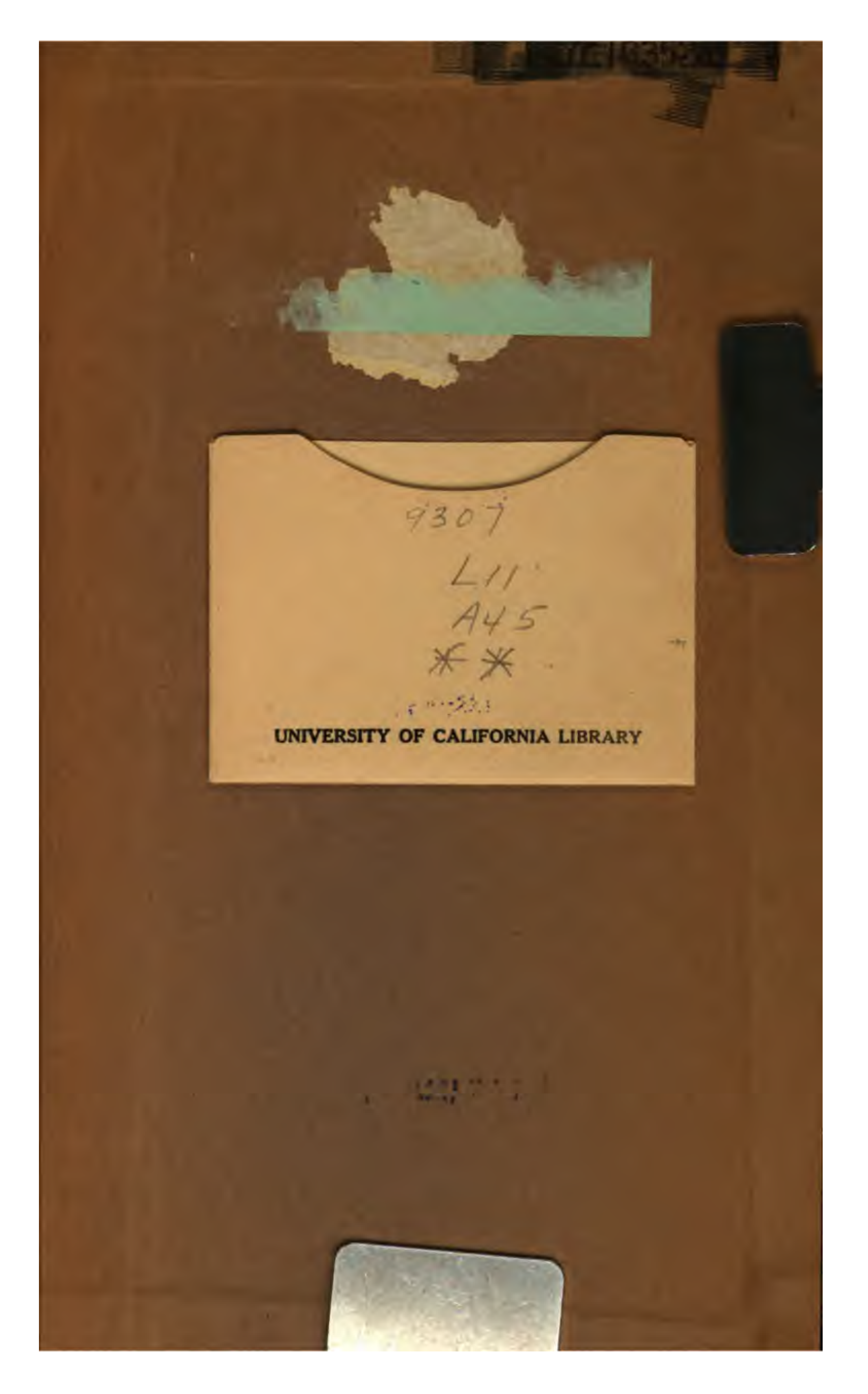
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